

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY  
ISTANBUL MEDENIYET UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES  
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION  
ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION**



**UNPACKING TEACHER TALK:  
THE USE OF METADISCOURSE MARKERS  
IN ONLINE EFL CLASSROOMS**

**MASTER'S THESIS**

**CANSEL KIVRAK**

**JULY 2022**

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**Supervisor**

**ASSOC. PROF. ÖZGE CENGİZ ALKAN**

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## **BİLDİRİM**

Hazırladığım tezin tamamen kendi çalışmam olduğu, akademik ve etik kuralları gözeterek çalıştığımı ve her alıntıya kaynak gösterdiğimi taahhüt ederim.

Cansel Kıvrak

Danışmanlığını yaptığım işbu tezin tamamen öğrencimin çalışması olduğu, akademik ve etik kuralları gözeterek çalıştığını taahhüt ederim.

Doç. Dr. Özge Cengiz Alkan

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**TEZ ONAY İMZA SAYFASI**

Cansel Kıvrak tarafından hazırlanan ‘**Unpacking Teacher Talk: The Use of Metadiscourse Markers in Online EFL Classrooms**’ başlıklı bu yüksek lisans tezi Yabancı Diller Anabilim Dalı’nda hazırlanmış ve jürimiz tarafından kabul edilmiştir.

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Metadiscourse analysis contributes to teachers who teach English as a second language to direct their classroom activities and to strategies to effectively conduct classroom conversations in a foreign language. Examining teachers' metadiscourse skills is essential in language acquisition since English speaking is a model for preparatory students to be proficient in English. The present research contributes to the existing literature by examining the frequency and the discourse functions of metadiscourse markers in online EFL instructors' talks.

Writing this thesis has been a challenging but at the same time very enjoyable process for me, which could not be achieved without the endless support of those who stood by me during this process. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the ones who were by my side with their contributions, valuable comments, and emotional support. First and foremost, I owe a big thank you to my thesis supervisor Assoc. Prof. Özge Cengiz Alkan for her amazing fund of knowledge in the field of Linguistics and English language teaching. With the help of her constructive feedback, patience, and encouragement, she made this process both enjoyable and manageable for me.

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**ÖZET**  
**İNGİLİZCENİN YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRETİLDİĞİ ÇEVİRİMİÇİ**  
**SINIFLARDA ÖĞRETMENLERİN ÜSTSÖYLEM BELİRLEYİCİSİ**  
**KULLANIMI**

KIVRAK, Cansel

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Bu çalışmanın amacı A2 ve B1 yeterlilik düzeyindeki çevrimiçi İngilizce hazırlık sınıflarında İngilizce öğretim görevlileri tarafından kullanılan üstsöylem belirleyicilerini türleri, sıklıkları ve söylem işlevleri açısından incelemektir. Çalışmaya özel ve devlet üniversiteleri olmak üzere en az yedi yıllık deneyime sahip olan ve yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğreten dört öğretim görevlisi ile A2 ve B1 yeterlilik düzeyindeki öğrencileri katılmıştır. Araştırmanın tasarımı karma yöntemli bir çalışmadır. Bu amaçla, sınıfların her iki yeterlik düzeyinden elde edilen 30 ders kaydı önce *Transana* aracılığıyla deşifre edilmiş, daha sonra, deşifre edilen bu konuşmalar Vande Kopple' ın (2012) taksonomisi temel alınarak üstsöylem belirleyicilerinin belirlenmesi için nitel ve nicel veri analizi program olan MAXQDA'ya transfer edilmiştir. Genel veri analiz edildiğinde, İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin derslerinde sırasıyla, *metin bağlayıcıları*, *tutum belirleyicileri*, *geçerlilik belirleyicileri*, *açımlayıcılar* ve *yorumları* tercih ettikleri saptanmıştır. Araştırmanın bulguları, her iki sınıf düzeyinde kullanılan üstsöylem belirleyicilerinin türleri bakımından bir farklılık olmadığını göstermiştir. Ancak İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin A2 ve B1 yeterlik seviyelerindeki sınıflarda kullandıkları üstsöylem belirleyicilerinin sıklıkları ve söylem işlevleri açısından bazı benzerlikler ve farklılıklar sergilediklerini ortaya koymuştur. Her iki sınıf düzeyinde de *metin bağlayıcıları* İngilizce öğretim görevlileri tarafından en çok kullanılan üstsöylem belirleyicisidir. Bulgular ayrıca, İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin A2 yeterlilik düzeyindeki öğrencilerle geçerlilik belirleyicilerinden çok, *tutum belirleyicilerini*, B1 yeterlilik düzeyindeki öğrencilerle ise tutum belirleyicilerinden çok, *geçerlilik belirleyicilerini* kullandıklarını göstermiştir.

Söylem işlevlerinin kullanımının ardındaki pedagojik amaç her iki düzey sınıfta da bir *sonraki adımı bildirme, konulaştırma, mantıksal olarak ilişkilendirme, soruna işaret etme, vurgulama, duysal (olarak) deneyimleme, dinleyicilerin bilgisiyle ilgili yorum yapma* gibi söylem işlevlerinin aynı olduğunu ancak *sıralama, hatırlatma, tanımlama ve açıklama, farklı bir biçimde ifade etme, kaçınma kullanarak destekleme, zihinsel materyale karşı tutum* olarak adlandırılan söylem işlevlerinin farklı olduğunu göstermiştir.

**Anahtar Sözcükler:** Sınıf Söylemi, Çevrimiçi Eğitim, Öğretmen Konuşması, Üstsöylem Belirleyicileri

**ABSTRACT**  
**UNPACKING TEACHER TALK: THE USE OF METADISCOURSE MARKERS**  
**IN ONLINE EFL CLASSROOMS**

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Master's Thesis, Department of Foreign Language Education, English Language  
Education

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Özge Cengiz Alkan

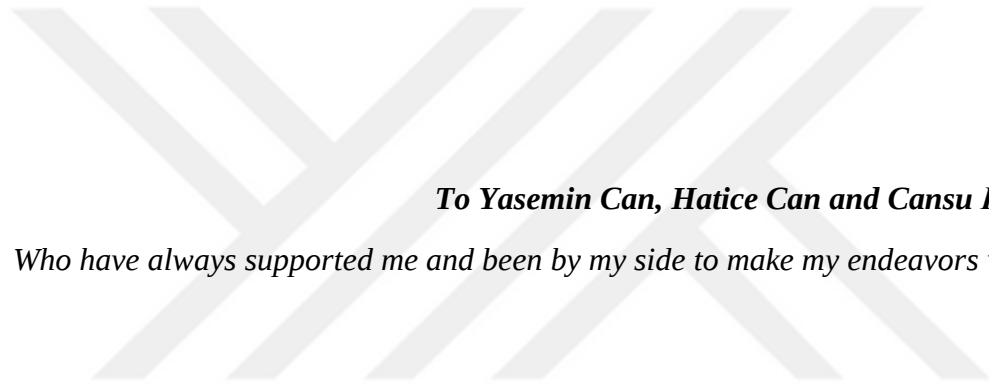
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The present study aims to examine metadiscourse markers used by EFL instructors in online preparatory classes at A2 and B1 proficiency levels in terms of their types, frequencies, and discourse functions. Four EFL instructors with at least seven years of teaching experience from private and public universities and their students from A2 and B1 level classrooms participated in the study. The design of the study is a mixed-method study. To this end, 30 lesson recordings obtained from both proficiency levels of classrooms were transcribed through *Transana*. The transcribed talks were converted into the qualitative and quantitative program MAXQDA to detect metadiscourse markers depending on the taxonomy of Vande Kopple (2012). The analysis of the overall data showed that *text connectives*, *attitude markers*, *epistemology markers*, *code glosses*, and *commentaries* were mostly preferred in the lessons of EFL instructors in terms of the frequency of their occurrences respectively. The findings of the study demonstrate that there is no difference in terms of the types of metadiscourse markers used at both levels of classrooms. However, there are some similarities and differences in the frequencies and discourse functions of metadiscourse markers in the talks of EFL instructors between A2 and B1 proficiency levels classrooms. At both levels of classrooms, *text connectives* are the most used metadiscourse markers by EFL instructors. Findings show that while instructors of A2 proficiency level students use *attitude markers* more than *epistemology markers*, instructors of B1 proficiency level students use *epistemology markers* more in their classrooms. While the pedagogical aim behind the use of discourse functions such as *forthcomings*, *topicalizers*, *logical and temporal relationships*, *signaling the problem with the ordinary interpretation of words*, *emphatics*, *sensory experience*, and *comment*

*on listeners' probable moods* are the same, the discourse functions such as *sequencers, reminders, definitions and explanations, rephrasing, shields, attitude toward ideational material* are different in the talks of EFL instructors at both levels.

**Key Words:** Classroom Discourse, Online Classrooms, Teacher Talk, Metadiscourse Markers





***To Yasemin Can, Hatice Can and Cansu Kivrak***

*Who have always supported me and been by my side to make my endeavors worth.*

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

**BAWE:** British Academic Written English

**BNC:** British National Corpus

**DA:** Discourse Analysis

**EAP:** English for Academic Purposes

**EFL:** English as a Foreign Language

**ELT:** English Language Teaching

**IRE:** Initiation Response Evaluation

**IRF:** Initiation Response Feedback

**L1:** First Language

**L2:** Second Language

**LINDSEI:** Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage

**LOCNEC:** Louvain Corpus of Native English Conversation

**MDMs:** Metadiscourse Markers

**MOOCs:** Massive Open Online Courses

**SFL:** Systematic Functional Theory

# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the background of the study, the main aim, and the significance of the study. Afterward, questions under investigation and limitations of the study are concisely delivered.

### 1.1. Background of the Study

English language is the most widely spoken language in today's world. Undeniably, it is the most crucial language to be learned by the international community (Genç & Bada, 2010). Therefore, there is a growing requirement to learn English as a second or foreign language throughout the world.

While acquiring English, learners need to gain competence in four skills which are *listening, reading, speaking, and writing*. Speaking is an essential skill to enhance a second or foreign language. As Brown and Yule (1983) indicated, speaking is the skill that the students will be evaluated most in real-life situations. However, language learners in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context generally have inadequate opportunities to use a foreign language apart from the classroom context (Lee et al., 2009). Besides, they have a limited chance to interact with the native speakers of this language. Therefore, EFL instructors play an important role in providing their learners with efficient materials and strategies in their lessons and fostering their students' English proficiency levels.

The language used in the classroom context has its own limits, and the roles that teachers and learners can take are restricted to some extent (Seedhouse, 1996). Therefore,

interactions in the institutional context in which English is the main area of interest differ from those outside the classroom. In other words, the language used in a classroom is “different from the norms of turn-taking and communicative interaction which operate in small, informal, social gatherings outside” (Cullen, 1998: 181). In addition, most of the time, interactions in the classroom often necessitate the teacher to address all students. Therefore, the teacher generally determines the topics that are discussed in a classroom environment. They are in charge of carrying on the interactions and can adjust their talk by considering the requirements of this institutional context (Walsh, 2002).

As an inseparable part of classroom interaction, *teacher talk* is the main area of interest in English Language Teaching (ELT) since the research conducted in the classroom through different subjects also showed that 75% of what is said in the classroom is articulated by the teacher (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). In this respect, success in language teaching relies substantially upon teacher talk that fosters effective interaction in the classroom environment. In the EFL context, one of the teacher’s main roles is to provide *comprehensible input* (Krashen, 1981) because learning cannot come out if the input is not comprehensible (Selinker & Gass, 2008). Therefore, from more competent speakers to less competent speakers, some modifications should be made by teachers in their talk to facilitate students’ learning process. Although there is nearly no doubt about the facilitative role of teacher talk in language classes in which language is a tool and a subject matter as well, little attention has been paid to the existing discourse of teachers and learners in the EFL context in which a teacher teaches various proficiency level students (Ewert, 2009). Therefore, it is inevitable for teachers to wonder how they can improve their communication skills and adjust their speech to deliver appropriate language input for the learners. As Lei (2009) mentioned, there is a strong relationship between effective interaction in the teaching-learning process and effective teacher talk.

Swales (2001: 35) mentioned that university lessons are “heavily signaled and signposted” as language instructors show a tendency to design the organization of their lectures to a great extent and give importance to the link between concepts presented. Such organizations are beneficial for language learners since they promote constructing a

mental map of discourse organization and help listeners to process the information (Thompson, 2003) and they also give listeners some hints about what characteristics, attitudes, and intentions the speaker might be showing while interacting (Hyland, 2005). This organizational part of the language that guides speakers to transmit their messages in a structured way is defined as *metadiscourse* or *metatalk* (Schiffrin, 1980).

As Swales (1990) indicated, although the term *metadiscourse* can be effortlessly accepted as a principle, deciding on its boundaries is harder than expected. While some of the researchers just focus on the features of the textual organization and disregard the other functions of metadiscourse (Ädel, 2010; Mauranen, 2010), others consider this term as a connector or the involvement of writers' or speakers' own viewpoints into their texts (Hyland, 2005; Schiffrin, 1980). Nevertheless, there is a variety of definitions for the term *metadiscourse*. Hyland (2005) defined metadiscourse as a comprehensive term that includes speakers' or writers' self-expressions and viewpoints within a text that show how they interact with their audience and engage with the text. It plays a prominent role for interlocutors to understand each other especially in speaking. Mauranen (2010) stated that metadiscourse has a big role in speaking than writing and pointed out that the requirement to manage spoken interaction is more common than written interaction. According to Schiffrin (1980), metatalk is the use of language to focus on talk as a topic. Therefore, Schiffrin (1980: 200) mentioned, "Language can be used to talk about itself, that is, it can serve as its own meta-language in the talk about talk".

Research on metadiscourse indicated that metadiscourse markers (MDMs) play an important role in university classes because of their complex content delivered in real-time (Ädel, 2010; Mauranen, 2010). Therefore, students must deal with both content and the language simultaneously, which requires linguistic scaffolding from their teachers. In addition, language learners do not have many opportunities to witness the language in the real world. Most of the language input that the learners receive is obtained from teacher talk, so its understandability and quality are important. Therefore, teachers need to organize their speech well enough so that their learners can interpret the message correctly and understand their motives and attitudes. Using metadiscourse features properly for each

proficiency level students helps teachers to convey their messages accurately by organizing their utterances and giving the intended message to their students. For this reason, the use of MDMs in teacher talk should be under investigation in order to understand how it shapes classroom interaction.

### **1.2. The Objective of the Study**

This descriptive research aims to analyze EFL instructors' classroom talk in A2 and B1 proficiency level classrooms in terms of the use of MDMs by focusing on their *types*, *frequencies*, and *discourse functions*. With the help of such an investigation, it is expected to reveal the entire portrait of the interactional organization of two different proficiency levels in an online EFL classroom setting and how EFL instructors benefit from MDMs in their lessons. Moreover, the findings aim to promote English language teaching (ELT) in an online classroom context by recommending effective teacher talk.

### **1.3. Significance of the Study**

There has been a growing body of research about the use of MDMs around the world and a closer look at relevant literature shows that the use of MDMs varies depending on writers' culture, discipline, genre, and publishing context (Abdi, 2002; Dahl, 2004; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Schiffrin, 1980). In written English, researchers have examined various genres. Few studies have been conducted in the Turkish context about the use of MDMs. The topics under investigation are dissertations and master theses (Akbaş, 2014; Can & Yuvayapan, 2018; Can & Cangır, 2019; Duruk, 2017), students' writings (Algı, 2012; Kurudayıoğlu & Çimen, 2020; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018), cross-cultural differences in the use of MDMs (Çandarlı, Bayyurt & Martı, 2015; Özdemir & Longo, 2014), comparison of the fields in terms of MDMs use (Dağ Tarcın, 2017; Ekoç, 2020), the effect of metadiscourse instruction on students' writing performance (Kaya, 2019; Sancak, 2019), and national journals (Işık-Taş, 2018). Current literature has shown that most of the studies about the use of metadiscourse in the Turkish context have focused on written

language leaving the spoken language mostly unexplored except for a few studies. There seems to be a huge gap in the ELT field in terms of metadiscourse studies that have investigated spoken language, especially EFL instructors' talks. As mentioned earlier, metadiscourse has an important role in making both spoken and written texts meaningful and facilitating language teaching by enabling students to understand the given content properly. Thus, studying the metadiscourse use of Turkish instructors of English and MDMs' discourse functions in their online lectures is crucial.

#### **1.4. Research Questions**

The current study aspires to find answers to the research questions below:

1. What is the general distribution of EFL instructors' metadiscourse marker use?
2. Are there any differences between metadiscourse marker use of EFL instructors in A2 and B1 level classrooms from the perspective of frequency and function?

#### **1.5. Limitations of the Study**

The present study has its limitations. The first limitation is the number of participants under investigation. Despite the study analyzing 30 lesson recordings from both A2 and B1 level classrooms, four instructors' talks under investigation, which is not sufficient to generalize the results. In the present study, the participants' word counts are not given, which may be regarded as another limitation of this study. However, because the study aims to investigate the nature of MDMs use in EFL classroom talk in an online setting instead of quantifying the data, word count is not in the scope of this study. In addition, observation of the data showed no big difference in speech lengths and the word counts in instructors' talks at both proficiency level online lessons.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **RELATED LITERATURE**

This chapter contains two main sections. The first part comprises a comprehensive theoretical background of the study, including theoretical information about the features of classroom discourse, teacher talk, metadiscourse, and metadiscourse taxonomies. In the second part, the literature review is presented.

#### **2.1. Theoretical Framework**

##### **2.1.1. Discourse and Discourse Analysis**

Discourse is a combination of linguistic elements and interactive actions in which the meaning of an utterance is created collectively in written and spoken texts (Hicks, 1995). While spoken discourse includes telephone calls, the language in the classroom, monologues, dialogues, and daily conversation, written discourse can be exemplified as letters, stories, newspapers, instructions, comics, and so on (McCarthy & Carter 1997). The components of discourse are made up of context, coherence, cohesion, and rhetorical structure (Graesser, Gernsbacher, & Goldman, 2003). Discourse analysis (DA) is an analysis of language in use (Brown & Yule, 1983) and the aim is to analyze interactive language in use in social context, primarily in dialogues, talks, and written texts (Stubbs, 1983). Since DA is context-dependent, analyzing a single piece of sentence may not give information about the discourse of the text. It particularly analyzes the language “above the sentence” (McCarthy, 2000: 7). Therefore, discourse is concerned with the longer portion of writing and speech and the dynamic and complex systems in those portions (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). DA specifically deals with the link between language, context, and culture. As Yule (2010) mentions, people can differentiate

grammatical structures from ungrammatical ones and coherent texts from incoherent texts. Besides, they can interpret ungrammatical structures and incoherent texts rather than refusing them as ungrammatical and incoherent. In other words, people can try to make sense of the writers' or speakers' intended message, and this necessitates more than a simple knowledge of the language. At this point, DA tries to find out the intended message in written or spoken texts. There are several approaches to analyzing discourse in written and spoken data. For instance, *Formal linguistic discourse analysis* deals with grammatical, linguistic, or semantic features of spoken and written texts by applying a microanalysis approach. *Empirical discourse analysis* deals with the written and spoken samples by applying micro and macro analysis of social practices in the occurring texts in the social context. *Critical discourse analysis* analyzes a large sample of data including examples from written and spoken texts in a social setting with the help of macro analysis and the aim is to deal with "the way social power, abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by texts and talk in the social and political context." (Van Dijk, 2001: 349). Therefore, effective DA can be achieved by analyzing the target content with the correct approach.

### **2.1.2. Classroom Discourse and Teacher Talk**

As mentioned earlier DA focuses on the language in use among people in spoken and written contexts whereas Classroom DA focuses on the evaluation of the outputs of teachers and students, which draws forth the relationship between teachers and students as well (Yoshida, 2008). Interaction in a classroom is a source for the students to obtain information and skills thus, there has been a growing body of interest in analyzing the teacher-student dynamics and the interactional patterns to reveal overall classroom discourse features. As it is clear from the current classroom discourse analyses, several researchers such as Ellis (2009) and Seedhouse (2004) mostly focus on the features of classroom talk and the language used by teachers and students. Several researchers put forward different definitions of classroom discourse. Sakui and Gaies (2003) explain classroom research as the investigation of communication occurring classroom environment. According to Jocuns (2012), classroom discourse alludes to the sort of talk

that could occur within both classroom and educational environments. Classroom discourse can be broadly defined as “the collection and representation of socio-interactive practices that portray the emergence of teaching and learning of a new language through teachers’ and students’ co-construction of understanding and knowledge in and through the use of language-in-interaction” (Sert, 2015: 9). Classroom discourse is greatly different from real-life conversation because the members are just the teacher and the students, and the main aim is teaching and learning (Strobelberger, 2012). For many years, linguists and researchers have investigated the communicativeness of language classrooms by making a comparison between classroom discourse and discourse in the real world. However, according to Cullen (1998), classroom talk has its own rules and turn-taking system, thus it is necessary to differentiate classroom interaction from the one that occurs in real life. In classroom interaction, the turn-taking system is more stable considering the real-life context: the teacher initiates the conversation; The student responds, and the teacher evaluates or gives feedback to the students’ answers. These are also known as *Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE)* by Mehan (1979) or *Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF)* by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). IRF or IRE patterns are also known as *triadic dialogue*. Approximately 70% of the classroom interaction consists of this triadic dialogue cycle (Nassaji & Wells, 2000). However, many researchers highlight the potential negative aspects of this kind of dialogue. Walsh (2011) emphasizes that overutilization of IRF patterns might cause classroom interaction to be more repetitive and mechanical. Similarly, Waring (2011) states that the IRF pattern might tighten up classroom learning opportunities.

In classroom discourse, teacher talk dominates two-thirds of each lesson (Flanders, 1970; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Sahlberg & Boce, 2010). Teachers make decisions about the topics that will be discussed and turn-taking procedures; in other words, teachers “orchestrate the interaction” (Breen, 1998: 119). When a teacher poses a question to a single student, this procedure can be beneficial for all class members including that student (Wardhaugh, 1998). Moreover, teachers can make their language simple and slow to boost students’ comprehension, which is rare in conversations that take place every day (Walsh,

2006). Teachers are responsible for enhancing opportunities for learning and boosting students' participation in classroom tasks by forming "a space for learning" which is assumed to be a characteristic of effective teaching (Walsh & Li, 2013: 248). Several definitions of teacher talk have been provided from different points of view. Xiao-Hui (2010) explains teacher talk as a tool for applying teacher plans. Another definition is that teacher talk is the classroom language that encompasses a lot of class time used to give directions, explain activity structures, and control students' understanding of the provided topics (Sinclair & Brazil, 1982). Some researchers call teacher talk *foreigner talk* or *caretaker talk* since the modifications in teacher talk are like those detected in foreigner talk; some of them can represent characteristics of the classroom environment (Ellis, 2009). Apart from this, language teachers accomplish their objectives by means of modifications to their talk depending on their students' proficiency levels. For instance, teachers may use students' first language (L1) to convey the meaning of some tasks, tests, or grammar depending on students' needs and their proficiency level (Cook, 2001). Similarly, Chaudron (1983) stated that less proficient students benefit most from varied topic reinstatements, recognition, and recall. Therefore, second language (L2) teachers' adjustments are generally achieved by depending on students' proficiency levels in their classrooms. For instance, teachers may prefer to use praise more in less proficient classrooms than in more proficient ones (Brookover et al., 1978; Kleinfeld, 1975; Weinstein, 1976).

Other general adjustments that are made by the teachers are summarized below

1. The rate of speech can be slower,
2. Pauses, which may be evidence of the speaker planning more, are possibly more frequent and longer,
3. Pronunciation tends to be exaggerated and simplified,
4. Vocabulary use is more basic,
5. The degree of subordination is lower,
6. More declaratives and statements are used than questions,
7. Teachers may self-repeat more frequently.

Chaudron (1988: 85)

Especially interaction in the EFL classrooms is an extremely complicated and problematic phenomenon (Cazden, 1986). Interaction is a crucial concept for English language teachers because with the guidance of the interaction with the teachers, students can improve their language use. Krashen (1982) states that learning occurs when learners have a chance to access comprehensible input. As teacher talk has been both content and the medium of the target language in language classrooms, the language used by the teachers can be regarded as the comprehensible input of the target language and it has been an instructional tool to systematize classroom activities. Besides, EFL classrooms are restricted in terms of the selection of the language and the topics that have been discussed by the participants. Walsh categorized the features of EFL classrooms as;

1. Teachers largely control the topic of discussion,
2. Teachers often control both content and procedure,
3. Teachers usually control who may participate and when,
4. Students take their cues from teachers,
5. Role relationships between teachers and learners are unequal,
6. Teachers are responsible for managing the interaction which occurs,
7. Teachers talk most of the time,
8. Teachers modify their talk to learners,
9. Learners rarely modify their talk to teachers,
10. Teachers ask questions (to which they know the answers) most of the time.

Walsh (2002: 4)

According to Walsh (2006), the pedagogical aim directs the characteristics of an interactional environment in language classrooms. If the teacher fails to adapt his or her speech according to the needs or the pedagogical goals of a specific classroom, the chance of learning cannot occur (Walsh, 2002). In other words, linguistic and conversational modifications that occur in classroom discourse can facilitate language acquisition (Long, 1996). Therefore, teachers' proper use of discourse is necessary to interact with their students in classroom DA. Walsh (2006) calls this knowledge *Classroom Interactional Competence*. Classroom Interactional Competence is knowing how to offer a space for

interaction and picking up wait time, promoting planning time, and shaping learner contributions rather than easily accepting them (Daşkın, 2015; Walsh, 2012). Walsh (2001) stated that instead of asking for teacher trainees to decrease the amount of teacher talk, it is important to raise teachers' awareness about the effects of teacher talk on students' learning opportunities and support quality teacher talk. As it is crucial to analyze the modifications in teacher talk to understand the nature of the classroom interaction, Owen (1996) points out an important matter by analyzing the modifications in teacher talk and considering the students' proficiency level. He studied with two groups of EFL learners from the College of Further Education in the United Kingdom. By looking at the analyzed results, Owen (1996) mentioned that, particularly for the students with high competency, a teacher could raise the amount of teacher talk and use more complicated lexical content for learners. In other words, with more proficient students, teachers can use more complex language and longer instructions (Chaudron, 1988; Henzl 1973; Gadir Yousif, 1996).

All in all, teacher talk is related to how teachers facilitate classroom interaction, boost student participation, and deliver content appropriately. Besides, the features of teacher talk, and teachers' attempts to adjust their speech according to their classroom environment are closely linked to the teacher's decision-making process. As Richards and Lockhart (1996: 78) mention "Teaching is essentially a thinking process. Teachers are constantly conformed with a range of different options and are required to select from among these options.

### **2.1.3 Metadiscourse**

Metadiscourse has been an area of study in linguistics that has drawn attention extensively since the 1980s with the help of the great theoretical contributions of researchers in this field (Ädel, 2006; Crismore, 1989; Hyland; 2005; Mauranen, 1993; Vande Kopple, 1985). Despite the growing body of research, many linguists find assumptions, classifications, and understanding of this concept quite difficult. The concept of metadiscourse was mentioned in literature by Zellig Harris in the 1960s for the first time who studied the language in use by paying attention to the speakers' or writers' attempt to guide receivers'

understandings of intended meanings in both texts. Many linguists recognized that language has both propositional and non-propositional functions. To put it differently, communication is not only related to sharing ideas, but it also contains the personalities, attitudes, assumptions, and opinions of the interlocutors therefore it can be named as a *social engagement* (Hyland, 2017). Therefore, writers and speakers use language to give information (propositional) and organize their information (non-propositional) for receivers to enhance their understanding of spoken and written texts appropriately. This non-propositional status has been regarded as *metadiscourse*, *metatalk* (Schiffrin, 1980), or *metatext* (Mauranen, 1993).

Simply, metadiscourse has been presented as *discourse about discourse* or *talk about talk* (Ädel, 2006). To make this concept more understandable, the definition has been expanded by various linguists with different taxonomies such as Crismore (1989), Hyland (2005), Ädel (2006), and Vande Kopple (2012). Hyland (2005: 27) 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”. Metadiscursive functions have been used to provide textual and interpersonal meanings (Hyland, 1999). With the help of textual metadiscourse, the propositional information can be organized in context and with a certain audience. He states that writers can guess the difficulties readers might have and provide the level of guidance for their readers to understand the text. Besides, Hyland (1999) asserts that interpersonal metadiscourse helps writers to express their points of view toward their propositional information and their readers.

Language and the social context in which it occurs are closely related to each other (Eggins & Martin, 1997; Jordan & Henderson, 1995; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Similarly, Van Dijk (1997) mentioned that the characteristics of the context both affect and reshape the discourse characteristics. Production of discourse is also linked to medium. For instance, in a real classroom environment in which participants have a chance to communicate face to face, teachers generally start their speech with “Well, we’re going to have a look at theoretical approaches to discourse”. On the other hand, the possible beginning of a

textbook can be “This book offers a first introduction to discourse studies or in this book we attempt to focus on theoretical approaches to discourse” (Ekoç, 2020: 14). Therefore, the types, functions, and frequencies of the MDMs vary according to spoken or written contexts. In other words, metadiscourse features are context-dependent; thus, while focusing on the use of MDMs without paying attention to the context in which they occur, it is problematic to differentiate MDMs from the ones that cannot be regarded as metadiscourse (Ädel, 2006). Ädel (2010: 75) also supports the idea that while categorizing language in use in terms of metadiscursive functions, “it should be discourse internal rather than discourse external”. Similarly, Swales (1990) claims that discourse community can be labeled as people who have the same public aims and have their intercommunication system and use this system principally to offer feedback and information. Simply, discourse community alludes to the people the text is targeting (Barton, 2003). To put it differently, no matter whether the text is spoken or written, the expectations of discourse community, norms, and responses should be taken into account to sustain the appropriate exchange among communicators. Drawing upon these requirements, Ädel (2006) stated that some types of MDMs can be more suitable or indeed obligatory than the others in some types of texts.

Mauranen (2010) remarks that metadiscourse has a more crucial position in spoken discourse than written discourse because managing spoken interaction in real-time is greater. Since classroom discourse evolves in real-time, there is less possibility of planning and editing the discourse and the existence of live interlocutors means a greater chance of communication between teachers and students. Similarly, students’ cognitive productivity relies on what a lecturer performs to carry out classroom talk. In a classroom environment, teachers present discursive moves to start and maintain classroom tasks (Tytler & Aranda, 2015). Non-verbal and verbal discourse moves such as mimics, gestures, and questioning may dramatically influence students’ cognitive contribution (Chin, 2006). When a teacher performs a metadiscursive move, she or he mentions which kind of message is reflected during classroom discourse and what the students would do with the metamessage provided by the teacher (Leinhardt & Steele, 2005; Tang, 2017).

Metadiscourse is also a tool for teachers while forming the social-intellectual exchanges by mentioning the lines between activity structures (Lemke, 1990). In other words, metadiscourse assists in raising awareness about the disciplinary procedure in which they are involved (Reveles et al., 2004). Besides, Faerch (1985) indicated that discourse in foreign language classrooms includes various portions of metatalk. For instance, metatalk may constitute nearly the whole lesson (e.g., the lesson content includes a translation exercise), or the use of metatalk can be limited to a single phrase or word when a teacher corrects students' grammar mistakes.

#### **2.1.3.1 Systematic functional linguistics**

The standpoint of this study is determined by two main theoretical assumptions of knowledge and learning from a sociocultural perspective. The first assumption is that knowledge is positioned in and constructed in a social environment using the interactions among the members of a society (Eggins & Martin, 1997; Jordan & Henderson, 1995; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Therefore, knowledge cannot be regarded as a mental construction in the mind or cannot be measured from the achievement of a test result. Conversely, disciplinary knowledge in the classroom is constructed using interactions in the classroom (Edward & Mercer, 1989; Hicks, 1995). The second assumption is that learning is assisted using semiotic sources and interaction with more experienced people (Vygotsky, 1986). In the classroom teaching context, because of the power relations (Grimshaw, 1990), the main role of the teachers is to offer the disciplinary information that students may not obtain out of the classroom context and help students to develop disciplinary information in a social environment (Lemke, 1990). From a sociocultural perspective, classroom discourse is regarded as a meaning-making process through social interaction, and it focuses on the semantic orientation of spoken and written context (Halliday & Martin, 1993).

As MDMs involve the functional side of the language and focus on the markers' textual and functional meanings, several metadiscourse analysts (e.g., Crismore et al., 1993; Vande Kopple, 1985; Hyland, 1998) used *Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL)* as a theoretical base. In other words, different taxonomies of metadiscourse have been

introduced and most of them support the functional Hallidayian approach which supports the notion that while people are communicating with each other, they generally focus on three macro-functions or meta-functions: *ideational*, *textual*, and *interpersonal*. According to Halliday (1994), in an interaction, people try to represent their ideas and try to interact with the audience, and lastly, they make an organization of their ideas. These macro-functions are clearly stated as follows:

- a) *The ideational function*: The use of language demonstrates opinions and experience. This function of language approximately stands for propositional content.
- b) *The interpersonal function*: The use of language in interaction provides engagement with others, helps us to take on roles, and facilitates self-expression and feelings.
- c) *The textual function*: The use of language to make an organization of the text itself.

(Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999)

According to Halliday, these macro-functions are not separate from each other, and the meaning in texts or utterances is constructed with the help of three related functions. In terms of the three macro functions, SFL sees metadiscourse as the markers that help to create the relationship among text elements and add a level of certainty. Since these three macro-functions occur together simultaneously, texts should be seen holistically rather than being seen separate from each other. With the guidance of those elements, writers or speakers construct cohesive and coherent texts for their audience and interaction takes place in the presented texts.

### **2.1.3.2 Taxonomies of metadiscourse**

Together with the increasing importance of MDMs, different taxonomies have been provided by several researchers. Williams (1981) remarked that metadiscourse is *writing about writing* and categorized MDMs as *advance organizers*, *connectives*, and *interpersonal discourse*. Williams (1981) also mentioned the importance of the efficient use of MDMs and underlined the idea that more than adequate use of MDMs might lead to a burden while conveying the idea behind the texts. Crismore (1993) adjusted the taxonomy of Williams (1981) and mentioned two primary categories. The first one is

*informational metadiscourse* which alludes to the writers' use of discourse to give implicit or explicit information and demonstrate the link between ideas through connective signals for readers to understand the text. On the other hand, *attitudinal metadiscourse* focuses on two issues: writers' attitudes toward the content or organization of discourse and the audience. Lautamatti (1978) mentioned the importance of metadiscourse for guiding readers to make a connection with the content material and an ample framework of information to understand the overall discourse. By expanding Lautamatti's (1978) definition, Vande Kopple (1985) defined metadiscourse as linguistic tools that have been used to help readers connect, organize, interpret, evaluate, and develop attitudes toward the material rather than expand the referential material. He divided metadiscourse into two broad categories which are *textual* and *interpersonal* metadiscourse. *Textual metadiscourse* refers to the connection and relation of personal propositions to construct cohesive and coherent texts. On the other hand, *interpersonal metadiscourse* aids to show someone's personality and attitude towards the propositional content. The first taxonomy proposed by Vande Kopple (1985) includes sub-classifications for both *textual* and *interpersonal MDMs*. In that classification, *textual MDMs* include *text connectives*, which help the organization of the texts (e.g., second, first, before, after, next, consequently...), and *code glosses* that help readers to understand the text better with definitions and further explanations. In addition to this, *interpersonal MDMs* consist of *illocution markers* (e.g., to sum up, we claim that, for example), *validity markers* that include *hedges* such as *perhaps, maybe, might seem*, and *emphatics* such as *it is obvious, certainly* and *attributors* such as *according to, due to*. Apart from these, the role of *narrators* and *commentaries* is to show the readers' possible feelings predicted by the texts' writers. The importance of the taxonomy was emphasized by Amiryousefi and Rasekh (2010) since it has been the first taxonomy accepted as a system to introduce metadiscourse in many practical studies. Conversely, Hyland (2005) asserted that Vande Kopple's taxonomy is not clear, and some points overlap, thus it is not easy to be applied in practice. Therefore, many researchers refined the taxonomy such as Crismore et al. (1993), Hyland (2005), and Vande Kopple (2012). Considering the taxonomies created by several researchers, both Hyland's (2005) and Vande Kopple's (1985) taxonomies have been applied in several research studies. In

this study, the taxonomies applied in metadiscourse research (e.g., Ädel, 2006; Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 2005; Vande Kopple, 2012; Tang, 2017) are explained below.

**Table 1.** Crismore et al.'s Categorization of Metadiscourse (1993)

| Categories                         | Discourse Functions                     | Examples                        |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <b>Textual Metadiscourse</b>       |                                         |                                 |
| 1. Textual Markers                 |                                         |                                 |
| Logical connectives                | Show connections between ideas          | therefore; so; in addition; and |
| Sequencers                         | Indicate sequence/ ordering of material | first; next; finally; 1, 2, 3   |
| Reminders                          | Refer to earlier text material          | as we saw in Chapter one...     |
| Topicalizers                       | Indicate a shift in topic               | well; now; I will discuss...    |
| 2. Interpretative Markers          |                                         |                                 |
| Code glosses                       | Explain text material                   | for example; that is...         |
| Illocution markers                 | Name the act performed                  | to conclude; in sum; I predict  |
| Announcements                      | Announce upcoming material              | in the next section...          |
| <b>Interpersonal Metadiscourse</b> |                                         |                                 |
| Hedges                             | Show uncertainty to truth of assertion  | might; possible; likely         |

|                   |                                         |                            |
|-------------------|-----------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Certainty markers | Express full commitment to<br>assertion | certainly; know; shows     |
| Attributors       | Give source/ support of<br>information  | Smith claims that...       |
| Attitude markers  | Display writer's affective<br>values    | I hope/agree; surprisingly |
| Commentary        | Build relationship with reader          | you may not agree that...  |

Crismore (1984) defines metadiscourse as *discourse about discourse* and *contentless writing about writing*. She mentioned the main role of the MDMs is to direct readers rather than inform them. Crismore et al. (1993) remark that MDMs guide the coherence in spoken and written text and do not add anything to the propositional content. Therefore, they supported the idea that MDMs are syntactic instead of functional. Therefore, Crismore et al. (1993) accepted coordinating conjunctions (e.g., and, but, or, so) and conjunctive adverbs (e.g., therefore, in addition) as MDMs. Vande Kopple's (1985) metadiscourse taxonomy was altered by Crismore et al. (1993) except for the main two categories which are *textual* and *interpersonal metadiscourse*. In the revised classification, *narratives* and *temporal connectives* were removed. In addition, *text connectives* category was changed as *text markers* because Crismore remarks that the name *text connective* seems restrictive to some extent. A new category named *interpretive marker* which includes *code glosses*, *announcements*, and *illocution markers* was inserted. Apart from this, *validity markers* containing *hedges*, *certainty markers*, and *attributors* were collected under the title of *interpersonal metadiscourse*. Besides, because the role of *narrators* and *attributors* was to convince and inform the reader, they were not divided into two separate units (Crismore et al., 1993).

**Table 2.** An Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse by Hyland (2005: 49)

| <b>Categories</b>    | <b>Discourse Functions</b>                       | <b>Examples</b>                                             |
|----------------------|--------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Interactive</b>   | <b>Help to guide the reader through the text</b> |                                                             |
| Transitions          | Express relations between main clauses           | in addition; but;<br>thus; and                              |
| Frame markers        | Refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages     | finally; to conclude;<br>my purpose is, first,<br>second... |
| Endophoric markers   | Refer to information in other parts of the text  | noted above; see<br>Fig; in section 2                       |
| Evidentials          | Refer to information from other texts            | according to X; Z<br>states that                            |
| Code glosses         | Elaborate propositional meanings                 | namely; e.g.; such<br>as; in other words                    |
| <b>Interactional</b> | <b>Involve the reader in the text</b>            |                                                             |
| Hedges               | Withhold commitment and open dialogue            | might; perhaps;<br>possible; about                          |
| Boosters             | Emphasize certainty or close dialogue            | in fact; definitely; it<br>is clear that                    |
| Attitude markers     | Express writer's attitude to proposition         | unfortunately; I<br>agree; surprisingly                     |
| Self-mentions        | Explicit reference to author(s)                  | I; we; my; me; our                                          |
| Engagement markers   | Explicitly build relationship with the reader    | consider; note; you<br>can see that                         |

Many scholars used Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse model which was derived from Thomson and Thetela's conception (1995) and widened its content by adding stance and engagement markers. Hyland (2005) based his taxonomy on three fundamental criteria below:

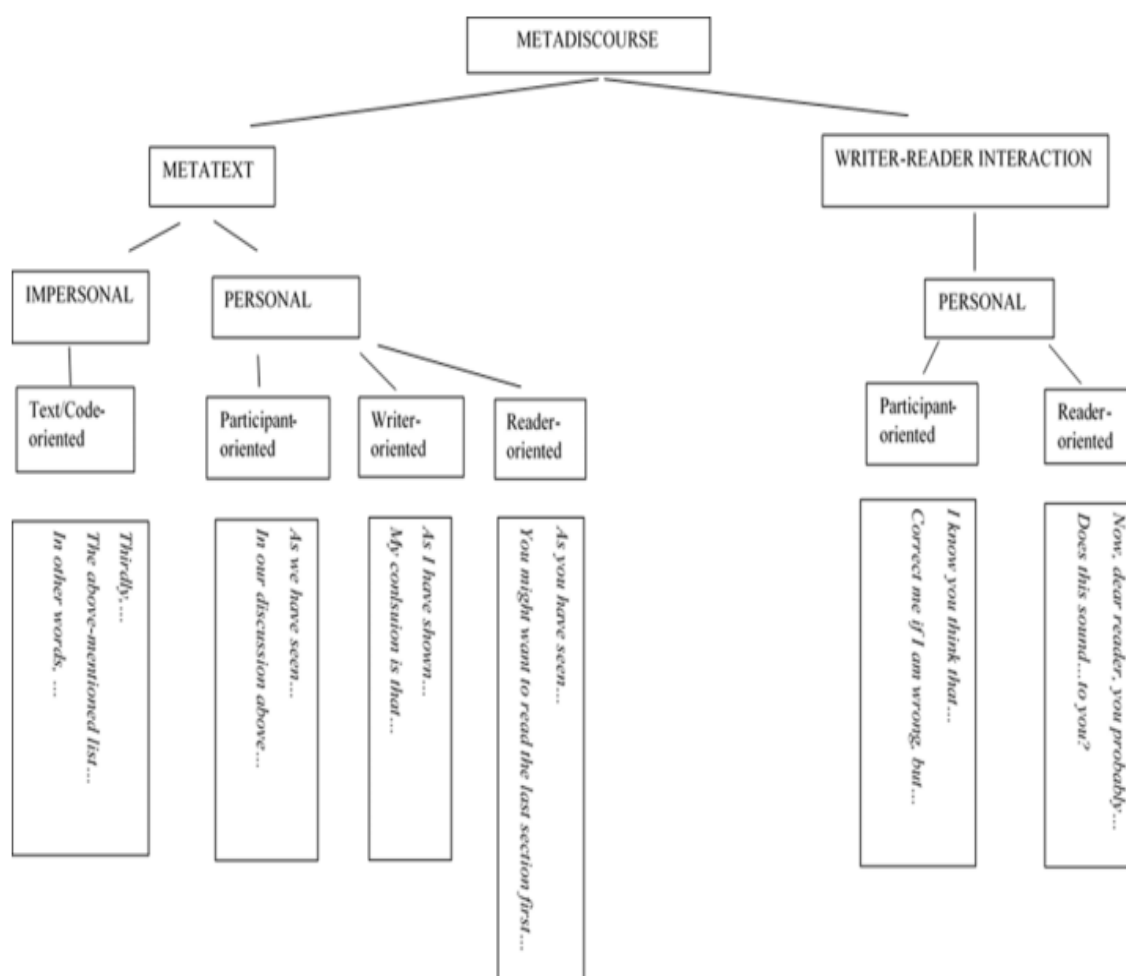
1. Metadiscourse is different from the propositional sides of discourse.
2. Metadiscourse refers to the sides of the text that cover the interaction between writer and reader.
3. Metadiscourse is in a relationship within the discourse where it occurs.

(Hyland, 2005: 38)

The interactive dimension of metadiscourse is related to the writers' consciousness about the readers' possible moods, interests, their ability to process information and give the shape of the text by considering these. In this way, writers can provide a fruitful text which matches readers' probable goals and expectations. *Transition markers* include conjunctions that show contrastive and causal links helping readers to understand the relationship between ideas. Writers or speakers make an addition with the help of conjunctions such as *and* and *by the way*. Besides, writers or speakers can compare by using such verbs as *likewise*, *similarly*, and *in contrast*. Writers can also construct some causal relationships among utterances with the help of conjunctions such as *thus*, *therefore*, and *consequently*. *Frame markers* are related to text boundaries and items that guide the sequence and topic shifts in texts and it is under the category of interactive MDMs (Hyland, 2004). *Frame markers* guide the organization of an argument and state the boundaries of the text with the words such as *first*, *then*, and *the next*. *Endophoric markers* facilitate the understanding of the text by referring to the earlier conversation and constructing a link between earlier and further topics (e.g., next section, as noted above). *Evidentials* are the presentation of an ideas from another trusted source and help readers to construct intertextuality (e.g., according to X). *Code glosses* allow the reader to understand the message authors aims to convey with the help of additive statements and meaning expansions in a text (e.g., namely, such as, in other words).

The interactional dimension of metadiscourse covers the writer's attainment to control the degree of personality in a text and construct an appropriate relationship between his or her arguments and audience (Hyland, 2004). *Hedges* which are under the umbrella term *interactional MDMs* indicate the writer's indisposition while delivering propositional information and they refer to the subjectivity of information by showing the propositional information as an opinion rather than general truth with the phrases such as *possible*,

*maybe, possibly*. On the other hand, *boosters* guide writers to mention certainty in their texts and help writers to close the negotiation about the propositional information presented. *Attitude markers* allow a writer to show his/ her attitude towards propositional material with surprise, agreement, importance, obligation, and frustration (Hyland, 2005). Some examples of *attitude markers* are *unfortunately, I agree, surprisingly*. *Self-mention* refers to the level of the writer's entity in text. The level of representing oneself can be estimated with the help of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives. *Engagement markers* allow writers to cooperate with their readers by mentioning them explicitly in texts, guide readers to pay attention to the text, and ensure the reader's involvement with the help of second-person pronouns, questions, and imperatives (Hyland, 1998).



**Figure 1.** Personal and Impersonal Configurations of Metatext and Writer-reader Interaction  
(Ädel, 2006: 38)

Ädel's reflexive metadiscourse model based its roots on Jakobson's functional model of language (Jakobson, 1998 cited in Ädel, 2006: 11). According to Ädel, it is beneficial to use Jakobson's functional model of language as a theoretical basis rather than using the Hallidayan approach to analyze metadiscourse because Jakobson's model aids in analyzing metadiscourse more specific way by emphasizing writer-reader interaction. The Jakobsonian model states six functions of language and three of them are used in Ädel's metadiscourse model which are *metalinguistic*, *expressive*, and *directive*. In her taxonomy, Ädel mentions two sub-categories of metadiscourse which are *metatext* and *writer-reader interaction*. *Metatext* refers to the writer's justification of an evolving text which involves

organization and wording. On the other hand, *writer-reader interaction* refers to the linguistic tools that the writer uses intentionally to incorporate readers into the text (Ädel, 2006). Ädel (2006) divided metatext into two sub-categories: *personal* and *impersonal metadiscourse*. She stated that *personal metadiscourse* could refer directly to the author or make implicit reference to the readers. Some pronouns such as *I, you, we*, and some nouns such as *reader* and *writer* can be used to refer to the writer and the reader of a text. As it is clear from the Figure 1 above, *writer-reader interaction* can take place only with the help of *personal metadiscourse*. On the other hand, *metatext* can be both personal and impersonal. *Impersonal metadiscourse* does not mention the participants of discourse directly. Therefore, the reader of the texts can infer the implicit MDMs corresponding to a writer.

**Table 3.** Vande Kopple's (2012) Metadiscourse Taxonomy

| Categories              | Discourse Functions                                   | Examples                                      |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| <b>TEXTUAL MDMs</b>     | <b>Show how textual elements relate to each other</b> |                                               |
| <b>Text Connectives</b> | Sequencers                                            | first; next; in the third place...            |
|                         | Logical and temporal relationships                    | consequently; at the same time...             |
|                         | Reminders                                             | as we saw in Chapter One...                   |
|                         | Forthcomings                                          | as we shall see in the next chapter...        |
|                         | Topicalizers                                          | as for; with regard to; in connection with... |

|                             |                                                                              |                                                                                                 |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Code Glosses</b>         | Definitions and explanations                                                 | it means that...; it is defined as...                                                           |
|                             | Signaling the problem with the ordinary interpretation of a word             | what people call...; so-called...                                                               |
|                             | Signaling strict or technical interpretations                                | sort of...; roughly speaking...                                                                 |
|                             | Rephrasing                                                                   | I'll put it this way...; what I mean to say is...                                               |
| <b>INTERPERSONAL MDMs</b>   | <b>Conveys interpersonal meanings</b>                                        |                                                                                                 |
| <b>Illocution Markers</b>   | Mitigators                                                                   | I hypothesize that; to sum up; we claim that; I promise to; for example; I must ask that you... |
|                             | Boosters                                                                     | enthusiastically; most sincerely...                                                             |
| <b>Epistemology Markers</b> | Shields                                                                      | possible that; perhaps; may; might...                                                           |
|                             | Emphatics                                                                    | without a doubt; most certainly...                                                              |
|                             | Evidentials (personal beliefs, sensory experience, what we hear from others) | I believe; it feels like; the professor told me that...                                         |
| <b>Attitude Markers</b>     | Showing attitudes toward propositional material                              | fortunately; I regret; I rejoice; I am grateful that...                                         |

|                   |                                                  |                                                  |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Commentary</b> | Comment on readers/ listeners'<br>probable moods | some of you will be amaze<br>that...             |
|                   | Recommend a mode of reading                      | you might wish to skip to<br>the next chapter... |

Source: Adapted from Vande Kopple (2012: 38- 40) by the researcher of this study.

As mentioned earlier, Vande Kopple's taxonomy created in 1985 was the first attempt to systematize MDMs. It was used and adapted in several studies. Vande Kopple (2002) supported the idea that metadiscourse can contain both interpersonal and textual functions. For instance, *to conclude this section* is possibly regarded as *text connective* and *illocution marker* as well. Similarly, Barton (1995: 235) suggests that some textual MDMs when used in academic texts can carry "complex interpersonal purposes". Vande Kopple (2012) reshaped his first taxonomy and put forward a new taxonomy that includes six categories: *text connectives*, *code glosses*, *illocution markers*, *epistemology markers*, *attitude markers*, and *commentaries*. This study based its roots on Vande Kopple's (2012) most up-to-date taxonomy of MDMs. Table 3 includes all the information about MDMs depending on the paper named 'The Importance of Studying Metadiscourse' published by Vande Kopple in 2012. *Illocution markers* that generally can be seen in written data are excluded during the data analysis. To make the MDMs presented by Vande Kopple (2012) more understandable, there are simple definitions of the kinds of metadiscourse presented below.

*Text connectives* demonstrate readers how some parts of the texts have integrated each other and how the organization of the text is achieved. In addition to this, *text connectives* help readers to make a connection between an earlier and the following sentence. MDMs named as *sequencers* order text parts and some examples of them are *first*, *next*, *in the third place*. Besides, *text connectives* can function to mention the *logical and temporal relationships* by using conjunctions such as *consequently*, *at the same time*. MDMs can function to *remind* the materials introduced earlier (e.g., as we saw in chapter one...) or

to indicate the forthcoming material as well (e.g., the next chapter is...). Also, *text connectives* can function to guide readers to focus on a particular phrase (e.g., as for, with regard to, in connection with...) which are called *topicalizers* by Williams (1981).

*Code Glosses* “guide readers to understand the appropriate meanings of elements in texts” (Vande Kopple, 1985: 84). In other words, writers or speakers may define a word or explain the meaning of a word to make readers or listeners understand appropriate meanings in a text. In some situations, there can be problems with the general definition of a word and writers may use some reflections such as *what some people call* or *so-called* (Stubbs, 1986: 13). To express technical or strict interpretations writer may use some reflections such as *sort of* and *roughly speaking*. Apart from these, sometimes writers can guess the points readers may have difficulty in understanding the message and they may use *code glosses* such as *I'll put it this way* or *what I mean to say is*.

*Illocution markers* “make explicit to our readers what speech or discourse act we are performing at certain points in texts” (Vande Kopple, 1985: 84). *To sum up, we claim that, I promise to* and *for example* can be regarded as *illocution markers*. Apart from this, they may organize the degree of force in specific discourse acts by adding modal verbs such as *I must ask that* and all these words or phrases that decrease the force of speech are called *mitigators* (Fraser, 1980: 342) or by using *boosters* such as *we enthusiastically promise* or *I most sincerely promise*.

*Epistemology markers* are related to how committed we are to the truth of ideational material. Some adverbs such as *perhaps, possibly* and *conceivably* or some modal verbs such as *may, might*, and some lexical verbs such as *seem, appear* can function as *shields*. In addition to this, some *epistemology markers* express how cautious we are towards the referential material by using expressions such as *If I am not mistaken, it's thought that, I find it possible that* or tag questions can be used as well. By doing so, writers or speakers can decrease “the degree of liability” (Huebler, 1983: 18) while they are demonstrating the referential material to their audience. Apart from this, *epistemology markers* in language classrooms open the gates for effective interaction as mentioned in other MDMs studies (e.g., Hyland, 2009; Wei et al., 2016). All the aforementioned examples could be

under the umbrella term *hedges* accepted by other linguists (Hyland, 2005; Lakoff, 1972) to refer to *epistemology markers*. Apart from these, writers or speakers sometimes “underscore what we really believe or would like our reader to think we believe” (Williams, 1981: 49) by using *emphatics*. Some phrases such as *certainly* or *without a doubt* could function as *emphatics*. Apart from this, to illustrate the “kinds of evidence” (Anderson, 1986: 273) many different bases can be used such as *personal beliefs* (e.g., I believe that...), *sensory experience* (e.g., it feels like...) or *what we hear from others* (e.g., the professor told me that...).

*Attitude markers* help readers or listeners understand our attitude or emotion toward the referential material. In other words, these markers indicate the writer’s attitude toward the material in several ways such as surprise, importance, and obligation. To demonstrate the attitude, some clauses can be used such as *I wish that*, *I am grateful that*, *I am afraid that* or verbs such as *I regret*, *I rejoice* or adverbs such as *unfortunately*, *happily*.

*Commentary* as the last part of Vande Kopple’s (2012) metadiscourse taxonomy helps writers to speak with the audience directly by commenting on their possible moods, and reactions toward the referential material by using such sentences as *some of you will be amazed that, you will probably find the terminology quite difficult*. Another function of commentaries is to *recommend a mode of reading* to the listeners or readers with sentences (e.g., you might wish to skip to the next chapter).

**Table 4.** Tang’s (2017) Three Sub-categories of Metadiscourse

| Category/Subcategory | Function                              | Example                                                                                                    |
|----------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Knowledge</b>     | <b>Connect students’ knowledge to</b> |                                                                                                            |
| <b>Connective</b>    | <b>current conversation</b>           |                                                                                                            |
| Prior knowledge      | Relate to students’ prior knowledge   | <u>from your knowledge</u><br><u>from sec 1</u> and sec 2;<br>link back to what<br>you’ve learnt before... |

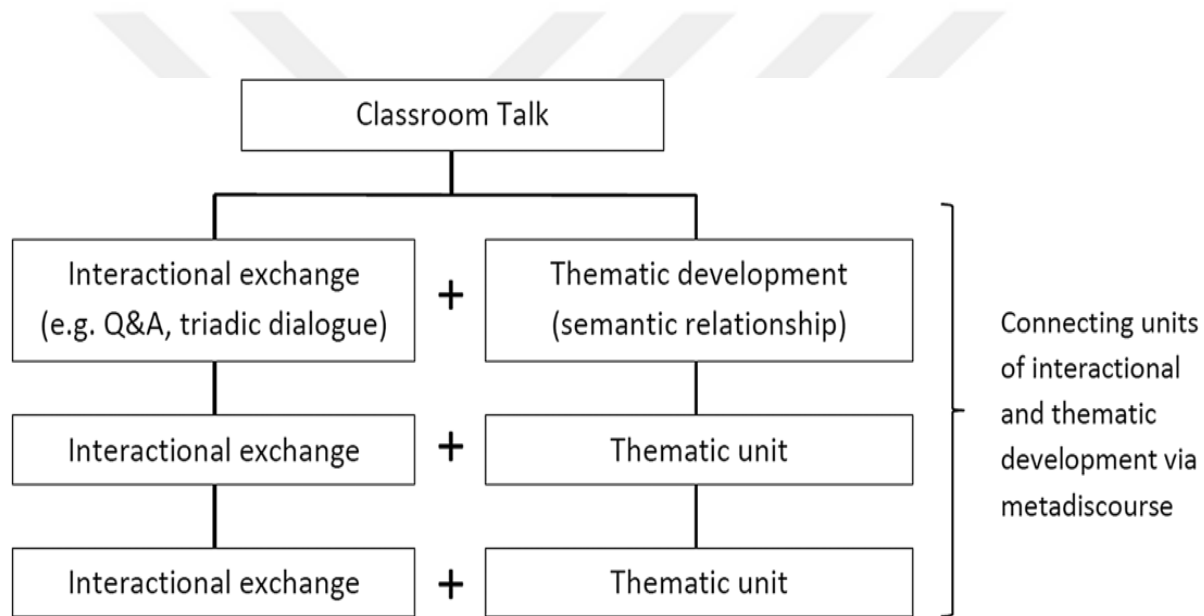
|                              |                                                                                                                                         |                                                                                                                                                                                |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Apply knowledge              | Using a known idea to adress current problem                                                                                            | okay, this is the <u>concept behind it.</u><br>Now, how do <u>we</u> <u>apply into it...</u>                                                                                   |
| <b>Activity Connective</b>   | <b>Connect conversation to Activities Engaged by Participants</b>                                                                       |                                                                                                                                                                                |
| Ongoing activity             | Highlight actions or work processes to be carried out                                                                                   | <u>so what we are trying to do here</u><br>is . . . ; Class, <u>what we're trying to do here</u> is...                                                                         |
| External activity            | Relate to activities outside the class                                                                                                  | remember I told you about the <u>marathon</u> ?<br>For example, I ask Yi Kai, a primary 4 student to <u>go and run against</u> a primary 6 student. Who do you think will win? |
| <b>Interpretative Marker</b> | <b>Direct students to grasp or construct the appropriate interpretation aligned with a particular stance, attitude or point of view</b> |                                                                                                                                                                                |
| Modifier                     | Signal how strictly or loosely information is to be interpreted                                                                         | <u>we want to use</u><br>'force', <u>we want to</u> make use of<br>'particles', we want to<br>...                                                                              |

|            |                                                                              |                                                                                                                                                                                        |
|------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Paraphrase | Signal another way to help students interpret information or way of phrasing | on page 159, your textbook will have explained this as well perhaps <u>using another way of phrasing</u> . However, <u>the way for us to craft answer</u> in Physics right is the same |
| Projection | Direct students toward a source, voice or point of view                      | I want you to imagine that <u>you are the scientist...</u> , <u>In your report, you must tell people about the plant cell</u>                                                          |

Tang (2017) investigated teacher talk and how metadiscourse assists interaction and the construction of scientific knowledge in science classrooms. He provides new sub-topics to Vande Kopple's (2012) MDM model such as *knowledge connective*, *activity connective*, and *interpretative marker* that commonly occur in the classroom context as seen in Table 4. According to Tang (2017), *knowledge connectives* are related to the distant past and refer to the MDMs that aid to construct a bridge between students' knowledge and the content of the talk. *Knowledge connectives* are commonly used by teachers to evoke students' prior knowledge to use them in the current conversation. Apart from this, *activity connective* refers to the students' engagement with work or action in progress. For instance, teachers can refer to the activity that will be carried out soon by mentioning "let's phrase it together, what we're trying to do here" (Tang, 2017: 14). Another sub-category provided by Tang (2017) is *interpretative markers* which involve

phrases or comments to help the audience to understand the speakers' intended message or build a proper interpretation of the text.

Tang (2017) also presented a schema about the function of metadiscourse to establish a connection between smaller interactional and thematic units of classroom talk (see Figure 2). Tang (2017) stated that the role of metadiscourse in the classroom discourse is to make a combination of interactional and thematic units by using *sequencers*, *topicalizers*, and main *text connectives* that mention earlier conversations as seen in Figure 2.



**Figure 2.** Function of Metadiscourse in Connecting Interactional and Thematic Units (Tang, 2017: 23)

## **2.2. Literature Review**

### **2.2.1. Metadiscourse Studies in the World**

There have been several studies about the use of MDMs in the literature from a variety of contexts. This study aims to investigate EFL instructors' use of MDMs. Therefore, this chapter focuses on the literature review concerning the focus of the present study. Since there have been a limited number of studies related to the EFL teachers' use of MDMs, studies that investigate the use of MDMs in teacher talk from different fields are also summarized below. The research of MDMs includes the use of MDMs in teacher talk (Bernard & Mecho 2017; Msimanga & Erduran, 2018; Perez & Macia, 2014; Tang, 2017), a comparison of the type of lectures regarding the use of MDMs (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2022; Lee & Subtirelu, 2015; Zare & Tavakoli, 2017, Zhang & Sheng, 2021), students' use of MDMs in lectures (Pasaribu, 2017; Wei-Yan, 2014).

One of the studies highlighting the importance of MDMs in teacher talk was conducted by Perez & Macia (2014). The researchers investigated how the presence or absence of MDMs affects the comprehension of university students from the engineering department. The researchers divided the students (aged 18-28) into two groups whose proficiency levels were determined by a placement exam and varied from intermediate to advanced levels. The first group included 21 students who took lessons including MDMs in the instructors' talk. On the other hand, the second group which includes 16 students took lessons without the use of metadiscourse from the same instructor. Both groups were told to note down what they listened to. Besides, the learners from both groups were asked about the quality of the speaker and the lecture, and the degree of difficulty of the lecture to identify whether metadiscourse use affected students' comprehension or not. Interestingly, the analysis showed that group two had higher scores than the students' from group one. This might be because of the note-taking strategies of more proficient students in group two. Besides, less proficient students from group one had higher scores than less proficient students from group two. The effect of metadiscourse use on students' comprehension was determined only for less proficient students in English. Therefore, the

results demonstrated that there is a strong link between students' proficiency levels and the facilitative role of metadiscourse features to comprehend the lecture.

Bernard and Mecho (2017) conducted a more recent study investigating teacher talk. They studied the use of *introducing topic* metadiscourse (Ädel, 2010) in the introduction sections of academic lectures by utilizing Multimodal (Inter)actional Analysis, which offers a deeper understanding of the complicated process of teaching by paying attention to the higher and lower level of actions performed by the lecturers. The data of the study includes two short excerpts from the video recordings of academic lectures on history. The researchers focused on higher-level actions of the lecturer such as gestures, mimics, intonation, and gaze. The analyzed excerpts showed that *introducing metadiscourse* was mostly used by the lecturer as a conversational filler when he was organizing his notes or giving the students information about where the lecture was heading. Also, the lecturer used metadiscourse to mention upcoming events in the lesson and to make the progress of the lecture clear for students. *Introducing metadiscourse* was used spontaneously and for a short period of time while preparing the upcoming sections of the lesson. The lecturer mostly used semantic and pragmatic tools to make transitions from one activity to another in his classroom.

Although several studies were carried out on the use of metadiscourse in different fields, Tang (2017) mentioned that metadiscourse is barely a major topic in the field of educational research. For this reason, he investigated how metadiscourse assists science teachers' talk about directing classroom interactions and provides scientific information for secondary and primary school students by depending on Vande Kopple's (2012) metadiscourse taxonomy. Participants included four science teachers from two different secondary schools, two science teachers from one primary school, and 173 students. The data were collected with the help of video recordings, classroom observations, teacher interviews, and student focus group discussions. The researcher selected some episodes from the lessons for the analysis. The result of the study showed that *text connective* was the most commonly occurring organizational metadiscourse marker and *attitude marker* was the most preferred evaluative MDM in science classroom teacher talk. Besides, he

found out that MDMs were more dominant in the opening stage of the explanations than in the interaction or content development stages of the lessons. The researcher also concluded that metadiscourse guides teachers when they open a topic for discussion, sustain and deliver activity structures, formulate the explanation, and go over the discussions at the end of the lesson.

In the field of science Msimanga and Erduran (2018) focused on how metatalk helps multilingual classroom teachers' science teaching in South African classrooms. In several South African classrooms, non-native teachers of English whose students are also non-native speakers of English use English as a medium of instruction in their classrooms. Therefore, most South African classrooms learn English as an additional language rather than English as L2. The data of the study were collected through video and audio recordings of lessons and one teacher's lessons were chosen for the analysis. The lessons comprised learner discussions or teacher-centered monologues. The analyzed results showed that MDMs help science teachers to make specific associations between scientific concepts and ideas, help students to remember information from previous lessons, explain the questions, and gather students' attention for a particular part of the lesson.

Apart from the studies that investigate metadiscursive features of classroom teacher talk, there have been comparative studies about the use of MDMs in a variety of lecturing types. For instance, Lee and Subtirelu (2015) investigated teacher talk in terms of the use of MDMs in 18 English for Academic Purpose (EAP) lessons and 18 university lectures by drawing upon Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse classification. The results showed that the use of MDMs in both lessons' teachers' talks was linked to the content and context of the teaching environment. Besides, since EAP lessons require greater interaction between L2 teachers and students, metadiscourse has a lot more important role in these lessons considering university lessons. While MDMs were used to construct a link between ideas in university lectures, they were used to carry out classroom tasks in EAP lessons. Therefore, the result of the study demonstrated that the metadiscourse use of teachers may vary according to classroom content and teaching context.

Another comparative study was conducted by Zare and Tavakoli (2017) about 8 monologic lessons and 8 dialogic discussions in terms of the personal MDMs by depending on Ädel's (2010) taxonomy. All monologic and dialogic data were from the speech of non-native doctoral students from the field of ELT. The findings demonstrated that the frequency of metadiscourse use was found the same in both speeches except for personal pronouns and possessive forms which were found higher in dialogic speeches than in monologic ones. As for the function of MDMs, both speeches used MDMs to reformulate, comment on a linguistic form, clarify, and manage terminology.

A more recent study by Zhang and Sheng (2021) focused mainly on the use of MDMs in teacher talk in Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), conducted by 45 EFL lecturers of different course types. The researchers used Hyland's (2005) taxonomy to identify MDMs in the data. AntConc 3.5.7 and IBM SPSS 23 were used for the functional and frequency analysis of the MDMs in the corpus data. The functions of the use of MDMs chiefly aimed to achieve intelligibility, reliability, and interactivity in the lessons, which are the main characteristics of MOOCs. The main functions of MDMs in the data were threefold. For the relationship between lecturer and imagined learners, the MDMs used to draw attention to the key issues about the lesson, draw attention to illustrative materials, seek agreement or support, predict response, prior knowledge or support, shorten the mutual distance, invoke commonsense, mitigate imposition force. For the relationship between evolving content and imaginary learners, the functions of MDMs were memorizing key issues, considering questions, realizing the importance of actions, and acquiring approaches for fulfilling tasks. For the relationship between the lecturer and the evolving content, the functions of MDMs were informing the layout, steering the development, presenting sentential logic, bringing accuracy, illustrating concepts, expressing affective feelings, and seeking sound evidence.

Similarly, Doiz and Lasagabaster (2022) aimed to find out how Chinese and Spanish lecturers who use English as a medium of instruction construct and organize their classes with the help of interactive metadiscourse by depending on Hyland's (2005) taxonomy. Video recordings of four Spanish teachers' history lessons and their use of interactive

metadiscourse was compared with the result another study by Zhang and Lo (2021), which investigated the Chinese context in the same way. The result of the study demonstrated that both teachers' use of these metadiscourse patterns were similar irrespective of context. The findings showed that the most preferred markers were *transition markers* in Spanish and Chinese lecturers' talks. On the other hand, small differences in the use of interactive MDMs were attributed to the lecturers' different L1 backgrounds.

In addition to the studies investigating MDM use by teachers, students' use of MDMs has been explored as well. One of the studies in this area was conducted by Wei-Yan (2014) about the use of metadiscoursal chunks of Chinese and British students' oral English in terms of frequency, function, and linguistic patterns based on Hyland's (2005) taxonomy. The data of the study were obtained from the corpus of Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage (LINDSEI) and Louvain Corpus of Native English Conversation (LOCNEC) which include junior or senior students' interviews, picture description tasks in English. The results of the study revealed that Chinese students used fewer and dysfluent metadiscoursal chunks in their talk considering their British counterparts. This might be because of the neglected non-propositional part of discourse instruction in English teaching programs in China. The researcher suggested that oral chunks can be used to analyze Chinese students' use of metadiscourse. Besides, he implied the importance of non-propositional discourse instruction on students' correct metadiscourse use.

The studies about the role of gender as a variable in the use of MDMs by the students have also been a research area. In this respect, Pasaribu (2017) investigated how female and male students differ in terms of the use of MDMs in their essays by using Hyland's (2005) taxonomy. The data of the study included 20 female and 20 male EFL students' essays written in Critical Reading and Writing Course. The markers used by the students were counted by using Antconc as a program. The results showed that both genders used interactive markers more than interactional markers. The high amount of the use of interactional markers was caused by *transition markers* which guide readers to understand the texts. However, the researcher mentioned that students from both genders can be

influenced by cultural factors for not using *transition markers* as well. In addition, the researcher assumed female students might use self-mention markers more than male students use. However, it is observed that male students mentioned themselves in their writings as well. The reason behind the similarity in the use of MDMs of both genders might be because of field-specific factors rather than gender-specific ones. Therefore, the researcher concluded that gender might not be the factor alone in terms of the metadiscourse preference of the students.

### **2.2.2. Metadiscourse Studies in the Turkish Context**

Compared to the research in different languages and contexts, few studies have investigated the use of MDMs by Turkish speakers of L2 speakers. The topics under investigation are doctoral dissertations and master theses (Akbaş, 2014; Can & Yuvayapan, 2018; Can & Cangır, 2019; Duruk, 2017), students' writings (Algı, 2012; Kurudayıoğlu & Çimen, 2020; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018), cross-cultural differences in the use of MDMs (Çandarlı, Bayyurt & Martı, 2015; Özdemir & Longo, 2014), comparison of the fields in terms of MDMs use (Ekoç, 2020; Dağ Tarcan, 2017), the effect of metadiscourse instruction on students' writing performance (Kaya, 2019; Sancak, 2019), national journals (Işık-Taş, 2018) and teacher talk (Soysal, 2021). Although many studies have been conducted on the use of MDMs in the Turkish context, there is no study on the use of MDMs in online EFL teachers' talks. Therefore, MDMs used in different fields (e.g., science teacher talk) have been integrated into this part.

To begin with, Duruk (2017) analyzed 20 master theses written by Turkish students from the ELT department about the frequency of interpersonal MDMs using Hyland's (1998) categorization. The investigation demonstrated that the most frequently used MDMs were *attitude markers*, *hedges*, and *empathetics* respectively. Conversely, personal MDMs were not preferred in those theses as much as the previously mentioned MDMs except for one post-graduate student who used the first-person singular pronoun in his thesis. Besides, writers tended to use more *attitude markers* about the issues related to the ELT field and this might be because writers attempt to reflect their own points of view on these issues and to add something new to the relevant research area.

Apart from master theses, doctoral dissertations also take a great place in the area of metadiscourse analysis. One of the studies was conducted by Akbaş (2014). The researcher aimed to find out self-mention markers in the 90 discussion parts of dissertations in the field of education. The data were collected from L1 writers of Turkish, Turkish writers of English, and L1 writers of English. Sample dissertations from each language were analyzed based on Hyland's and Tse's (2004) interpersonal metadiscourse categorization. The result of the analysis showed that there were remarkable differences and some similarities between the dissertations of L1 and L2 writers in terms of the use of interactional metadiscourse use. One of the remarkable differences was the use of self-mentions, which were not found in the dissertations that were written in Turkish by Turkish writers. Even though their mentions in their dissertations were self-evaluative, the language that was used in the Turkish writers' dissertations were not included authorial identity. In contrast, Turkish writers of English used interactional MDMs, and it was observed in the whole discourse of their dissertations.

Another study investigating dissertations was carried out by Can and Yuvayapan (2018). The researchers analyzed 120 doctoral dissertations written between the years 2010 and 2015 by American writers of English and Turkish writers of English according to the use of interactional MDMs depending on Hyland's (2001) taxonomy. 60 dissertations of Turkish writers in L2 were from the field of ELT, English Literature, and Linguistics. On the other hand, another 60 dissertations were written by L1 English writers from various of fields such as English Literature, Education, Linguistics, Cognitive Science, and Comparative Literature. The analysis showed that Turkish writers of English favored using first-person plural pronouns over the first-person singular pronoun. In other words, the writers abstain from the visibility of themselves clearly in the texts as an author. The analyzed results also demonstrated that L1 writers of English had more tendency to use interactional MDMs to construct their stance by employing *self-mentions* and *engagement markers* than their Turkish counterparts did.

Similarly, Can and Cangır (2019) investigated to what extent Turkish Ph.D. students vary from their British counterparts in their doctoral dissertations about the use of self-mention

markers. For that purpose, by using the corpus-based lexical analysis method, 100 dissertations from the corpora of Turkey and the UK were analyzed by deploying Hyland's (2005) taxonomy of interactional MDMs. The results indicated that there were significant variations in terms of self-mention markers usage between dissertations written in Turkish and in English. Moreover, the findings showed that the pronouns *I* and *my* were more frequently used in dissertations written by British academic writers than in the ones written by their Turkish counterparts. Besides, Turkish academic writers tended to use passive sentences which shows their tendency to hide authorial presence in their dissertations.

There have been comparative studies about the use of MDMs in the students' essays and writings as well. For instance, Algi (2012) investigated 104 (52 Turkish, 52 English) L1 and L2 argumentative paragraphs in response to TOEFL essay prompts regarding the functions and frequencies of the use of *hedges* and *boosters*. The results demonstrated that the types, frequencies, and meanings of *hedges* and *boosters* might vary according to culture, language, and the subjects of the paragraphs. The results also showed that there is a strong link between the paragraphs written by the students and the materials used in academic writing courses in the use of hedges and boosters. Besides, Turkish writers had few markers that show certainty in their paragraphs, and the paragraphs had contextual ambiguity. In addition, as Can and Cangır (2019) mentioned, the findings of this study also showed the similarity between the use of MDMs in students' paragraphs and teaching materials.

Likewise, Yüksel and Kavanoz (2018) conducted a corpus-based study on 314 essays written by third year B2 level Turkish learners of English in a state university about the use of MDMs and analyzed the difference between Turkish students' use of MDMs and native speakers of English. The data were collected from the Turkish writers obtained from the Written Communication class that lasted one academic term. Besides, for the comparison of non-native writers' and native writers' use of MDMs, British Academic Written English (BAWE) as a novice native and British National Corpus (BNC) as an expert native reference corpora were utilized. The results showed that no matter the year

of experience in writing or participants' L1, textual MDMs were used less than interpersonal MDMs. This result constitutes a distinctive feature of the study when the results of previous studies above are taken into consideration. The results also demonstrated that the use of MDMs as a pragmatic competence improves through experience regardless of the native language background.

Contrary to the aforementioned studies, Kurudayıoğlu and Çimen (2020) investigated interactive MDMs in the research abstracts of the students who learn Turkish as a foreign language by depending on Hyland's (2005) taxonomy. In this respect, the randomly chosen abstracts of 20 students who took B2 level Academic Turkish courses were analyzed by using Antconc and SPSS for the frequency analysis of MDMs. The results indicated that the use of interactive MDMs in research abstracts was found to be problematic and unsatisfactory. Besides, the investigation showed inadequacy in the use of *frame markers* regarding the formal scheme of the text type. Therefore, the researchers recommended integrating metadiscourse instruction into Turkish teaching programs.

There have been cross-cultural studies related to the use of MDMs as well. For instance, Özdemir and Longo (2014) investigated the cultural change in the use of MDMs in the abstract sections of master theses of the students from Turkey and the USA depending on Hyland's (2005) taxonomy. The results demonstrated that there were significant differences in the amount and the kinds of metadiscourse used in each culture. Besides, results demonstrated that American students used interactional MDMs to a great extent considering what their Turkish counterparts did. Conversely, Turkish students used *frame markers*, *transitions*, and *hedges* more than their American counterparts did.

In another corpus-based comparative study, Çandarlı, Bayyurt, and Martı (2015) analyzed authorial presence markers in the argumentative essays of Turkish and American students by applying the interactional MDM categorization of Hyland (2005). The corpora of the study included English essays of Turkish and American students and Turkish essays of Turkish students. The researchers interviewed with the students to understand the sociocultural setting in which the essays were written and to understand the reasons behind their selection of MDMs. The results of the study showed that Turkish students avoid

using the first-person singular pronoun in their essays because the students culturally convinced themselves that they were just students. Besides, it was concluded that the preference of MDMs in the students' writings was based on their native cultural habits. Lastly, the researchers mentioned the importance of corpus-based classroom activities about MDMs for students to write fruitful essays with the correct use of MDMs.

Işık- Taş (2018) conducted another comparative study about the use of authorial voice in the research articles of Turkish and English writers in national journals and Turkish and English writers in international journals in the Sociology field. By investigating 130 research articles in the field of Sociology in terms of how they used the pronoun *I*, the results showed that Turkish and English natives used the pronoun *I* in the same amount regarding the frequency and function in international journals. Nevertheless, the analysis showed that there were notable differences in terms of the use of the first-person singular pronoun in the writing of Turkish writers in national journals who tended to abstain from showing authorial presence in their texts. By considering the result of the study, the researcher mentioned the importance of publication context on the academic writers' linguistic preference.

There have been studies that compare the variety of fields in terms of the frequency and the function of the use of MDMs. Ekoç (2020) investigated whether subject-specific differences in a variety of fields such as Biology, ELT, and International Relations in terms of the use of lexical hedging strategies in Turkish graduate students' thesis abstracts. The study included 40 thesis abstracts in total and the result of the analysis showed that all aforementioned fields used lexical hedging strategies but the field that lexical hedging strategies used most was ELT. Besides, the study revealed that apart from the writers in the field of ELT, the first-person singular pronoun was avoided in the abstracts. In addition, the investigation of the pronouns in the abstracts demonstrated that the pronoun *we* was used in the field of Biology. Besides, writers preferred to use passive voice not to show their presence and claims clearly in their texts, especially in the field of Chemistry.

Depending on Hyland's (2005) taxonomy, another study was carried out by Dağ Tarcan (2017) about the use of interactive MDMs in randomly chosen 18 Turkish scientific texts

each of which was written by different writers. The number of the MDMs that were used in the texts was calculated with the help of *Antconc* which is a tool for numerical data analysis. The results showed that the total number of words within each field, Philosophy was the field in which interactive MDMs were used most contrary to the field of Education Sciences in which included the least interactive MDMs in it. Besides, the result of the study showed that in the Turkish scientific texts from the social sciences field, the most preferred interactive MDMs were *connectors* whereas *code glosses* were the least preferred MDMs. According to the study, the variety and amount of MDMs used in each field might be related to the writers' personal preferences about their texts in order to ensure writer-reader interaction.

There have been studies about the effect of metadiscourse instruction on students' academic progress in Turkey. Kaya (2019) conducted a study about the link between metadiscourse instruction on 21 ELT students' writing proficiency levels. To study the effect of metadiscourse instruction, the participants were given a pretest and posttest. Besides, to get their opinions about the process, interviews and reflections were used. Throughout an academic term, students were given direct instruction about the use of MDMs. The knowledge test results showed that students improved their skills to detect the metadiscourse functions and they also used them correctly in their writings. Additionally, the use of MDMs, particularly *boosters* in students' essays increased numerically which improves the cohesion and coherence of students' essays.

Likewise, Sancak (2019) aimed to analyze the effect of instruction of *transitions*, *frame markers* and *code glosses* on B1 level private university students' 50 opinion paragraphs in terms of the frequencies, functions, and their appropriate usage. The data of the study were collected with the help of pretest, posttest, think-aloud sessions, follow-up interviews, and online questionnaires. The researcher had the same results as the results of the study conducted by Kaya (2019), that is metadiscourse training helped learners to improve their writing skills. Therefore, the researcher recommended the integration of metadiscourse training into Turkish academic writing classes.

Soysal (2021) studied middle school and elementary classrooms' science teacher talk in terms of metadiscursive moves by drawing upon Tang's (2017) science classroom metadiscourse taxonomy and Vygotskian perspective which supports the idea that learning takes place in a social environment and can be enriched by depending on learners' purposes. The main aim of the study was to find out how MDMs guide engaging students cognitively with the lessons. The data of the study were collected from two female and one male science teacher of 71 fifth, sixth and seventh-grade students. The findings showed that teachers used MDMs for guiding students to monitor their teaching, helping students to remember the interrelated parts of the lesson, guiding students' participation, organizing their discourse, managing cognitive load, and scaffolding students' cognitive engagement with the lesson.

All the studies on metadiscourse and teaching context showed that metadiscourse has a facilitative role in comprehending the lecture, guiding activity shifts, and scaffolding students' cognitive engagement with the lesson (Bernard & Mecho, 2017; Lee & Subtirelu, 2015; Msimanga & Erduran, 2018; Perez & Macia, 2014; Pasaribu, 2017; Tang, 2017; Wei-Yan, 2014; Zare & Tavakoli, 2017; Zhang & Sheng, 2021). As metadiscourse markers have an important aspect in written texts' organization and guide writers to interact with their readers by sharing their points of view (Hyland, 2005), the studies conducted in the Turkish context generally focused on the link between the use of MDMs and writing performance. The results of the many studies in the Turkish context revealed that Turkish writers had more tendency to hide their presence in texts by using passive voice and staying away from the use of interactive MDMs when compared to their English counterparts because of their personal preferences or cultural expectations (Algı, 2012; Akbaş, 2014; Can & Yuvayapan, 2018; Ekoç, 2020; Özdemir & Longo, 2014). Apart from this, the findings of the studies in the Turkish context indicated the importance of metadiscourse training to increase students' performance in the correct use of MDMs and make students' written texts coherent (Kaya, 2019; Sancak, 2019). Although there have been studies analyzing the spoken contexts in terms of the use of MDMs in the world (e.g., Bernard & Mecho, 2017; Msimanga & Erduran, 2018; Perez & Macia, 2014; Tang, 2017),

a huge gap draws attention when the studies investigating the spoken context in Turkey have been reviewed. Based on Vande Kopple's (2012) taxonomy of MDMs, this study aimed to fulfill this gap by unpacking EFL instructors' talks in terms of type, frequency, and functions of MDMs of EFL instructors in A2 and B1 proficiency level online lessons.



## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This chapter is devoted to presenting the methodology of the current study. First, the setting of the research is explained. Second, the demographic information about the participants of the study will be delivered. Finally, the data collection procedures and data analysis are presented.

#### **3.1. Setting**

This study is a MDMs analysis focusing on the MDM produced in A2 and B1 level classrooms by four EFL instructors who work at the English Preparatory Unit of the Department of Foreign Languages of one private and three state universities in Turkey. Since English is the medium of instruction at all universities' preparatory classrooms, all registered students are supposed to take the English proficiency exam which is planned and prepared by the testing unit of the preparatory school before the beginning of an academic year. The students who cannot pass this exam are required to take a placement exam to start the new academic year with the students with the same proficiency level in English determined by the Common European Framework (CERF). There are three level classes according to language proficiency: A1 (starter) and A2 (Elementary); B1 level (Intermediate) and B2 level (Upper-intermediate). Because C1 and C2 levels are regarded as effective operational proficiency and mastery levels respectively, they are not included in the preparatory schools' education programs in Turkey.

The book used for Main Course classes was Language Hub (second edition) in both universities. Therefore, the discussion topics of the lessons or the grammar structures that are supposed to teach to students go parallel in each lesson at both levels. Since the 2020-2021 spring term was carried out in distance education format at different universities because of the COVID-19 Pandemic, a variety of state and public universities conducted their lessons by using online education tools such as Zoom and Google Teams which are reliable video platforms that facilitate all communication needs including meetings, chats, webinars, and online events. In the data of this research, the private university's lessons were conducted on Google Teams and the rest of the universities conducted their lesson by using Zoom.

### **3.2. Participants**

Four EFL instructors with at least seven years of teaching experience and their 67 students participated in the study. Since the only focus of this study is instructors' talks, the researcher received the consent form from the participating instructors, and the researcher asked the instructors to inform their students that they were participants in a study that will examine their instructors' talks. In Table 5, background information about instructors is shown. All EFL instructors are graduates of the ELT Department. All the participant instructors are from Turkish language backgrounds and learned English as a foreign language. Two of the instructors teach English to A2 level students and the other instructors teach B1 level classrooms. Since the differences between the participants' ages and genders regarding the use of MDMs were not the focus of this study, the gender of the participants was not considered as a variable factor while counting the MDMs in the whole data. Apart from this, all the students were from Turkish language backgrounds and learned English as a foreign language in an instructional context, which might affect instructors' preference of language in classrooms.

**Table 5.** Demographic Information About the EFL Instructor

| <b>Name</b>         | <b>Age</b> | <b>Gender</b> | <b>Teaching<br/>Experience</b> | <b>Academic<br/>Level</b> | <b>Level of<br/>Teaching</b> | <b>Institution</b> |
|---------------------|------------|---------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|
| <b>Instructor 1</b> | 32         | Female        | 8 years                        | BA (MA<br>student)        | A2                           | State              |
| <b>Instructor 2</b> | 29         | Female        | 7 years                        | MA                        | A2                           | State              |
| <b>Instructor 3</b> | 33         | Male          | 9 years                        | MA                        | B1                           | Private            |
| <b>Instructor 4</b> | 36         | Female        | 11 years                       | BA (MA<br>student)        | B1                           | State              |

### 3.3. Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

The data of the present study were collected from the four EFL instructors' online lessons during the spring term of 2019-2020. The data examined in this study consist of the transcription of talks from 30 online classroom lessons organized into two types of proficiency levels which are A2 and B1. The length of all lessons was 40 minutes, and the data collection procedure took four weeks in total. The A2 level online lessons consisted of 15 lesson hours and the B1 online lessons also consisted of 15 lesson hours. Table 6 presents the information about the database.

**Table 6.** Information about the Database

|                                           |           |
|-------------------------------------------|-----------|
| <b>Number of the recorded lessons</b>     | 30        |
| <b>A2 level recorded lessons</b>          | 15        |
| <b>B1 level recorded lessons</b>          | 15        |
| <b>Duration of the lessons in minutes</b> | 40 min.   |
| <b>Total recording in minutes</b>         | 1200 min. |

The online education context inspired the research problem because of the COVID-19 Pandemic. The main aim of the current study is to reveal the types of MDMs used by EFL instructors with A2 and B1 level students in their online classrooms, and to determine the discourse functions of these markers in EFL classrooms. With the help of this MDMs analysis, the difference in the use of MDMs in instructors' talk from different proficiency level classrooms can be demonstrated. For the research, all possible MDMs and potential items that have metadiscoursal features in a classroom context (e.g., ok/ okay, all right/all right...) in EFL instructors' talks were analyzed depending on Vande Kopple's (2012) most up-to-date taxonomy of metadiscourse which consists of *text connectives*, *code glosses*, *illocution markers*, *epistemology markers*, *attitude markers*, and *commentary*. Although this taxonomy was first developed to analyze written data, it was adapted to analyze the use of MDMs in spoken discourse in other classroom discourse studies (e.g., Tang, 2017). Since the research focuses on the spoken data, the low possibility of using MDMs was excluded such as *illocution markers*, which were excluded in some other spoken data studies (e.g., Lee & Subtirelu 2015, Tang, 2017).

A mixed-type research method was adopted to increase the reliability of the present study. The mixed type of method has been perceived as more favorable considering only qualitative or only quantitative methods in recent decades (e.g., McKim, 2017; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). As Creswell (2003) mentioned, using both qualitative and quantitative data together increases the validity and reliability of the research results. Therefore, with the integration of quantitative and qualitative data, the study seeks to provide a deeper understanding of the use of MDMs. By using the qualitative method, this research on one hand tried to describe the discourse functions of metadiscursive expressions in EFL instructors' talks from both proficiency level classrooms. On the other hand, the quantitative method was used to tabulate the data and give information about the frequency of the use of MDMs in A2 and B1 level classrooms' instructors' talks. For the qualitative data analysis, the MDMs in instructors' talks were analyzed through the mixed method data analysis tool MAXQDA, which was used in many other qualitative

metadiscourse studies as well (e.g., Çiçek Tümer, 2021). It is a tool that helps researchers to analyze their data by dividing it into various categories or codes. With the help of this tool, the types of the MDMs used by four EFL instructors in their talks can be categorized and the frequency of the occurring markers can be calculated. In this way, the miscalculation risk can be minimized.

### **3.4. Data Analysis**

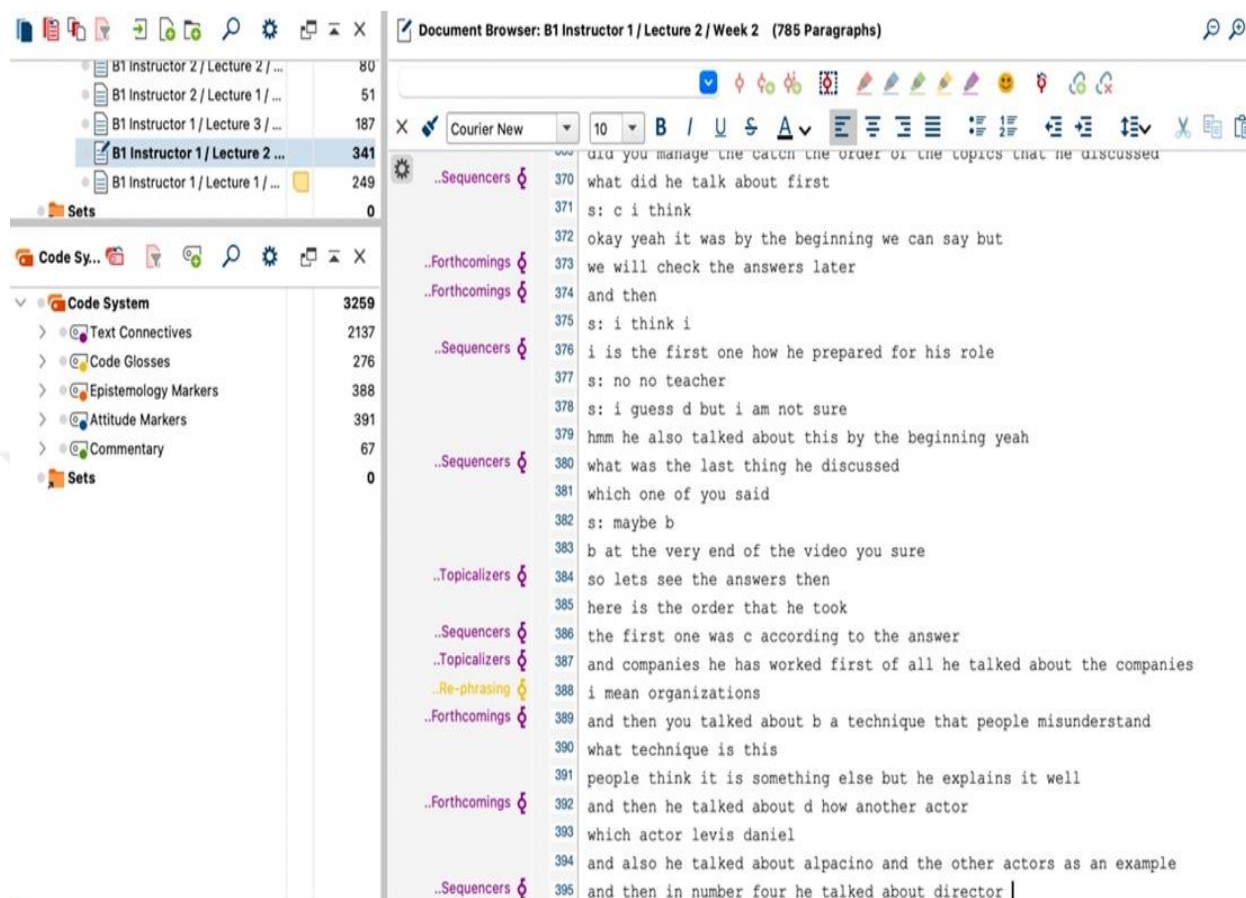
Throughout the 2019-2020 spring term, four EFL instructors shared their 30 online lessons' downloaded versions to the researcher. The dataset was transcribed by using *Transana Software*, a tool to help the researchers analyze the language used in videos or audios. The video recordings of the online lessons were uploaded on *Transana* and each lesson was listed under specific categories such as *A2 Instructor 1 /Week 1/ Lesson 1*. The transcribed lessons were transferred to the MAXQDA. Besides, because the study aims to investigate and reveal the nature of online EFL classroom talk instead of quantifying the data, word count is not in the scope of this study. Besides, whether a particular item in the transcribed data has metadiscoursal features or not was decided by two raters: the researcher and the supervisor of the present study. The two researchers studied the data individually and showed their findings to each other and the result of the findings showed 99% similarity in the identified MDMs, which shows the present study has high inter-coder reliability. Then, two researchers discussed the emerging disagreements through discussion and negotiation. Therefore, the elements that were not regarded as metadiscourse by two raters through a visual analysis were excluded from both frequency and functional analyses of the MDMs. After the functions of the MDMs were detected and the total number of each metadiscourse category was found through MAXQDA, the frequency analysis was done with the same programs' sub-topic frequency analysis section. For the ethical considerations, the names of the instructors in the data were mentioned as *I1*, *I2*, *I3*, and *I4*, and all students as *S*. In the first stage of the data analysis, all the lessons of the four EFL instructors were analyzed carefully to find the elements

that have metadiscoursal features. After that, the elements that have metadiscoursal features were highlighted through MAXQDA as seen in Figure 3 below.

okay lets look at this one about again different kinds of people  
the first one is i am a owner i take for a walk twice a day i am a dog owner  
what is owner dog owner  
sahip olmak  
a dog owner what about number two  
i am a coffee drinker and i also like espresso  
and three  
i am a father of two and five  
okay good so good what about you lets discuss you  
for example i am a book lover definitely i like reading different kinds of books  
i am an animal lover i have a bird at home i pet burd and i am a foody  
i also like trying different kinds of books and  
i am a music fan as well i like listen to different kinds of music  
what about you  
think about all these words to describe different kinds of people  
and then i will ask you what you are are you ready

**Figure 3.** Identifying MDMs through MAXQDA

After identifying the MDMs by highlighting them, the coding of the MDMs was done using different colors, and all the appointed MDMs were divided into five categories such as *text connectives*, *code glosses*, *epistemology markers*, *attitude markers*, and *commentaries* depending on Vande Kopple's (2012) taxonomy of MDMs. Besides, the discourse functions of MDMs were also mentioned as a sub-category with the same color under the main metadiscourse categorization that they belong to (see Figure 4).



**Figure 4.** Identifying Discourse Functions of MDMs in Instructors' Talks through MAXQDA

As Vande Kopple (2012) mentions “In some sentences, readers can find several different kinds of metadiscourse. For instance, in *Finally, I am sorry to proclaim that you are guilty*, readers find a *text connective*, an *attitude marker*, and an *illocution marker* before they get to the ideational material.” Therefore, the analysis of the instructors' utterances in the present data showed more than one metadiscoursal feature in one sentence as in Excerpt 1 below, where MDMs are underlined, and these utterances were taken into consideration in the frequency and the functional analysis.

### Excerpt 1

as you see sold, bought, and started in the second part because we are using activities that happen one after another...

The utterance starts with the instructor's use of *epistemology marker* which is *as you see* by depending on the *sensory experiences* of the instructor. Following this, a *text connective* is observed in the same line (e.g., the second part, because) mentioning the *logical and temporal relationships* between ideas as well. Apart from this, since metadiscourse can vary from a single word or short phrase to full sentences or clauses, there is no simple method to classify the elements that have metadiscoursal features. *Text connectives* can be identified in a classroom context from a single word or a full sentence. Thus, while doing a functional analysis, metadiscourse features can be identified at both word and sentence levels as in Excerpt 2 where MDMs are underlined.

### Excerpt 2

we are going to look at personality adjectives that we use to describe people and their characters the first one is done for you I believe I can do anything if I try...

As in Excerpt 2, *text connectives* were identified as a full sentence (e.g., we are going to look at personality adjectives). On the other hand, *text connectives* can be identified from a single word in the data as well (e.g., the first one), which showed the sequence of the activities that are supposed to be carried out by the students.

Metadiscourse function of the words and utterances should be detected from the context in which they occur. In other words, metadiscourse analysis can be achieved successfully by just focusing on the semantic function of the elements in both spoken and written texts (Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Crismore, 1989; Halliday, 1994; Salager-Meyer, 1994). In the data, it is observed that all conjunctions cannot be regarded as metadiscourse. For instance, in Excerpt 3, the conjunctions *and* are used to show the order of the occurrence of the events

notwithstanding the instructors' rhetorical goal. These kinds of conjunctions are called *external conjunctions* (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). On the other hand, in Excerpt 4, the instructor used the discursive element to organize her speech for students to follow the sequence of the information better. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), these conjunctions are regarded as *internal conjunctions*, which can be regarded as organizational metadiscourse as well. Therefore, in the analysis of the data, external conjunctions were not included in the frequency and the discourse function analysis.

Excerpt 3

okay, remember he traveled without flying and his journey took four years and  
he traveled all the countries in the world...

Excerpt 4

now we are going to have a break and after the break, we will continue, and then  
we will go over the grammar rules

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.1. Findings**

This study is conducted to determine the types of MDMs used by EFL instructors with A2 and B1 level students in their online EFL classrooms and to reveal the discursive functions of these markers. The data is collected from the video recordings of four EFL instructors' talks in their online lessons conducted in a distance education format. To demonstrate the frequency and the functions of the use of MDMs in the instructors' talks, MAXQDA, a qualitative and quantitative data analysis program, is used.

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. What is the general distribution of EFL instructors' metadiscourse marker use?
2. Are there any differences between metadiscourse marker use of EFL instructors in A2 and B1 level classrooms from the perspective of frequency and function?

This chapter aims to shed light on the research questions mentioned above through a detailed analysis according to Vande Kopple's (2012) classification of MDMs. Firstly, the types and frequencies of the use of MDMs in overall data are presented. Secondly, the differences between the frequencies and functions of MDMs in the A2 and B1 level classrooms' instructors' talks are explained.

#### 4.1.1. Types and Frequencies in the Use of MDMs in the Overall Data

The total recording time obtained from both proficiency level classrooms was 1200 minutes and each lesson lasted 40 minutes. The data included 15 lesson recordings from A2 and 15 lesson recordings from B1 level classrooms. Observation of the data showed that the medium of the talk in EFL classrooms at both proficiency levels was predominantly English. Turkish was used for grammar instructions and definitions of the target vocabulary generally in A2 level classrooms because of the students' lack of competence in L2. The analysis of the MDMs used by the instructors at both levels showed several categories of MDMs and their discourse functions. As mentioned in the data analysis part, *illocution markers* that were generally identified in the written data were excluded from the MDM analysis of instructors' talks at both levels. After the categorization of the MDMs through MAXQDA, the frequency analysis was also calculated through the same program.

**Table 7.** General Text Statistics of Four EFL Instructors' MDM Use in The Overall Data

| MDMs                        | Case | Percentage |
|-----------------------------|------|------------|
| <b>Text Connectives</b>     | 2137 | 65.57%     |
| <b>Attitude Markers</b>     | 391  | 11.99%     |
| <b>Epistemology Markers</b> | 388  | 11.90%     |
| <b>Code Glosses</b>         | 276  | 8.46%      |
| <b>Commentary</b>           | 67   | 2.05%      |
| <b>Total</b>                | 3259 | 100%       |

As shown in Table 7, the descriptive analysis of the spoken text statistics demonstrated that the *text connectives* category was the most frequent category among other categories of MDMs in Vande Kopple's (2012) taxonomy. The total number of the MDMs used by instructors in both level classrooms was 3259. The number of *text connectives* was 2137 (65.57%) with the highest frequency. The category that has the second-highest frequency

was *attitude markers* with 391 (11.99%) cases. *Epistemology markers* were the third most frequently used MDMs in 4 EFL instructors' talks with 388 (11.90%) occurrences. *Code glosses* were observed in 276 (8.46%) cases, followed by 67 (2.05%) occurrences of *commentaries* which were not used very often. *Illocution markers* that possibly occurred in the written data were not identified in the database.

#### 4.1.2. Frequencies and Functions of MDMs in the Instructors' Talks at A2 and B1 Classrooms

The data obtained from instructors' talks in A2 level classrooms showed a wide variety of discourse functions of MDMs as can be seen in Table 8 below.

**Table 8.** Identified MDMs in EFL Instructors' Talks at A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

| <b>Categorization of MDMs and Discourse Functions</b> | <b>Case</b>  | <b>Percentage</b> |
|-------------------------------------------------------|--------------|-------------------|
| <b>Text Connectives</b>                               | <b>1108</b>  |                   |
| Sequencers                                            | 406 (36.64%) | <b>64.75%</b>     |
| Forthcomings                                          | 336 (30.32%) |                   |
| Topicalizers                                          | 201 (18.14%) |                   |
| Logical and Temporal Relationships                    | 134 (12.09%) |                   |
| Reminders                                             | 31 (2.79%)   |                   |
| <b>Attitude Markers</b>                               | <b>249</b>   |                   |
| Attitude Toward Ideational Material                   | 249 (4.55%)  | <b>14.55%</b>     |
| <b>Epistemology Markers</b>                           | <b>162</b>   |                   |
| Shields                                               | 87 (53.70%)  | <b>9.46%</b>      |
| Sensory Experience                                    | 38 (23.45%)  |                   |
| Emphatics                                             | 37 (22.83%)  |                   |
| <b>Code Glosses</b>                                   | <b>139</b>   |                   |
| Definitions and Explanations                          | 105 (75.53%) | <b>8.12%</b>      |
| Rephrasing                                            | 32 (23.02%)  |                   |

|                                                                  |             |              |
|------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Signalling the problem with the ordinary interpretation of words | 2 (1.04%)   |              |
| <b>Commentary</b>                                                | <b>53</b>   |              |
| Guessing listeners' probable moods                               | 53(3.09%)   | <b>3.09%</b> |
| <b>Total</b>                                                     | <b>1711</b> | <b>100%</b>  |

Similar to the general frequency results shown above (see Table 7), the MDMs that have the highest frequency were *text connectives* occurring in 1108 (64.75%) cases in instructors' talks from A2 level classrooms. The analysis showed that these *text connectives* had two high-frequency discourse functions which were *sequencers* and *forthcomings* respectively. *Sequencers* indicating the sequence in the activity shifts were observed in 406 (36.64%) cases, while *forthcomings*, which mention the upcoming activity, were identified in 336 (30.32%) cases in A2 level classrooms. Following this, *topicalizers*, the discourse function of which is to focus on a particular phrase as the main topic of the sentence, occurred with 201 cases and with 18.14% frequency rate in the data. The MDMs that function to indicate the *logical and temporal relationships* in the spoken data were observed in 134 (12.09%) cases. The MDMs functioning as *reminders* was the least frequently used marker in instructors' talks with 31 (2.79%) cases.

*Attitude markers* were the second highly observed MDMs with 249 (14.55%) cases. The data observation showed that EFL instructors used attitude markers when expressing their opinions about the activities and their students' outputs.

The third highly observed MDMs in instructors' talks in A2 level classrooms were *epistemology markers* with 162 cases and with 9.46% frequency rate, which shows the commitment speakers have to the truth of the ideational material and are related to the evidence speakers would like to give to their listeners. The highest frequency in the discourse function of *epistemology markers* is called *shields* aiding to signal caution toward the ideational material and decrease the degree of commitment to the truth of the

ideational material. The number of *shields* in the data were 87 which constituted 53.70% of the *epistemology markers* with 87 cases in instructors' talks. The evidence was shown in the data through 38 (23.45%) occurrences of *sensory experiences* which show the truth of the ideational material by depending on observation. There were no *evidentials* detected in the data apart from *sensory experiences*. In addition, the sub-type of *epistemology markers* that has the lowest frequency was *emphatics* in instructors' talks with 37 (22.83%) cases.

*Code glosses* were the fourth most highly used MDMs in instructors' talks from A2 level classrooms with 139 (8.12%) occurrences. The analysis showed that there were a variety of discourse functions in the use of *code glosses* and the first one is *definitions and explanations* with 105 (75.53%) cases. Another discourse function of *code glosses* is *rephrasing* the words or utterances for listeners to understand the texts with 32 (23.02%) cases. Following this, *signaling the problem with the ordinary interpretation of the words* is the last discourse function only with 2 (1.04%) occurrences. On the other hand, the discourse function named *signaling the strict or technical interpretations* in Vande Kopple's (2012) taxonomy was not detected in the data obtained from A2 proficiency level classrooms.

The last MDM category is called *commentary* by Vande Kopple (2012), which is *guessing listeners' and readers' probable moods*, and instructors from A2 level classrooms used this function in 53 (3.09%) cases in their talks. The other function of commentaries named *recommend a mode of reading* was not detected in the data of A2 proficiency level classrooms.

**Table 9.** Identified MDMs in EFL Instructors' Talks at B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

| Categorization of MDMs and Discourse Functions | Case         | Percentage |
|------------------------------------------------|--------------|------------|
| <b>Text Connectives</b>                        | <b>1029</b>  |            |
| Forthcomings                                   | 356 (34.59%) |            |

|                                                                  |              |               |
|------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------|---------------|
| Sequencers                                                       | 262 (25.46%) | <b>66.47%</b> |
| Logical and Temporal Relationships                               | 204 (19.82%) |               |
| Topicalizers                                                     | 198 (19.24%) |               |
| Reminders                                                        | 9 (0.87%)    |               |
| <b>Epistemology Markers</b>                                      | <b>226</b>   | <b>14.59%</b> |
| Emphatics                                                        | 124 (54.86%) |               |
| Shields                                                          | 76 (33.62%)  |               |
| Sensory Experience                                               | 26 (11.50%)  |               |
| <b>Attitude Markers</b>                                          | <b>142</b>   | <b>9.17%</b>  |
| Attitude Toward Ideational Material                              | 142 (9.17%)  |               |
| <b>Code Glosses</b>                                              | <b>137</b>   | <b>8.85%</b>  |
| Definitions and Explanations                                     | 92 (67.15%)  |               |
| Rephrasing                                                       | 42 (31.38%)  |               |
| Signalling the problem with the ordinary interpretation of words | 2 (1.45%)    |               |
| <b>Commentary</b>                                                | <b>14</b>    | <b>0.90%</b>  |
| Guessing listeners' probable moods                               | 14 (0.90%)   |               |
| <b>Total</b>                                                     | <b>1548</b>  | <b>100%</b>   |

In instructors' talks in B1 proficiency level classrooms, the most common MDM category was *text connectives* with 1029 (66.47%) cases. The first two discourse functions of *text connectives* were *forthcomings* with 356 (34.59%) cases and *sequencers* with 262 (25.46%) cases respectively. After these, *logical and temporal relationships* with 204 (19.82%) cases, followed *topicalizers* with 198 (19.24%) cases. The least used discourse function was *reminders* with 9 (0.87%) cases in the B1 level classrooms data.

The second-highest category was *epistemology markers* with 226 (14.59%) cases, which were used with three different discourse functions in instructors' talks from B1 classrooms. The functions were *emphatics* with 124 (54.86%) cases, *shields* with 76 (33.62%) cases, and *sensory experience* with 26 (11.50%) cases respectively. Other discourse functions in Vande Kopple's (2012) taxonomy such as *personal beliefs* and *what we hear from others* as evidence were not detected in B1 proficiency level classroom data.

*Attitude markers* were the third most frequently observed marker with 142 (9.17%) cases in B1 proficiency level classrooms. Similar to the function of *attitude markers* in A2 classrooms, instructors of B1 proficiency level classrooms used this MDM to show their attitude toward activities carried out in the classroom and students' outputs.

The data showed that the most frequent discourse function of *code glosses* was *definitions and explanations* with 92 (67.15%) cases. The second most frequent discourse function was *rephrasing* with 43 (31.38%) cases. The least frequent discourse function was *signaling the problem with the ordinary interpretation of the words* with 2 (1.45%) cases. There function as *signaling strict or technical interpretation* was not detected in the B1 data.

*Commentaries*, the only discourse function of which is *guessing listeners' and readers' probable moods* were observed in instructors' talks from B1 level classrooms with 14 (0.90%) cases. The function *recommend a mode of reading* in Vande Kopple's (2012) taxonomy was not detected in the B1 data.

Table 8 and Table 9 showed the main MDMs used by EFL instructors in A2 and B1 classrooms and their discourse functions. To compare frequencies of MDMs and discourse functions one by one, each MDM will be presented again in detail in the tables below by following the order presented in Vande Kopple's (2012) taxonomy.

#### 4.1.2.1. MDM 1: Text connectives

**Table 10.** The Frequency Analysis of Text Connectives and Their Discourse Functions at Both Levels

| <i>Text Connectives</i>            | <b>A2</b>   |                   | <b>B1</b>   |                   |
|------------------------------------|-------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|
|                                    | <b>Case</b> | <b>Percentage</b> | <b>Case</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
| Sequencers                         | 406         | 36.64%            | 262         | 25.46%            |
| Logical and Temporal Relationships | 134         | 12.09%            | 204         | 19.82%            |
| Reminders                          | 31          | 2.79%             | 9           | 0.87%             |
| Forthcomings                       | 336         | 30.32%            | 356         | 34.59%            |
| Topicalizers                       | 201         | 18.14%            | 198         | 19.24%            |
| <b>Total</b>                       | 1108        | 100%              | 1029        | 100%              |

##### 4.1.2.1.1. Discourse function 1: Sequencers

The discourse function that had a high frequency at both levels was *sequencers* and they were generally marked by enumerating the activities conducted in the classroom. *Sequencers* used by instructors of A2 classrooms had a higher frequency with 36.64% than the *sequencers* used by instructors of B1 classroom with a 25.46% frequency rate, which showed difference between the talks of instructors in A2 and B1 lessons. *Sequencers* of instructors in A2 level classrooms were used primarily to mention the number of the questions in the activities carried out by the students and to choose the students' turn in this way as in the examples 1- 4 below. On the other hand, in instructors' talks from B1 level classrooms, the primary role of the *sequencers* was to outline and sequence task procedures (see examples 5- 6). Besides, instructors of the B1 level used *sequencers* for summarizing (see example 7) and for teaching grammatical forms (see example 8).

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (1- 8) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 5

##### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (1) hihi that's true what about four four goes to another person here okay let's check your answer...
- (2) I am not a good cook it means that bob is not very good at cooking so five goes to...
- (3) T: seven  
S: Jameika  
T: eight  
S: Russia  
T: nine  
S: Africa  
T: no it seems like Africa but not  
T: third one tell me the object pronoun  
S: her number
- (4) one is a writer right write bir yazar bir yazar güzel number two is a shop assistant

##### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (5) so maybe we can aa fill them at first before watching the video tell me the nationality of gabby where is she from
- (6) so you can just go to collections and maybe visit the collections online and then choose some objects here and then you can see any other objects like this
- (7) at first, she talks about her name secondly her hometown, and then she talks about hobbies well
- (8) you should use the single form of the verb after can and before while simple past tense can be used be careful

#### 4.1.2.1.2. Discourse function 2: Logical and temporal relationships

The MDMs showing *logical and temporal relationships* in the data occurred with 12.09% and 19.82% frequency rates in A2 and B1 classrooms' instructors' talks respectively. Instructors of A2 classrooms used the MDMs to show *logical and temporal relationships* in Turkish. They generally used intra-sentential code-switching while explaining grammar rules as in examples 9- 12 below. However, instructors of the B1 level often used these MDMs to explain grammar topics in English and to sustain the general organization of the instructions as in examples 13- 16.

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (9- 16) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 6

##### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (9) when we say goodbye you can say bye see you soon or see you tomorrow see you later çünkü bu şekilde diyalog bitmiş oluyor
- (10) if there are two of the same numbers I say double double three double four dolayısıyla burda tekrar tekrar öyle demeye gerek yok
- (11) he is fun she is fun it is fun çünkü hani sorularda en başta olduğu için kısaltma yapamıyorum
- (12) how does he prepared for roles excitely o yüzden özne dışındaki detayları soruyosak yardımcı fiile ihtiyacımız var unutmayın

##### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (13) I will give you the answer key today to be able to check them so we will not go over this time
- (14) can we say what has he won we can of course because we asking an object
- (15) we can also use when okay for giving the conditions we can use all these by the way how many types of conditions do we have
- (16) I will send you all the notes and answer keys so you can check on your own

#### 4.1.2.1.3. Discourse function 3: Reminders

The observation of instructors' talks from A2 level classrooms showed a 2.79% percentage of *reminders*. On the other hand, the percentage of the occurrences of *reminders* was 0.87% in instructors' talks from B1 level classrooms. *Reminders* were used most at the A2 level for recalling the previous topics discussed in earlier lessons and recalling the grammar topics covered in the previous lessons as in Examples 17- 20. However, at the B1 level, *reminders* were mostly used for reminding the previously assigned homework or tasks that the students were supposed to complete (see Examples 21- 24). As mentioned before, *reminders* were the least preferred discourse function among the functions of *text connectives* at both levels.

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (17- 24) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 7

##### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (17) remember yesterday we learned about phone numbers and how can read them so can you read this phone number
- (18) it says to read the form again tick the words that need a capital letter to remember for which words we use a capital letter
- (19) okay you are done I guess so we have Hugh Gramhuse and he is from the UK we said earlier
- (20) okay number four we can't use these and those can or can't hıhı as we saw in the previous lesson remember we can't use no with any of pronoun like no of them no of it we cannot say that or we cannot say no of these students we cannot say that

#### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (21) so yesterday, when we saw their picture, we saw different ideas you will do it like that at home remember to complete the first chapter by next meeting
- (22) or we can also ask about a number if you focus on how many Oscars does he won can be a possible answer do it like as we did last week
- (23) first of all, let's remember to complete the first conditional exercises until the next lesson what are zero and first conditionals yes what do you remember about these topics
- (24) so parts five six and seven you should definitely do on your own okay because this is what we learned in the first unit remember

#### 4.1.2.1.4. Discourse function 4: Forthcomings

The use of *forthcomings* in instructors' talks from A2 and B1 classrooms had a similar frequency rate. The frequency rate of *forthcomings* was 30.32% in A2 level instructors' talks and 34.59% in B1 level instructors' talks. *Forthcomings* in the instructors' talks in A2 and B1 classrooms were used for the same purposes such as highlighting the ongoing activity the students were supposed to deal with and giving clear instructions about the activities they were supposed to complete. *Forthcomings* were generally mentioned in the data with the phrases such as "The next part is...", "I will move on with the...", and "You are going to..." at both levels.

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (25- 32) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 8

#### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (25) after you finish this exercise, you are going to describe your partner's character
- (26) so this is the writing part eer and it's a blog you will have a short homework okay in this part you are going to write a blog...
- (27) I think we don't need it its quite easy so let's move on with the next part
- (28) Okay, aa let's move on with the next section so using the capital letters demiş

#### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (29) you will exchange your papers with your partner or send some papers on your phone and aa you will talk about you partners personality, but you do that....
- (30) on a piece of paper and then take a picture of this paper I am going to pair you up and you are going to discuss, and you know...
- (31) so I will send you the link as I said after the lesson sends me your Gmail accounts with a private message...
- (32) so tell me teacher I am an engineer okay did you understand because I will make you speak right now

##### 4.1.2.1.5. Discourse function 5: Topicalizers

The function of *topicalizers* had a similar frequency rate in both A2 and B1 level classrooms with 18.14% and 19.24% cases respectively. Instructors at both levels of classrooms used *topicalizers* to draw their students' attention to a starter point of an entire section and to mention a change in the topic of discussion.

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (33- 40) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 9

#### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (33) let's do it all together heh yes okay first we have the saying hello part amm okay so who can do this
- (34) let's have a look at 11 the musicians which one is interesting for you 11 can you answer
- (35) let's look at the second flag and the second country chile şili nasıl oluyodur acaba
- (36) as for this picture look at the picture in which two words hangi iki kelime describe ediyo bu resmi sizce

## Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (37) let's talk about these adjectives what adjectives can you use to describe them
- (38) let's talk about our notes banknotes or our paper money we can see something on the paper money
- (39) let's take a look at the vocabulary part this is really simple we talk about verb so some collocations paint a picture for example
- (40) as for unit seven, we talked about the abilities can and can so this is an exercise on this topic

### 4.1.2.2. MDM 2: Code Glosses

**Table 11.** The Frequency Analysis of Code Glosses and Their Discourse Functions at Both Levels

| <i>Code Glosses</i>                                             | <b>A2</b>    |                   | <b>B1</b>    |                   |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|--------------|-------------------|--------------|-------------------|
|                                                                 | <b>Cases</b> | <b>Percentage</b> | <b>Cases</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
| Definitions and Explanations                                    | 105          | 75.53%            | 92           | 67.15%            |
| Signaling the problem with the ordinary interpretation of words | 2            | 1.04%             | 2            | 1.45%             |
| Rephrasing                                                      | 32           | 23.02%            | 42           | 31.38%            |
| <b>Total</b>                                                    | 139          | 100%              | 137          | 100%              |

#### 4.1.2.2.1. Discourse function 1: Definitions and explanations

MDMs used for *definitions and explanations in texts* were observed in A2 level classrooms with 75.53% and B1 level classrooms with 67.15% frequency rates. While frequency rates of the discourse functions were similar, there was a difference in the purpose of using these discourse functions in the talks of instructors at A2 and B1 level classrooms. While A2 instructors used *definitions and explanations* to give the Turkish meaning of the target vocabulary (see Examples 41- 44), instructors of B1 proficiency

level classrooms defined or explained the grammar topics in L2 as shown in the examples 45- 48.

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (41-48) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 10

##### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (41) who is an artist artist means ressam okay I am an artist ya da sanatçı gibi ben bi sanatçıyım ressamım okay
- (42) hıhı turn means dönmek right in Turkish but here there is a different meaning when I say as a teacher so for example
- (43) fakat yine de acaba nasıl vurgu yapıyolar nerelerde vurgu yapıyolar bi dinleyelim so stress means vurgu in turkish
- (44) when you accept someone or when you meet someone to accept it him or her as a worker and it means mülakat yapmak okay

##### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (45) for example Tuesdays and Thursdays these are just words you can link them link means combining use them together
- (46) what does it mean yes compulsory means you have to do it
- (47) no hıhı thats false right just check this part I am not a good cook it means that bob is not very good at cooking because the sentence is negative
- (48) unless is also used and it means if not if I don't sleep ten hours which means unless I sleep ten hours

#### 4.1.2.2.2. Discourse function 2: Signaling the problem with the ordinary interpretation of words

The least preferred discourse function of *code glosses* by all instructors from both proficiency level classrooms was *signaling the problem with the ordinary interpretation of the words*. The frequency of this discourse function used by instructors of A2 level classrooms is 1.04% which gives a similar result in terms of the frequency in the talks of instructors from the B1 proficiency level classrooms (1.45%). Instructors from both levels of classrooms used this discourse function to correct the wrong interpretation of the target vocabulary in their lessons.

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (49- 52) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 11

##### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (49) T: language of mankind man ne demek arkadaşlar  
S: adam  
T: yani erkek adam böyle düşünüyoruz ama aslında yanlış man genel olarak hani insan anlamında da kullanılıyo
- (50) T: what are the things that we eat at a birthday party?  
S: Pasta  
T: pasta is Turkish and it is the wrong word we use birthday cake please be careful

##### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (51) T: what is the interview do you remember  
S: görüşme yapmak  
T: röportaj is in newspapers but this is not on the newspaper so this is mülakat

- (52) We have a word here like colleagues normally students get confused when they heard this and they say kolej or something but the meaning is totally different it means the people we worked with or in the same job

#### 4.1.2.2.3. Discourse function 3: Rephrasing

The second most used discourse function was *rephrasing* at both levels of classrooms by the four EFL instructors. *Rephrasing* was used by instructors of A2 classrooms with a 23.02% frequency rate. On the other hand, it is used with a 31.38% frequency rate by instructors of B1 proficiency level classrooms. Instructors rephrased their sentences to make their statements clearer in A2 (see examples 53- 55) and B1 classrooms (see examples 57- 58). Besides, instructors at B1 level classrooms used *rephrasing* when they could not receive expected answers from their students (see example 59). Apart from these, instructors at both levels of classrooms used *rephrasing* to reformulate students' contributions and to provide the class with a correct model of the use of the target language without interrupting the flow of the lesson (see examples 56 and 60).

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (53- 60) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 12

##### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (53) some of the activities that I assign from the book I mean actually most of the practices from the book
- (54) companies he has worked first of all he talked about the companies I mean organizations
- (55) okay so let me show you the end of the book okay where actually what I mean to say is we kind of revise everything in the unit
- (56) S: They use it to cut the trees and do small pieces  
T: Very good, they use it to cut the woods and make small pieces of tools

#### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (57) S: okay they can be both of them  
 T: for sure but being creative is not always introverted, yes but actually film directors what I mean is they don't really work on the creative part...
- (58) tell me the first one and just think about this is the subject pronoun or object pronoun do you understand  
 S: I don't understand hocam  
 T: I mean you need an object pronoun here
- (59) T: and suddenly he had this idea of traveling around the world and when did he start his journey  
 S: argentina  
 T: no I mean when the time
- (60) S: I love dangerous things but not in a short time extreme sport are not for me  
 T: hihi extreme sports are not your cup of tea doing other experiences is good for you rather than doing extreme sports okay good

#### 4.1.2.3. MDM 3: Epistemology markers

**Table 12.** The Frequency Analysis of Epistemology Markers and Their Discourse Functions at Both Levels

| <i>Epistemology</i><br><i>Markers</i> | A2   |            | B1   |            |
|---------------------------------------|------|------------|------|------------|
|                                       | Case | Percentage | Case | Percentage |
| Shields                               | 87   | 53.70%     | 76   | 33.62%     |
| Emphatics                             | 37   | 22.83%     | 124  | 54.86%     |
| Sensory                               | 38   | 23.45%     | 26   | 11.50%     |
| Experience                            |      |            |      |            |
| <b>Total</b>                          | 162  | 100%       | 226  | 100%       |

#### 4.1.2.3.1. Discourse function 1: Shields

The first discourse function of the *epistemology markers* category is *shields*. There were *shields* with a 53.70% frequency rate in the talks of instructors from A2 level classrooms. On the other hand, *shields* occurred in the B1 level classroom with a 33.62% frequency rate. Table 12 shows that instructors from A2 level classrooms used *shields* more than their counterparts from B1 level classrooms. Instructors at both levels of classrooms used *shields* with the help of modal verbs to create more opportunities for their students to boost their language output by making their talk more negotiable when they were giving feedback (see examples 61- 67). Apart from this, instructors of B1 level classrooms used *shields* to criticize their students' errors with quite moderate statements (see example 68).

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (61- 68) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 13

##### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (61) S: and the Vatican  
T: ya maybe but it's cold seems like a country but a city at the same time I am not
- (62) S: by boat or by ship  
T: on foot maybe by bus do you think he took the bus ya maybe he took the bus
- (63) these two parts I remember we were together but this one I am not sure have you done this present simple and present continuous forms
- (64) S: how do you study what is your approach  
T: but we can also say how are you studying study is possible in present simple but it depends on the context

##### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (65) S: because I think there must learn to handwrite so it's necessary

T: yes children might not have the necessary equipment like having a laptop so they might improve their handwriting, okay okay I guess right they might need it

(66) T: what is the opposite of confident

S: shy shy maybe

T: shy could be shy or insecure do you know insecure can be in an antonym okay  
what about five

(67) just write your answers what were you doing at seven am this morning hihı  
sleeping hihı maybe if you were doing something else you could write that

(68) T: okay this is enough for a what about b

S: Belgium

T: Probably not because Bolivia Belarus is another one Barbeidos could be

#### 4.1.2.3.2. Discourse function 2: Emphatics

To show evidence to the students, *emphatics* were used by the instructors from A2 level classrooms with a 22.83% frequency rate. Table 12 shows that instructors from B1 classrooms used *emphatics* more in their classrooms with a 54.86% frequency rate than their counterparts in A2 level classrooms. Instructors at both levels used *emphatics* for giving the reasons for the appropriate use of grammar by explaining the rules of the target grammar topic as evidence (see examples 69- 71 and 73- 75). However, there is one difference in the use of *emphatics* in the instructors' talk from A2 level classrooms. They also used *emphatics* to gather students' attention to a particular area in the lesson (see example 72). While instructors from the A2 level used *emphatics* generally in Turkish, instructors of B1 level classrooms used *emphatics* in L2 and they additionally used them when they showed confirmation to the students' answers (see example 76).

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (69-76) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 14

##### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (69) so can you tell me the meaning of it did you understand actually we don't have a specific word for it but you should understand what it is
- (70) so I stress these ones right English teacher aslında mantığı tam olarak bu eğer bir kelimeyi anlamadıysak mutkaka o kelimeyi de stresli bir şekilde söylemelisiniz
- (71) it is not about science it is about prediction yes definitely it is not about science it is about a prediction I am confused I think it is related to education in primary school
- (72) türkçede dümdüz konuşuyoruz değil mi yani nasıl dümdüz hiçbir vurgumuz yok ingilizcede kesinlikle vurgular çok önemlidir bu tabi sonraki aşama

##### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (73) this is usually with projects and ee we also have exams of course examination is the noun form or full form by the way
- (74) here it explains how it is different British and American English like have got or do have they have different forms but both are correct of course
- (75) now let's talk more about the rules a conditional sentence of course describes a condition and a result if is the conditional şartı burda veriyoruz
- (76) S: they have to be creative and think alone  
T: excitely creative people songwriters are usually introverts and finally journalists

#### 4.1.2.3.3. Discourse function 3: Sensory experience

*Sensory experience* is another discourse function frequently observed at both level classrooms' instructors' talks. Both data showed that instructors used sentences starting with "You see..." by pointing to the evidence on their computer screen for students to follow the lesson content easily in the online education process. The frequency rate of this discourse function was 23.45% in the

talks of instructors from A2 level classrooms, which is higher than instructors' use of this discourse function in B1 level classrooms with a rate of 11.50%.

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (77- 84) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 15

##### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (77) you don't know because it is not the beginning of the sentence you see it is written with small letters
- (78) I will send it to you first okay so you see student a and student b in the ya document and you are going to see some pictures in the document as well
- (79) clear I think so let's group you by using the breakout rules so who can see the channels here can you see the channels
- (80) thank you yes okay so and we are gonna read a text here you can see the text but before we read let's preview the text

##### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (81) so as you see everybody and someone are our indefinite pronouns there are two example of course but just the two examples everybody and someone so let's look at the rules here
- (82) as you see after when we need to use past simple the second form of verbs but in when and while we could use past continuous
- (83) as you see this is about foods so did you understand the meaning of potlach did you all understand the meaning
- (84) so who can see the channels here can you see the channels in group one or group two can you raise your hand if you can see the channels because I am going to group you according to that

#### 4.1.2.4. MDM 4: Attitude Markers

**Table 13.** The Frequency Analysis of Attitude Markers and Their Discourse Functions at Both Levels

| <i>Attitude Markers</i>              | <b>A2</b>   |                   | <b>B1</b>   |                   |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|
|                                      | <b>Case</b> | <b>Percentage</b> | <b>Case</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
| Attitudes Toward Ideational Material | 249         | 100%              | 142         | 100%              |
| <b>Total</b>                         | 249         | 100%              | 142         | 100%              |

##### 4.1.2.4.1. Discourse function 1: Attitudes toward ideational material

This function was used in A2 classrooms just for praising students' outputs (see examples 86- 89). On the other hand, in B1 classrooms, instructors showed attitudes toward both students' outputs (see examples 90- 91) and toward the activities presented in the book as well (see examples 92- 93). Instructors' attitudes toward activities carried out in the B1 classrooms were generally used to mention the difficulty level of the activities to the students and to show the importance of the activities.

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (85-92) with the related MDMs underlined.

Excerpt 16

Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

(85) S: japan

T: Japan japan güzel it is in japan good thank you

(86) S: imm he is a basketball player

T: he plays nineteen year but is always perfect okay very good thank you

(87) S: well I work early in the morning

T: wonderful thank you you are lucky if you have sentences like this

- (88) S: how do you study what is your approach  
T: very good thank you but we can also say how are you studying study

#### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (89) T: what is collocation do you remember we use it a lot by the way  
S: word partner  
T: aha yes very good definition
- (90) S: doctor I can be  
T: okay thank you for taking this role and I really appreciate it
- (91) so if we are talking about her object pronoun it's at the end of the sentence after the verb this is not after the verb but at the end of the sentence so guys please be careful with these exercises I am repeating again here this is really hard we talked about the first one
- (92) here the meaning of it is can the ability to do something but you cannot see will at the first part near if it is a little bit confusing

#### 4.1.2.5. MDM 5: Commentary

**Table 14.** The Frequency Analysis of Commentaries and Their Discourse Functions at Both Levels

| <i>Commentary</i>                    | <b>A2</b>   |                   | <b>B1</b>   |                   |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|
|                                      | <b>Case</b> | <b>Percentage</b> | <b>Case</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
| Comment on listeners' probable moods | 53          | 100%              | 14          | 100%              |
| <b>Total</b>                         | 53          | 100%              | 14          | 100%              |

##### 4.1.2.5.1. Discourse function 1: Comment on listeners' probable moods

The least preferred discourse function in the overall data was *commentaries* by the four EFL instructors. There was a big difference in the number of occurrences of *commentaries* at both levels. Instructors from both proficiency level classrooms used commentaries to guess students' background knowledge about the lesson content (see examples 93- 95) and to guess their students'

opinions about the lesson content (see example 96). Similar to the pedagogical aim in the instructors' talks of A2 classrooms, instructors of B1 classrooms used commentaries to guess students' background knowledge about the lesson content (see examples 97- 99) and guess students' probable moods (see example 100).

Examples taken from our database can be seen below (93-100) with the related MDMs underlined.

#### Excerpt 18

##### Instructors' Talks in A2 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (93) so these are applications for a talent competition for example sports competition and you know what talent means in unit seven so just guys quickly and tell me the answer
- (94) we are gonna look at the differences between past continuous and past simple so we use all these aa all these two you know tenses about the past and we usually use them together they are like sisters and brothers
- (95) we are going to listen to some sentences about you know past continuous usually and what I want from you aa just try to notice how we pronounce was and were okay
- (96) they decide by looking at their handwriting that's interesting for you I guess right you know they get a lot of information by looking at their handwriting

##### Instructors' Talks in B1 Proficiency Level Classrooms

- (97) it's so you see a picture as you know aa at the beginning of the unit we describe a picture and we try to describe it so can you describe this picture
- (98) we already know something about simple past right we talked about positive and negative sentences know the rules are similar just check the rules
- (99) Chinese people are very popular with money as you know so Chinese people bought and sold things using these banknotes so this is the money, of course, they use it to buy something
- (100) old new their opposites too an important it is totally different you know the meaning useful so you don't want to talk about these

## 4.2. Discussion

The present study focuses on the MDM use of four EFL instructors in A2 and B1 level classrooms in private and state university settings. The results of the analysis demonstrate important findings that shed light on the use of MDMs and their functions and roles in online lessons. This study differs from most of the studies in the present literature. There have been some studies related to MDMs focusing on the differences among lecture types in terms of the use of MDMs (Lee & Subtirelu, 2015; Zare & Tavakoli, 2017; Zhang & Shen, 2021), students' use of MDMs (Pasaribu, 2017; Wei-Yan, 2014) and the facilitative role of MDMs in teacher talk (Bernard & Mecho, 2017; Msimanga & Erduran, 2018; Perez & Macia, 2014; Soysal, 2021; Tang, 2017). As for the Turkish context, the topics under investigation have been the use of MDMs in doctoral dissertations and master theses (Akbaş, 2014; Can & Yuvayapan, 2018; Can & Cangır, 2019; Duruk, 2017) or in students' writings (Algı, 2012; Kurudayıoğlu & Çimen, 2020; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018), the cross-cultural differences in the use of MDMs (Martı, 2015; Özdemir & Longo, 2014), the comparison of the fields in terms of MDM use (Ekoç, 2020; Dağ Tarcan, 2017), the effect of metadiscourse instruction on students' writing performance (Kaya, 2019; Sancak, 2019), and the use of MDMs in national journals (Işık-Taş, 2018). Although many studies have been conducted on the use of MDMs in Turkey, there has been no study about the use of MDMs in online EFL teachers' talks. To fill this gap, the present study investigates the general distribution of MDMs in EFL instructors' talks in A2 and B1 classrooms and their discourse functions. The findings are derived from the frequency and discourse function analysis of the use of MDMs in instructors' talks according to Vande Kopple's (2012) taxonomy. Discussion of the findings in reference to the research questions is presented in this chapter.

#### 4.2.1. What is the general distribution of EFL instructors' metadiscourse marker use?

The in-depth analysis of the whole data including 30 lesson hours of A2 and B1 level online classrooms shows that *text connectives* are the most frequently used MDMs in the overall data. Regardless of different taxonomies, other studies investigating the spoken data also shows that text connectives that function to make connections between the parts of a text and sustain discourse organization are the most used MDM among the other MDMs (e.g., Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2022; Pasaribu, 2017; Tang, 2017; Zare & Tavakoli, 2017). This study also supports this finding and similarly it is consistent with the result of the research conducted by Zhang and Shen (2021) mentioning the high frequency in the use of MDMs in lecturers' talks that guide sequencing the activities and shifting topics in practical course contents such as online courses (e.g., MOOCs). As Thompson (2003) indicates, when listening to lengthy and complex monologues as can be seen in lectures, listeners should create a sequential and hierarchical representation of the input in their minds. Listeners should also create causal relationships between the presented ideas. Therefore, the high use of text connectives that facilitates the organization of the spoken and written texts are observed most among the other MDMs in the present study.

Another finding of this study is the high frequency of *attitude markers* (following *text connectives*) in the overall data. Since classroom instruction includes teachers' transmitting their affective position toward the presented information, this finding is not surprising, and it correlates with Tang's (2017) results in that science teachers also prefer to use *attitude markers* when they explicitly indicate the difficulty of the propositional content being discussed (e.g., If not, then we are going to the *difficult* part). However, Tang (2017) also indicates that in science classrooms, *attitude markers* showing *affect* (e.g., Looks pretty cool hah?) are not common because of the nature of science classrooms being far from personal judgment. Conversely, the *attitude markers* in the EFL instructors' talk include mostly instructors' personal judgments about students' answers and lesson materials. Therefore, it can be said that pedagogic content and context affect the teachers'

use of MDMs substantially (Lee & Subtrellu, 2015). Similarly, in a cross-disciplinary study, Hyland and Tse (2004) mention that soft knowledge disciplines (e.g., applied linguistics and social sciences) include more MDMs showing attitudes than hard knowledge disciplines such as computer science and physics because of teachers' tendency to show their personal interpretation in the former disciplines. In other words, it is important to note that the amount of attitude markers used by lecturers depends heavily on the subject matter being taught. On the other hand, a study conducted by Lee and Subtrellu (2015) found that *attitude markers* were the least used MDM in their corpora including English for Academic Purposes (EAP) lessons and university lectures, which contradicts the finding of the present study. The reason for this low frequency of *attitude markers* in that are attributed to the instructors' use of attitude markers through non-verbal signals in their lessons.

*Epistemology Markers* are the instructors' third most frequently used MDMs in the overall data. The data shows that *shields* include a high frequency of modals such as *may*, *might*, and *could*, which are common in the study investigating university lectures conducted by Lee and Subtrellu, (2015). As knowledge is positioned and constructed in a social environment among the members of a society (Jordan & Henderson, 1995; Lave & Wenger, 1991) likewise, teachers and students can co-construct knowledge in interactions that take place in classrooms (Cheng, 2009; Edward & Mercer, 1989; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Hicks, 1995; Lemke, 1990). Therefore, the high use of *epistemology markers* in language classrooms opens the gates for effective interaction as mentioned in metadiscourse studies (e.g., Hyland, 2009; Li, 2016). Since the data are obtained from an online education context, instructors often point to their computer screens while they are delivering the classroom content to show evidence which is regarded as the main role of *epistemology markers*. In other words, the high use of *epistemology markers* in the overall data might be related to the features of online classrooms which generally necessitates scaffolding for students to follow the instructions from their computer screen. Another possibility of the high frequency in the use of *epistemology markers* in the data might be because of grammar teaching parts of the lesson, which require instructors to show the grammar rules as evidence to their students.

*Code Glosses* are the fourth MDMs after *epistemology markers* in the overall data used by the instructors with an 8.46% frequency rate, which gives a similar result in terms of the frequency in the data of the study conducted by Pasaribu (2017) (e.g., 8.6%) about the role of gender as a variable in the use of MDMs by the students. The most frequently used MDMs that are regarded as *code glosses* at both levels of classrooms are *I mean, such as, like, this means/ that means*, and they can commonly be seen in other spoken discourse studies as well (e.g., Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2022; Zhang & Shen, 2021). As the feature of language classrooms often necessitates explaining and defining the content of the target language, the occurrence of *code glosses* in the instructors' talks at both classroom levels is not adequate. The reason might be the online education context, which depends more on teachers' monologues and doesn't provide an area for students to ask for clarification.

The analyzed data shows that *commentaries* are the least frequent MDMs used in the data. The reason for the low frequency in the use of *commentaries* might be related to the online education context, which does not show the facial expressions and possible moods of students. Another reason might be because the lessons are conducted in the online education context, the instructors may not know their students' background knowledge and may not easily predict their points of view towards the lesson content.

#### **4.2.2. Are there any differences between metadiscourse marker use of EFL instructors in A2 and B1 level classrooms from the perspective of frequency and function?**

As the findings demonstrate, the use of *text connectives* in both level instructors' talks has a similar frequency with 1108 cases (64.75%) at the A2 level and 1029 cases (66.47%) at B1 level classrooms. The findings of the study also show the frequent use of *and*, *but*, *so* in the present data contributing the coherence of the lessons. This finding is also observed in the results of the other studies investigating instructors' talk in lectures (Lee, & Subtirelu 2015; Zhang & Shen, 2021; Zhang & Lo, 2021). *Forthcomings* are highly used by instructors of both levels of classrooms with similar frequency rates and purposes. These show progressive strategies that guide students to follow the lesson content and highlight the ongoing activity for students to draw their attention to the lesson by using such phrases as "I will move on with...", "You are going to talk about..." or words such as *next* and *after*. These findings are consistent with the results of Tang's (2017) study that mention the important use of *forthcomings* for preparing students for the later discussion and helping the organization of the lesson content. The second function of text connectives is *sequencers*. While instructors of A2 level classrooms use them to enumerate the questions that are asked to the students, instructors of B1 level classrooms use them to outline the task procedures that the students would complete. This is probably because instructors of B1 level classrooms give long instructions and use more sequencing items in their instructions. In other words, this might be because of students' exposure to more complex language and longer instructions when their proficiency in the target language increases (Chaudron, 1988; Henzl, 1973; Gadir Yousif, 1996). Similarly, as Owen (1996) mentions, especially students with high competency in L2, a teacher can raise the amount of teacher talk and use complicated lexical content for their learners. One further use of *sequencers* is identified in the data of instructors' talks in A2 classrooms. A2 level instructors used *sequencers* for choosing students' turns, which is not identified in the B1 level classrooms' instructors' talks with their students. Therefore, instructors of A2 proficiency level classrooms use more *sequencers* than their B1 counterparts. This

might be explained by several reasons such as the power relations of participants in the social context (Grimshaw, 1990), the planned nature of the online lessons (Zhang, 2021), or the dominant role of teacher talk in EFL classrooms who choose the participants' turn and when they will participate (Walsh, 2002). The findings also show that the use of *topicalizers* in instructors' talks at both proficiency levels of classrooms has similar frequency rates. *Topicalizers* are mostly used to draw students' attention to a starter point of a section and to mention a change in the topic of discussion, which correlates with other studies that used MDMs to draw students' attention to a particular lesson content (Msimanga & Erduran 2018, Tang, 2017). As observed in Soysal (2021), instructors at both levels use *topicalizers* directly or indirectly with the phrases such as *let's look, look, let's talk* to guide the students' cognitive engagement with the lesson content. The MDMs showing *logical and temporal relationships* are often used in Turkish by the instructors in A2 proficiency level classrooms. Since the instructors speak English more with more proficient students, instructors of A2 level classrooms generally use intra-sentential code-switching while explaining grammar rules, which shows instructors' tendency to switch to L1 because of its effective role in lower proficiency level classrooms (Cook, 2001). On the other hand, instructors of B1 level classrooms often used these MDMs to explain grammar topics in English and to sustain the general organization of their instructions. In addition, they give longer instructions to their students and the use of conjunctions in their utterances is more frequent than that of instructors' talks in A2 level classrooms because of their students' high proficiency in English. Similarly, the reason why instructors of A2 level classrooms use fewer MDMs showing the *logical and temporal relationships* in their statements might be related to their preference to lower the degree of subordination in their utterances with less proficient students (Chaudron, 1988). Another noteworthy difference between instructors' talks in A2 and B1 level classrooms is the use of *reminders*, which are used more by instructors of A2 level classrooms than in B1 level classrooms. Since A2 level students may still be viewed as being in the process of learning, teachers may find it necessary to remind the academic tasks and grammatical topics covered in the previous lessons. This result also correlates with Msimanga and Erduran (2018), which supports the idea that using MDMs might help students to remember

information from previous lessons. Similarly, Chaudron (1983) stated that less proficient students benefit most from varied topic reinstatements, recognition, and recall. Therefore, instructors of A2 level classrooms use more *reminders*. It is important to mention that *reminders* are interestingly the least preferred MDMs by instructors of both proficiency level classrooms in the current study, and they are mostly used to remind homework which is different in terms of their purpose (for reminding earlier discussed topics) in another study (Tang, 2017). That difference might be because the lectures in the present study are held online, and the nature of online lessons requires individual assignments for students to complete in order to pass the course. Therefore, instructors often remind the previously assigned homework to their students. It appears that instructors do not feel a requirement to mention the other parts of the lesson or students' prior knowledge very frequently. This might be because of the linear shape of the classroom instructions, which makes *reminders* unrequired (Lee & Subtirelu, 2015), or because of the nature of online lessons, which causes unfamiliarity between teachers and students and teachers' difficulty in predicting students' prior knowledge about the lesson content.

As mentioned earlier, following *text connectives*, *attitude markers* occur in both level instructors' talks with a high-frequency rate, which is not surprising because of the interactive nature of L2 classrooms. When the discourse functions of *attitude markers* are observed, it is seen that the instructors of A2 level use *attitude markers* showing attitudes toward students' outputs more than their B1 counterparts, which might be because of the teachers' attempt to direct praise to less proficient students' performance (Brookover et al., 1978; Kleinfeld, 1975; Weinstein, 1976). However, the MDMs showing attitudes toward activity occur in B1 level instructors' talks more than their A2 counterparts. These markers are generally used to show the importance of the activities (see examples 92- 93). This is probably because L2 instructors usually focus on teaching the language rather than the evaluation of the activity in less proficient classrooms. The observation of the data shows that instructors at both levels of classrooms use *attitude markers* to praise students' answers by showing explicit acceptance (e.g., good, excellent) in the feedback session of

the IRF pattern. This is probably because of the genuine nature of EFL classrooms which strongly depend on the interaction and evaluation of the students' answers in L2.

While the use of *attitude markers* is high in terms of frequency in A2 level classrooms, *epistemology markers* are observed with high frequency in B1 level classrooms, which can be regarded as the most crucial difference in the use of MDMs between both level classrooms. The instructors of A2 classrooms' willingness to use praise in less proficient classrooms makes attitude markers more frequent in the data obtained from A2 classrooms. On the other hand, because the topics under discussion are more rule-governed and grammar-focused in more proficient classrooms, the high use of epistemology markers (especially evidentials) is observed in B1 level classrooms.

The analysis of the *epistemology markers* shows that there is a difference in the frequency of the use of *shields* in the talks of instructors in A2 and B1 proficiency level classrooms. With the help of shields, instructors from both levels of classrooms create more opportunities for their students to boost their language output by making their talk more negotiable when they are giving feedback. Apart from this, instructors of B1 level classrooms use *shields* to criticize their students' errors with quite moderate statements including some modal verbs that are regarded as *shields* by Vande Kopple (2012). It is important to use *shields* in less proficient students because as Daşkın (2015) and Walsh (2012) indicated, teachers should shape learner contributions rather than easily accepting them. While *shields* and *sensory experiences* are used more by instructors of A2 classrooms, *emphatics* are used more by instructors of B1 classrooms. This might be because less proficient students necessitate more scaffolding from their teachers and teacher generally demonstrate the target topic by pointing to the computer screen for students to follow their instructions with ease. This result correlates with Zhang and Shen (2021) which supports the idea that certain MDMs help teachers draw attention to illustrative materials in an online education context. On the other hand, the data analysis of both proficiency level classrooms shows that the topics covered in the A2 proficiency level classrooms generally do not focus on grammar unlike the topics covered in B1

classrooms. Therefore, *emphatics* showing the evidence are used more by the instructors of B1 proficiency level classrooms.

The general discourse function of the *code glosses* at both levels of classrooms is to define and express “additional information by rephrasing, explaining or elaborating what has been said” (Hyland, 2005: 52). The discourse function analysis of *code glosses* shows that there is no big difference in the use of *definitions and explanations*, *signaling the problem with the ordinary interpretation of words* and *rephrasing* between A2 and B1 proficiency level classrooms’ instructors’ talks. However, *definitions and explanations* of the target vocabulary are provided in L1 by the instructors of A2 proficiency level classrooms. This might be because less proficient students’ instructors may call upon L1 in their talk more while explaining or defining the content than they use L1 with more proficient students. While instructors of A2 level classrooms use *definitions and explanations* more in their classrooms, instructors of B1 level classrooms *signal the problem with the ordinary interpretations of words* more than their A2 counterparts. Besides, instructors at both levels of classrooms use *rephrasing* to reformulate students’ contributions and provide the class with a correct model of the use of the target language without interrupting the flow of the lesson. As Cullen (2002) mentions, teachers’ reformulations provide that the content of a student’s contribution is audible and available to the whole class and the teacher converts the students’ outputs into comprehensible input for the whole class. Because the analyzed data comes from an online education context, the answers of the students should be audible to all the other students, and teachers’ *rephrasing* has a crucial role in this context. The discourse function which is *signaling strict or the technical interpretation of words* mentioned by Vande Kopple (2012) is not detected in the functional analysis of the MDMs in instructors’ talks at both proficiency levels of classrooms. Dijk (1997) mentions that the characteristics of the context affect discourse and reshape the discourse characteristics. Thus, the expected result is not seeing this discourse function in ELT classrooms.

*Commentaries* are the least preferred MDMs by the instructors of both proficiency level classrooms. Instructors of A2 classrooms prefer to comment on their students’ probable

moods more than the instructors of B1 classrooms. However, commentaries carry the same pedagogical aim in the instructors' talks of both proficiency level classrooms. Instructors use commentaries to guess students' background knowledge and to guess their students' opinions about the lesson content as well. Commentaries are the least preferred MDMs in the overall data and they are used more in A2 classrooms. The high frequency in the use of commentaries in A2 classrooms might be because of instructors' willingness to summarize what their students covered as vocabulary and grammar topics to encourage them for the target future content. Besides, less proficient students might need to know the difficulty level of the activity or how they would feel when doing it. Therefore, instructors of A2 classrooms use *commentaries* to show the difficulty level of the activities or how their students would feel when they are doing the activity provided by their instructors. Apart from this, another discourse function of commentaries named as *recommend a mode of reading* are not detected in the talks of instructors from both proficiency level classrooms.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSION

The main aim of the present study is to identify the types, frequencies, and discourse functions of MDMs in four Turkish EFL instructors' talks from A2 and B1 proficiency level classrooms based on the taxonomy of Vande Kopple (2012).

To this end, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. What is the general distribution of EFL instructors' metadiscourse marker use?
2. Are there any differences between metadiscourse marker use of EFL instructors in A2 and B1 level classrooms from the perspective of frequency and function?

#### 5.1. Summary of the Study

The main aim of this study is to identify the types, frequencies, and discourse functions of the use of MDMs by the Turkish EFL instructors in their A2 and B1 proficiency level online classrooms. In order to classify MDMs used by instructors, Vande Kopple's (2012) metadiscourse classification was used. In addition to this, transcribed talks with the help of the program *Transana* were converted into the qualitative and quantitative analysis program MAXQDA to reach reliable results. The analyzed results showed that the variety and the range of MDMs in the Turkish EFL instructors' talks have several discourse functions at both proficiency levels in online classrooms.

The analysis of the general text statistics obtained from the Turkish EFL instructors' talks at both proficiency level classrooms showed that *text connectives* constitute more than

half of all MDMs used in A2 and B1 proficiency level classrooms with a 65.57% frequency rate. The second highly used MDM was *attitude markers* with an 11.99% frequency rate. *Epistemology markers* were the third most highly used MDM (11.90%) and *code glosses* occurred with an 8.46% frequency rate in the overall data by the Turkish EFL instructors. The least preferred MDM in the data was *commentary* occurring the data with a 2.05% frequency rate. No matter whether the text is written or spoken, the review of the current literature showed that mostly used textual MDM was *text connectives*. Therefore, this study correlates with other studies in terms of the frequencies of some MDMs used by the instructors in both proficiency level classrooms (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2022; Lee & Subtrellu, 2016; Tang, 2017).

The frequency and the discourse function analysis showed that all the discourse functions of *text connectives* were observed in the talks of instructors in A2 and B1 proficiency level classrooms. It was found that while instructors used *sequencers*, and *reminders* more with the less proficient students, they may prefer to use discourse function of *logical and temporal relationships*, *forthcomings*, and *topicalizers* with more proficient students in the online classroom context. There were some differences and similarities in the pedagogical goal of instructors in terms of the use of MDMs' discourse functions between A2 and B1 level classrooms. For instance, instructors of both proficiency level classrooms used *forthcomings* to highlight ongoing activity at both level classrooms. Similarly, instructors of both proficiency levels of classrooms used *topicalizers* to draw their students' attention to particular content and to mention a change in the topic of the discussion. However, there were some differences in the other discourse functions of *text connectives* between A2 and B1 proficiency level classrooms. For instance, *sequencers* were used to mention the number of the questions in activities that were supposed to be carried out by the students in A2 level classrooms, but they were used to outline and sequence task procedures, summarize, and for teaching grammatical forms in B1 proficiency level classrooms. The discourse function of MDMs helping to create *logical and temporal relationships* in the lesson was used in Turkish in A2 proficiency level classrooms and was used in L2 in B1 proficiency level classrooms. *Reminders* were used

to recall the previous topics covered by the instructors in A2 proficiency level classrooms and to remind previously assigned homework or task in B1 proficiency level classrooms and it was the least preferred discourse function by the EFL instructors of both levels of classrooms.

*Attitude markers* were highly used MDM after *text connectives* in the overall data. Instructors of A2 proficiency level classrooms used these markers to praise their students. On the other hand, instructors of B1 proficiency classrooms showed attitudes toward the materials presented in the classrooms. In other words, instructors preferred to use praise more in less proficient classrooms. Apart from this, instructors mention the importance of the activities to gather students' attention to a particular content in the lesson or mention the difficulty level of the activities by using *attitude markers* with more proficient classrooms.

It was found that *epistemology markers* were the third most used MDM in the overall data. While *shields* were used more with modal verbs in A2 proficiency level classrooms, the instructors used *emphatics* more in B1 classrooms. EFL instructors used *shields* to make their talk more negotiable and to decrease the power distance in the classroom for students to make them provide output. In B1 proficiency level classrooms, instructors preferred to criticize students' outputs with quite moderate statements with the help of *shields*. The data showed that B1 classrooms focused more on grammar and the discourse function of *emphatics* helps instructors to provide grammar rules as evidence in their classrooms. Apart from this, because of the data obtained from the online education context, instructors of both proficiency levels of classrooms used the *sensory experience* to point the computer screen for students to follow the flow of the lesson with ease.

Code glosses occur with an 8.46% frequency rate in the overall data. The discourse function *definition and explanations* were used more in A2 proficiency level classrooms than in B1 proficiency level classrooms. In A2 level classrooms, instructors preferred to define and explain concepts in Turkish and they did intra-sentential code-switching. In both proficiency levels of classrooms, *code glosses* were also used to correct the wrong interpretation of the target vocabulary. In A2 proficiency level classrooms, instructors

rephrased their words to make their talk more understandable. In B1 proficiency level classrooms, instructors used MDMs for rephrasing their sentences when they don't receive expected answers from their students. It was observed that *code glosses* were used by the instructors to become more audible and to boost their students' participation in their lessons.

*Commentaries* were the least preferred MDMs in both proficiency levels of classrooms and constitutes 2.05% of the overall MDMs used in the data. *Commentaries* were used to *comment on students' probable moods* by the instructors. It was found that the reason for the low frequency in the use of these markers was because of the nature of the online education context which hinders the possibility of seeing students' facial expressions, therefore, making it less possible for instructors to comment on students' probable moods. In addition, due to the COVID-19 lockdown, students and instructors met on the online platform and did not have information about the students' L2 background, making it less possible to comment on students' feelings in online education context. The analysis of the data showed that the use of MDMs and their discourse functions vary according to the pedagogical goal that EFL instructors prefer by depending on the proficiency level of their students.

## **5.2. Pedagogical Implications**

The analysis of the data and the findings of this research have some pedagogical implications for EFL instructors and material developers.

Metadiscourse is an important discursive source, and it is used frequently in speaking and writing. Teachers use it often during classroom discourse to make their talk negotiable and to construct relationships with their students. Besides, with the help of the use of metadiscursive features, teachers maintain the flow of classroom talk (Belton & Scott, 1998). Therefore, teachers should use a range of metadiscourse features to make their

target material organized, comprehensible, and relatable rather than just using traditional IRF dialogues.

As Can and Cangır (2019) mentioned, there is a similarity between the use of MDMs in students' paragraphs and teaching materials. Therefore, in order to improve the appropriate use of MDMs in both teachers' and students' talks, materials and activities applied in foreign language classrooms should focus on increasing awareness of metadiscursive features. In other words, MDM instruction should be included in the teaching materials implicitly and explicitly. Besides, it is necessary to teachers to be aware of MDMs' teaching strategies and apply them in their talks. Awareness-raising activities about the MDMs that learners deal with may help them to internalize the language devices. Therefore, it can be recommended for EFL instructors to be involved in professional development programs to become skilled users of proper MDMs with different discourse functions and pedagogical purposes evidently demonstrated in the present study.

Another issue that should be emphasized is the variation of teacher talk depending on students' proficiency levels. Effective interaction in the classroom means teachers must anticipate the necessities of their students for them both to participate in the dialogue and to follow an exposition. As Cullen (2002) mentioned, instructions of teachers should be assessed as being more or less communicative due to how apparently they are followed and understood by their students, whether they are efficient and whether the teacher opens the gates for students to seek clarification and 'negotiate meaning'. Therefore, especially in an online education context, teachers should try to be aware of their students' exact proficiency levels and deliver the content by applying the correct adjustments in their language and deploying appropriate metadiscursive features in their talk.

### **5.3. Recommendations for Further Research**

Since the present study includes 30 lesson hours obtained from only four Turkish EFL instructors' talks, a more comprehensive study may be conducted with a large sample of data. Besides, because this study analyzes MDMs in an online education context, another comprehensive study might be conducted which analyzes the use of MDMs by EFL instructors in face-to-face classrooms. Furthermore, the use of MDMs may be analyzed depending on the gender of the participants in order to find out whether there are differences in the preference of these markers between the two genders. Since there have been limited MDM studies investigating spoken data, another research might be conducted on whether the use of MDMs in teaching materials or teacher talk effect students' preference for those markers. The present study focused on instructors' talks at two different proficiency levels of classrooms; however, a study including students from each proficiency level of classrooms might be conducted.

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## **APPENDICES**

### **Appendix 1. Ethics Committee Approval Form**



## Appendix 2. Aydınlatılmış Onam Formu

*Unpacking Teacher Talk: The Use of Metadiscourse Markers in Online EFL Classrooms (İngilizcenin Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretildiği Çevrimiçi Sınıflarda Öğretmenlerin Üstsöylem Belirleyicisi Kullanımı)*” adlı çalışma, Covid-19 pandemisi ile birlikte deneyimlenen uzaktan eğitim sürecinde Türkiye’de İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğreten öğretim görevlilerinin çevrimiçi derslerinde kullandıkları üstsöylem belirleyicilerinin türlerine, işlevlerine ve sıklıklarına göre analiz edilmesi amaçlanmıştır. Çalışmanın Mart 2021- Mayıs 2021 tarihleri arasında yapılması planlanmaktadır. Karma desende planlanmış bu betimsel çalışmada Türkiye’de farklı devlet üniversitelerinde görev yapan öğretim görevlilerine ulaşılması hedeflenmiştir.

Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmanın amacına ulaşması için sizden beklenen, dönem içinde gerçekleştirmiş olduğunuz çevrimiçi dersleri, kimsenin baskısı veya telkini altında olmadan araştırmacı ile paylaşmanızdır. Bu formu okuyup onaylamanız, araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz anlamına gelecektir. Ancak, çalışmaya katılmama veya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir anda çalışmayı bırakma hakkına da sahipsiniz.

Bu çalışmadan elde edilecek bilgiler tamamen araştırma amacı ile kullanılacak olup kişisel bilgileriniz gizli tutulacaktır; ancak verileriniz yayın amacı ile kullanılabilir. Eğer araştırmanın amacı ile ilgili verilen bu bilgiler dışında şimdi veya sonra daha fazla bilgiye ihtiyaç duyarsanız araştırmacıya şimdi sorabilir, e-posta [cansel.kvrak@gmail.com] veya telefon numaramdan [05343225497] ulaşabilirsiniz.

“Aydınlatılmış Onam Formu”ndaki tüm açıklamaları okudum. Bana, konusu ve amacı belirtilen araştırma ile ilgili yazılı ve sözlü açıklama, aşağıda adı belirtilen kişi tarafından yapıldı. Araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katıldığımı, istediğim zaman gerekçeli veya gerekçesiz olarak araştırmadan ayrılabileceğimi ve kendi isteğime bakılmaksızın araştırmacı tarafından araştırma dışı bırakılabileceğimi biliyorum. Söz konusu araştırmaya, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın kendi rızamla *katılmayı kabul ediyorum.*”

## ÖZGEÇMİŞ

### KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

Adı Soyadı: Cansel Kıvrak

Uyruğu: T.C.

### EĞİTİM

| Derece                | Kurum                                                                              | Mezuniyet  |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| Yılı                  |                                                                                    |            |
| Lisans                | Hacettepe Üniversitesi<br>İngiliz Dili Eğitimi                                     | 2015- 2019 |
| Lisansüstü.<br>Ediyor | İMÜ,<br>Lisansüstü Eğitim<br>Enstitüsü,<br>Yabancı Diller Eğitimi<br>Anabilim Dalı | Devam      |

### İŞ TECRÜBESİ

| Tarih | Kurum                                                        | Görev     |
|-------|--------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| 2019- | Milli Savunma Üniversitesi<br>Yabancı Diller Grup Başkanlığı | Öğr. Gör. |