THE USE OF TRANSITIONS, FRAME MARKERS AND CODE GLOSSES IN
TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' OPINION PARAGRAPHS

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Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

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ABSTRACT

THE USE OF TRANSITIONS, FRAME MARKERS AND CODE GLOSSES
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The aim of this study is threefold: (i) to identify the types, frequencies and functions of the interactive metadiscourse devices such as transitions, frame markers and code glosses employed by Turkish learners of English in their English opinion paragraphs; (ii) to discover the reasons for the employment and avoidance of those markers by the Turkish EFL writers; (iii) to uncover the effect of teaching materials on the use of the scrutinized interactive metadiscourse markers. To fulfill these aims, data from B1 level prep-school students were collected in five stages: (1) Pre-treatment English student paragraphs; (2) Post-treatment English student paragraphs; (3) think-aloud sessions; (4) follow-up interviews; and (5) online questionnaire. The collected data set were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings of the study pointed out to the importance of training and teaching materials on the frequency and successful use of metadiscourse markers.

Keywords: Metadiscourse, Interactive Metadiscourse Markers, Transitions, Frame Markers, Code Glosses

ÖZ

YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN DÜŞÜNCE/FİKİR PARAGRAFLARINDA KULLANDIKLARI BAĞLAYICILAR, ÇERÇEVE BELİRLEYİCİLER VE KOD ÇÖZÜMLEYİCİLER

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Bu çalışmanın amacı üç yönlüdür: (i) İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrenciler tarafından İngilizce düşünce/fikir paragraflarında kullanılan bağlayıcılar, çerçeve belirleyiciler ve kod çözümleyiciler gibi etkileşimli üstsöylem araçlarının çeşitlerini, sıklıklarını ve işlevlerini tanımlamak; (ii) yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen Türk yazarları tarafından bu araçların kullanımı ve bunlardan kaçınma nedenlerini keşfetmek; (iii) öğretim materyallerinin, incelenen etkileşimli üstsöylem araçlarının kullanımı üzerindeki etkisini ortaya çıkarmak. Bu amaçları gerçekleştirmek için, B1 seviyesindeki üniversite hazırlık öğrencilerinden elde edilen veriler beş aşamada toplanmıştır: (1) Eğitim öncesinde yazılan İngilizce öğrenci paragrafları; (2) Eğitim sonrasında yazılan İngilizce öğrenci paragrafları; (3) sesli düşünme oturumları; (4) takip görüşmeleri ve (5) çevrimiçi anket. Toplanan veri setleri hem nicel hem de nitel olarak analiz edilmiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları, eğitim ve öğretim materyallerinin üst söylem araçlarının kullanım sıklığı ve başarılı kullanımı konusundaki etkilerine dikkat çekmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Üstsöylem, Etkileşimli Üstsöylem Araçları, Bağlayıcılar, Çerçeve Belirleyiciler, Kod Çözümleyiciler

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To my sweet and loving mother Birsen Çimiçin, and to the memory of my beloved father Abdullah Çimiçin, a smart and caring man whom I still miss every day

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEFR	The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CG	Code Glosses
CLAN CHILDES	Computerized Language Analysis Child Language Data Exchange System
CU	Correct Use
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EPE	English Proficiency Exam
ESL	English as a Second Language
FM	Frame Markers
IU	Incorrect Use
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LS	Label Stages
MD	Metadiscourse
MDM	Metadiscourse Marker
N	Number
NNS	Non-native Speakers
NS	Native Speakers
OU	Overuse
SP	Student Paragraph
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TM	Teaching Material

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background to the study, its significance and the research questions to be answered.

1.1. Background to the Study

Writing is usually taught at school with systematic instruction, considering the needs of the society and expectations (Uysal, 2008; Hatipoglu & Algi, 2017) since "each language or culture has rhetorical conventions that are unique to itself" (Kubota & Lehner, 2004). Some fifty-three years ago, Kaplan (1966) analyzed English essays written by ESL students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds and revealed that the organization of ideas in writing shows differences from one speech community to another, and this difference is a reflection of their native culture and language (see Figure 1.1).
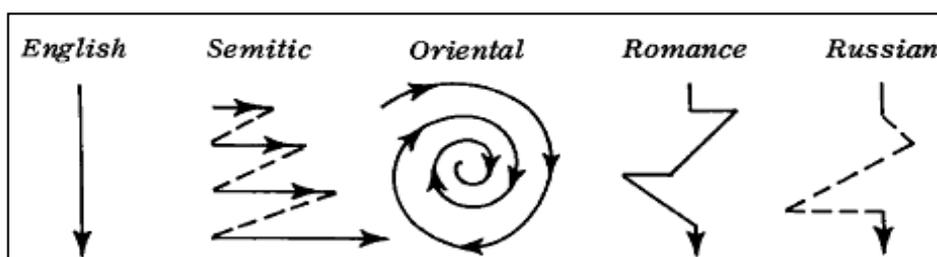
Figure 1.1. Kaplan's Proposed Cultural Thought Patterns (Kaplan, 1966)

The unique writing conventions in one culture may differ from others, and thus these unique rhetorical preferences of students' native language (L1) interfere with their writing in other languages (Hinds, 1984; Kaplan, 1966; Grabe & Kaplan, 1989; Connor, 1996; Kubota & Lehner, 2004; Uysal, 2008; Hatipoglu & Algi, 2017). Speakers of

different languages and cultures write using different assumptions, strategies, and goals. Therefore, it is of high importance for a second language learner to be aware of these basic characteristics when writing in L2 (McCool, 2009) and to know writing is a combination of "learning, organizing knowledge and thinking within the limits of the specific discourse genre" (Hatipoglu & Algi, 2017, p.86).

One way that writers can organize their knowledge or beliefs to the needs and expectations of their intended audience is using 'metadiscourse' (Hyland, 2004). Metadiscourse is defined as "the linguistic and interpersonal devices which explicitly refer to the organization of the discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader" (Hyland, 1998, p. 438). Metadiscourse allows writers to supply cues that show the reader how different parts of the text are linked and how they should be evaluated and interpreted (Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore, Markkanen & Steffensen,1993).

Metadiscourse is therefore of interest in writing instruction for academic purposes as a means of helping L1 and L2 speakers of English to facilitate communication, present their position and build a relationship with their readers (Hyland, 2005). Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995) state that when the meaning and rhetorical features of metadiscourse markers are grasped entirely by the writers, they can detect infelicities in their writing, thereby making their developing text clearer to the reader. According to Hyland (2004), metadiscourse helps a writer convert a complicated passage into a clear and reader-friendly text.

Hyland (2010) warns researchers and teachers, however, that metadiscourse may not be easy to understand for it is a multifunctional phenomenon: metadiscourse elements mark the structure of the text, develop a persuasive argument and build relationship with the audience. A range of linguistic and interpersonal devices help attain these features and these devices cannot be limited to a particular set of standardized forms. Therefore, using metadiscourse adequately and appropriately can be difficult for all writers. However, using metadiscourse in a foreign/second language is even more challenging since metadiscourse use considerably differs across cultures, and the norms in the use of metadiscourse in one's first language may deviate from the use in the second

language. Therefore, non-native writers, in the majority of the situations, cannot and maybe should not rely on the structures in their first language when writing in L2 (Bogdanovic & Mirovic, 2018; Hatipoglu & Algi, 2018).

In spite of its importance, metadiscourse markers are not commonly instructed at schools and even expert writers use these markers on an intuitive basis (Steffenson& Cheng, 1996; Bogdanovic & Mirovic, 2018). Therefore, L2 novice writers frequently deviate from native language users and the inappropriate use of metadiscourse markers results in highly inconsiderate and superfluous texts (Intaraprawat & Steffensen, 1995). According to Yuksel & Kavanoz (2018), it is important to know how L2 writers deviate from L1 norms in order to prepare effective teaching materials which can aptly address learner needs in writing.

Although there are a number of studies examining writing skills of non-native speakers of English from various aspects such as lexical richness (Daller, Milton & Daller, 2007; Milton, 2007; Nation 2001), linguistic complexity (Ortega, 2003; Biber, Gray & Poonpon, 2011) and paragraph development (Bickner & Peyasantiwong, 1988), we still have little knowledge about how undergraduate non-native writers of English convey their messages in their texts.

When we look at the available literature, we see that there are a few studies on argumentative essays (cause markers: Ulucay, 2014; Baltaci, 2019; hedges and boosters: Hyland, 2000; Algi, 2012; Macintyre, 2013). However, we do not know anything about how L2 undergraduate students reflect themselves in the discourse of their L2 academic writings and employ metadiscourse markers in *opinion paragraph writing*.

Opinion paragraph writing is an important genre in undergraduate writing classes since students are asked to write an opinion paragraph or an essay in the English proficiency exams of the language programs of many universities. Likewise, in the writing section of some important international exams such as IELTS and TOEFL, students are asked to support an opinion in writing. Since writing tasks of such important exams are opinion-based essays or paragraphs, undergraduate students in universities are generally trained in the writing of an opinion-based essay or paragraph. Therefore, developing

and assessing the students' writings in opinion essays is a requirement in L2 writing classes of universities. Knowing whether and how L2 writers use metadiscourse markers in an appropriate manner in their opinion essays would be pedagogically worthwhile to address the learner's needs and develop effective teaching materials in writing.

1.2. Significance of the Study

Back in 1980's, Hartnett (1986) suggested that using cohesive ties appropriately is challenging, and although good and poor essay writers use the same types of markers, they use them differently. More recent studies added weight to this argument and reported that L2 writers seem to have a narrow repertoire of metadiscourse markers and experience difficulty in using appropriate markers when organizing their text and building relationship with the reader (Hyland & Milton, 1997; Chan & Tan, 2010; Algi, 2012; Ho & Li, 2018; Yuksel & Kavanoz, 2018; Qin & Ucelli, 2019; Uluçay, 2014). One dimension of metadiscourse that many L2 writers of English find difficult to learn and utilize is interactive resources. Interactive resources "indicate discourse organization and clarify propositional connections and meaning" (Hyland, 2005, p. 93).

Although there are a few international and national studies that try to explore the usage and functions of metadiscourse by L2 undergraduate learners (Crismore, et al., 1993; Steffenson & Cheng, 1996; Ädel, 2006; Bayyurt & Akbas, 2014; Hatipoglu & Algi, 2017; Hatipoglu & Algi, 2018; Can, 2006 ; Yuksel & Kavanoz, 2018), these studies either explore interactional metadiscourse markers or do not focus on the interactive MDMs in particular. Studies focusing exclusively on interactive metadiscourse use in L2 undergraduate writing are missing and we do not know much about how L2 writers cope with them in their L2 texts. Therefore, one of the aims of the present study is to identify the frequency, variety and context-bound appropriateness of interactive metadiscourse markers used by native speakers of Turkish writing in English.

In addition, even though there are studies investigating the effect of instructional materials related to the use of *interactional* metadiscourse (Algi, 2012; Ulucay, 2014), we do not have any studies on how instructional materials affect the use of *interactive* metadiscourse employed by native speakers of Turkish when writing in English.

Steffensen and Cheng (1996) conducted a study which investigated the effect of instruction on the use of metadiscourse markers employed by university-level native speakers of English, and the findings revealed that teaching metadicourse greatly improved use of metadiscourse forms in L1 English writers' essays. Considering the findings related to the effect of instruction on the use of metadiscourse by native speakers of English, it is logical to ask whether and how teaching metadiscourse markers with instructional materials has an effect on the non-native students' use of such markers. To this end, a pre-test/post-test study design was adopted to examine changes in Turkish undergraduate students' use of interactive metadiscourse devices when writing in English.

Another research gap is related to the types of research methods used in metadiscourse studies, when analyzing learner language in particular. The focus of related previous studies has mostly been the frequency, variety of forms, and the contextual appropriateness of use (e.g., Chan & Tan, 2010; Asassfeh, Alshboul & Al-Shaboul, 2013; Ho & Li, 2018; Yuksel & Kavanoz, 2018; Qin & Ucelli, 2019). Therefore, one type of data collection tools such as research articles or student essays was used for their analysis. However, these studies do not provide us with insights on some particular issues such as the writers' reasons for their choices when using metadiscourse. According to Hyland (2005), "The study of metadiscourse should benefit from multiple methods, and interviewing and think-aloud techniques, where writers talk through their actions while writing, are perhaps the most productive of these" (p. 199). The present study intends to fill this gap by triangulating both qualitative and quantitative data collected from different stages of the study.In order to gain deeper insights and triangulate the study, both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered. Think-aloud protocols, follow-up interviews and an online survey were utilized as elicitation tools to corroborate data that were attained from pre- and post-training student writings. The reason of using a combination of these tools was to gain deeper understanding of why novice L2 writers use the MD devices when writing opinion paragraphs in their L2.

1.3. The Purpose and Research Questions of the Study

This study aims to investigate the types, frequencies, functions and appropriateness of interactive metadiscourse devices such as transitions, frame markers (FM, henceforth) and code glosses (CG, henceforth) adopted by Turkish learners of English with B1 proficiency level when writing opinion paragraphs in English. Although *Evidentials* and *Endophoric* markers are interactive MD devices as well, these two functional categories were excluded from the current study because opinion paragraph writing genre does not require the use of those markers. Through think-aloud protocols, follow-up interviews and online survey data, the study intends to uncover the reasons for the employment and avoidance of the transitions, FM, CG markers employed in the students' L2 English texts.

Another aim of the study is to find out how the teaching materials employed in the institution affect the use of these markers in the L2 opinion paragraphs of the students.

The specific research questions that answers are sought for in the present MA thesis are:

1. a) What types of transitions, frame markers and code-glosses are employed by native speakers of Turkish with B1 level of proficiency in their pre- and post-training opinion paragraphs written in English?
   b) How frequently are transitions, frame markers and code-glosses employed by native speakers of Turkish with B1 level of proficiency in their pre- and post-training opinion paragraphs written in English?
   c) How appropriately do the students use transitions, frame markers and code-glosses in their L2 opinion paragraphs?
2. What is the effect of the teaching materials on the use of the transitions, frame markers and code-glosses in the English opinion paragraphs?

In the light of the findings of the study, some general tendencies regarding the employment of interactive metadiscourse items by native speakers of Turkish would be identified, and this would allow researchers, material developers and textbook designers to re-evaluate how interactive metadiscourse devices are defined, presented and exemplified in the teaching materials.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter, the definition of the term *metadiscourse* is presented, and Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse taxonomy, which is the analytic framework of the present study, is introduced along with earlier categorizations of metadiscourse.

2.1. Definitions of Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse has been defined as an 'umbrella term' which encompasses varying discourse devices 'which help relate a text to its context'. These devices help writers organize their texts, communicate their stance and engage their readers (Hyland, 2005).

Metadiscourse is a fuzzy term which was initially introduced as "discourse about discourse", which referred to its role as a guidance to understand a writer's linguistic material (Harris, 1959). Since writing is not simply the delivery of specific information, Vande Kopple (1985) redefined metadiscourse as not a simple propositional material but a social act of engagement that helps readers "connect, organize, interpret, evaluate and develop attitudes towards the material" (p.83).

Although there are some studies that define metadiscourse as text organization devices (i.e. Bunton, 1999; Mauranen, 1993), or explicit illocutionary predicates (Beauvais, 1989, as cited in Hyland & Tse, 2004), Schiffrin (1980) considers metadiscourse (referred to as 'meta-talk' in her study) as the writer's manifestation in a text to 'bracket the discourse organisation and the expressive implications of what is being said'. Metadiscourse allows writers to express themselves as an animator by 'the reflexive nature of language, in which arguments are interactionally

generated, sustained, and eventually ended' (p. 231). Similarly, Crismore (1983) sees metadiscourse as 'the writer's intrusion into the discourse' that guides readers or listeners to understand what is said and meant by 'organizing, interpreting and evaluating the information given'. Hyland (2005) views that the idea of text reflexivity is of great importance in that it defines metadiscourse as 'the writer's awareness of the text itself, rather than of the reader' (p.17). According to Hyland (2005), metadiscourse is a "social and communicative process" between writers and readers (p.14) since it helps 'analyze interactions in spoken and written texts, providing a means to explore the ways that writers construct both texts and readers and how they respond to their imagined audiences' (p.111).

2.2. Categorizations of Metadiscourse

Over the past few decades, a variety of metadiscourse taxonomies have been designed and metadiscourse markers have been classified in different ways (e.g. Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore et al, 1993; Mauranen, 1993; Hyland, 2005, Ädel, 2006). In Vande Kopple's (1985) study, metadiscourse markers are classified into seven kinds with two main categories: textual and interpersonal types. Kopple's classification system can be seen in Table 2.1. Vande Kopple's (1985) taxonomy is the base for most other taxonomies. Many researchers (e.g. Intaraprawat and Steffensen, 1995; Cheng and Steffenson, 1996) have used Vande Kopple's (1985) taxonomy in their studies. However, as Hyland (2005, p.32) states, the categories in Vande Kopple's (1985) model were unclear and there were some functional overlaps between the categories, which have made the taxonomy impractical in application.

Table 2.1. Vande Kopple's Taxonomy of Metadiscourse (1985)

Textual Metadiscourse
Text connectives - used to help show how parts of a text are connected to one another. Includes sequencers *(first, next, in the second place),* reminders (as / *mentioned in Chapter 2),* and topicalizers, which focus attention on the topic of a text segment *(with regard to, in connection with).*
Code glosses - used to help readers to grasp the writer's intended meaning. Based on the writer's assessment of the reader's knowledge, these devices reword, explain, define or clarify the sense of a usage, sometimes putting the reformulation in parentheses or marking it as an example, etc.
Validity markers - used to express the writer's commitment to the probability or truth of a statement. These include hedges *(perhaps, might, may),* emphatics *(clearly, undoubtedly),* and attributors which enhance a position by claiming the support of a credible other *(according to Einstein).*

Table 2.1. (cont'd)

Textual Metadiscourse
Narrators - used to inform readers of the source of the information presented - who said or wrote something *(according to Smith, the Prime Minister announced that).*
Interpersonal metadiscourse
Illocution markers - used to make explicit the discourse act the writer is performing at certain points (to *conclude, I hypothesize, to sum up, we predict).*
Attitude markers – used to express the writer's attitudes to the prepositional material he or she presents *(unfortunately, interestingly, I wish that, how awful that).*
Commentaries - used to address readers directly, drawing them into an implicit dialogue by commenting on the reader's probable mood or possible reaction to the text *(you will certainly agree that, you might want to read the third chapter first).*

The problematic areas in Vande Kopple's (1985) study have been revised and improved by various writers (e.g. Nash, 1992; Crismore et al., 1993). As Hyland (2005) states, the most comprehensive revision has been made by Crismore, et al. (1993). These authors have dropped, separated and reorganized Vande Kopple's metadiscourse classification (see Table 2.2). The authors defined *textual markers* as features that help organize the text, and *interpretive markers* as features that 'help readers interpret and better understand the writer's meaning and writing strategies' (Crismore et al., 1993, p. 47).

Table 2.2. Metadiscourse Categorization by Crismore et al. (1993)

Category	Function	Examples
Textual metadiscourse		
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. **Interpretive 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 . . .
Interpersonal metadiscourse		
Hedges	Show uncertainty to truth of assertion	might; possible; likely. .
Certainty markers	Express full commitment to assertion	certainly; know; shows
Attributors	Give source/support of information	Smith claims that . . .
Attitude markers	Display writer's affective values	I hope/agree; surprisingly …
Commentary	Build relationship with reader	you may not agree that …

As Hyland (2005) indicates, although Crismore et al.'s (1993) attempts in improving Kopple's approach are successful in some ways, there are still remaining problems. For example, why textual metadiscourse has been divided into two sub-categories (textual and interpretive) is unclear. Some categories are rather confusing. For instance, while *reminders* indicate matter earlier in the text as textual markers, *announcements* indicate upcoming matter as interpretive markers. Another problem that arises in Crismore et al.'s (1993) categorization approach is that logical connectives are identified syntactically instead of functionally. In this model, logical connectives played a metafunctional role only if they join two main clauses. As a result of this categorization system, while coordinating conjunctions (e.g. *and* and *but*) and conjunctive adverbs (therefore, moreover) perform a metadiscoursal function, subordinating conjunctions such as *because* and *although* perform a syntactic function. The explanation behind their reason is that the omission of subordinators breaks down the grammaticality of the text whereas removal of conjunctive adverbs does not affect the grammaticality in the sentence at all.

According to Hyland (2005), utilizing syntactic criteria to draw lines between metadiscourse and propositional material does not make sense since 'there is always more than one way of expressing one utterance, and even realization can be seen as the expression of a conscious writer choice'. He believes in the use of functional criteria rather than syntactic criteria. Hyland and Tse (2004) and Hyland (2005) adopted a functionally oriented perspective which sees metadiscourse as the devices authors use 'to refer to the text, the writer or the reader'. The interactive function of metadiscourse is the focus in Hyland's (2005) taxonomy model. The scheme consists of two dimensions of interaction which are "interactive" and "interactional" metadiscourse as can be seen in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse by Hyland (2005)

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive metadiscourse	**Help to guide the reader through the text**	**Resources**
Transitions	express relations between main clauses	In addition, but, thus
Frame Markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences, or stages	finally, to conclude, my purpose is

Table 23. (cont'd)

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive metadiscourse	**Help to guide the reader through the text**	**Resources**
Code Glosses	Elaborate propositional meanings	Namely, e.g., such as, in other words
Endophoric Markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	noted above, see Fig , in section 2
Evidentials	refer to source of information from other texts	according to X, Z states
Interactional metadiscourse	**Involve the reader in the text**	**Resources**
Hedges	withhold commitment to open dialogue	might, perhaps, possible, about
Boosters (Emphatics)	emphasize certainty or close dialogue	in fact, definitely, it is clear that
Attitude Markers	emphasize writers' attitude to propositional	unfortunately, I agree, X claims
Self mentions	refer explicitly to author(s)	I, we, my, mine, our
Engagement Markers	explicitly build relationship with reader	consider, note, you can see that

Interactive resources (i.e. transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, and code glosses) help organize the discourse and guide the reader through the text. They have five sub-categories.

- *Transitions* highlight the relationship between the meanings of main clauses in the text. These markers indicate the writer's thinking via *additive (and, furthermore, by the way, etc.), causative (because, thus, therefore, consequently, etc.)* and *contrastive (similarly, in contrast, but, on the other hand, etc.)* relations (Hyland, 2005).

As Hyland (2005) suggests, an item can be counted as metadiscourse if it performs an *internal* role to the discourse rather than an external one. Therefore, it is not important to make a distinction between syntactic coordination and subordination, but to make a distinction between its internal or external function.

Table 2.4 shows how internal and external transitions differ in the discourse (Martin & Rose, 2003, p. 127).

Table 2.4. Different Roles for External and Internal Transitions (Martin and Rose, 2003, p. 127)

Relation	External	Internal	Examples
Addition	adding activities	adding arguments	and, furthermore, by the way
Comparison	comparing and contrasting events	comparing and contrasting arguments	similarly, in contrast, however
Consequence	explaining why and how things happen	drawing conclusions or countering arguments	thus, therefore; anyway, of course

- *Frame markers* include signaling words to *sequence* (first, to begin with, finally, then, e.g.), *to label stages* (*at this point, in conclusion, in the nutshell, etc.), to announce goals (aim, goal, there are some reasons, my purpose here is to, etc.)* and *to shift topic (OK, now, well, back to, let us turn to, etc.)*. These markers also include announcing phrases that highlight the stages in the writing such as *now you have to* and *my purpose here is to* (Hyland, 2005, p. 51).

- *Code glosses* help readers understand the writer's intended meaning by explaining, rephrasing, and expanding. The markers include signaling words like *namely*, *for example*, *such as* and *in other words* (Hyland, 2005, p. 52).

- *Endophoric markers* refer to any information the writer has stated previously anywhere in the text, such as *noted above that*, *see Figure 2* and *in the earlier section* (Hyland, 2005, p. 51).

- *Evidentials* guide the reader to refer to the information from other sources, such as *according to X*, *(X, year)* and *X states that* (Hyland, 2005, p. 51).

Interactional resources (hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self mentions, and engagement markers), on the other hand, involves the reader in the text and build a writer-reader relationship about the propositional content (Hyland, 2005).

- *Hedges* are items that indicate writer's subjectivity about the proposition. These items function like 'a linguistic shield to hold back what is said by the writer (Mohamed & Rashid, 2017). Hedges include items such as like *may, should* and *perhaps.*

- *Boosters* are devices such as *definitely, obviously* and *it is clear that*. They allow writer to signal certainty by challenging alternatives with a forceful voice. In

academic writing, it is essential to use boosters and hedges in a balanced way (Hyland, 1998)

- *Attitude markers* are devices that help convey affective attitude towards propositions. They express surprise, agreement, importance, obligation, and etc., by verbs (e.g. *agree, disagree*), adverbs (e.g. *unfortunately*) and adjectives (e.g. *appropriate*), (Hyland, 2005, p. 53).

- *Self mentions* point to the significance of the author's presence in the text via the frequency of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives such as *I, me, mine*, and *ours* (Hyland, 2005, p. 53).

- *Engagement markers* explicitly address readers either to take their attention or to include them as participants of the text. These devices are directives such as *see, note* and *consider* (Hyland, 2005, p.53).

Hyland's (2005) refinement and re-examination of previous metadiscourse categorizations and proposed lists of metadiscourse devices entitles Hyland's (2005) interpersonal model of metadiscourse as the most comprehensive taxonomy so far. Therefore, the present study is established on Hyland's (2005) taxonomy.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are different factors that determine the variation in the use of MDMs. These factors could be cultural conventions, register awareness, genre comparability and learner strategies (Ädel, 2006). Therefore, metadiscourse markers (henceforth, MDMs) have been analyzed from various aspects which include culture-based investigations (e.g. Crismore, et al., 1993; Granger, 1996; Dahl, 2004; Ädel, 2006; Akbas, 2014), to academic genres (Hyland, 1994; Hyland & Tse, 2005), and disciplinary-based investigations (Dahl, 2004; Hyland & Tse, 2004). Since the current study explores the usage and functions of interactive MDMs employed by native speakers of Turkish when writing opinion paragraphs in English, investigations with relevant aspects of metadiscourse in literature will be presented.

3.1. Interactive Metadiscourse Use in L1 and/or L2 Professional Academic Writing

In professional academic writing, contrastive studies have revealed that the usage and functions of MDMs show significant differences across cultures (e.g. Crismore, et al., 1993; Dahl, 2004; Ädel, 2006; Mauranen, 2007), and across-disciplines (Dahl, 2004; Hyland & Tse, 2004). This makes metadiscourse a challenging area to understand and apply when non-native speakers produce texts in a second or foreign language (Bogdanovic & Mirovic, 2018).

In a comparative study conducted by Dahl (2004), writer manifestation in three languages (English, French and Norwegian) and in three disciplines (economics, linguistics, and medicine) was investigated to see which variable is more effective on the use of metadiscourse in academic discourse. To this end, the researcher analyzed 180 refereed research articles from these three languages and three

disciplines. The findings of the study showed that the language variable governed the pattern of metadiscourse more. English and Norwegian demonstrated similar metadiscourse patterns and used more metadiscourse within the disciplines of economics and linguistics than French. The author concluded that whereas English and Norwegian represent a writer responsible culture, French is representative of reader responsible culture.

Hyland and Tse (2004) studied L2 postgraduate dissertations to see the variations across disciplines. The findings revealed that postgraduate dissertations from different disciplinary communities showed differences in the use of metadiscourse. For instance, transitions were more carefully marked in the soft fields, and the hard disciplines used endophorics (marker that refer to in formation in other parts of the text such as '*see Figure X*') more frequently.

In addition to abundant cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary studies in professional academic writing (Hyland, 2000; Dahl, 2004; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Hyland, 2008; Gillaerts & Velde, 2010; Kuhi & Behnam, 2011; Schmied, 2015; Estaji & Vafaeimehr, 2015; Bogdanovic & Mirovic, 2018), research focusing on the use of metadiscourse by novice L2 undergraduate learners has gained popularity in the field over the past few decades.

3.2. Interactive Metadiscourse Use in Novice Academic Writing in L1 and/or L2

In one of the earliest cross-cultural academic studies of metadiscourse, Crismore et al. (1993) investigated the texts written by American and Finnish university students. The participants were undergraduate students in upper-level language classes. They were asked to write a persuasive essay on a controversial issue. The analyses of the study indicated that students in both contexts used all categories and subcategories of metadiscourse; however, some cultural differences were found in the amounts and types of metadiscourse used. Finnish students employed more metadiscourse than American students. More specifically, the results showed that the Finnish students used more hedges (almost five times more) and attitude markers than the U.S. students. On the other hand, the U.S. students used evidentials

(markers used to attribute information to the source) more frequently than the Finnish students. The study also found that students in both contexts used more interactional metadiscourse than textual MDMs. The study suggested that there is a need for more attention to metadiscourse in teaching writing.

In another study which focused on undergraduate learners' writing, Ädel (2006) investigated the occurrences and forms of metadiscourse in argumentative texts produced by L2 English university students whose first language is Swedish with comparable texts produced by native speakers of British and American English. The findings revealed that there are significant differences between the L1 and L2 learners in the use of MDMs. There was a general pattern of significant overuse of metadiscourse, particularly personal and impersonal metadiscourse, by L2 learners. Ädel (2006) explained that this difference may be the result of the role of teaching and instruction and its effect on the use of metadiscourse. She stated that "cultural conventions in writing are likely to be passed on and maintained primarily through education" (p.197).

Similarly, in Dumlao and Wilang's (2019) study scrutinizing and comparing discourse markers in student essays by native and non-native English users in BA TESOL program, notable differences were observed between L1 and L2 English users. L2 English users heavily relied on some particular transitions such as 'and', 'because', 'so' and 'but', whereas they underused sequentials (first, finally, etc.) compared to L1 users. The findings revealed that the overuse of particular discourse items resulted in redundancy in L2 writers' texts.

In a similar vein, Asassfeh et. al. (2013) studied the frequency, forms and appropriateness of logical connectives (transitions) in the academic expository essays of Jordanian English-major undergraduate students, and the results of the study showed that the L2 users overused logical connectives and extremely relied on a particular set of markers such as 'and', 'so', 'because' and 'but'. What is more, the students used logical connectives inappropriately. It was suggested that writing textbooks which introduces semantic functions of transitions could solve the logical connectives misuse by L2 writers.

Overreliance on particular metadiscourse markers was also observed in Chan and Tan's (2010) study. In their corpus-based linguistic research study, 294 argumentative essays produced by Malaysian undergraduate writers with high proficiency English (MU corpus) were compared to the extracts from BAWE corpus (British Academic Written English) with regard to the use of metadiscourse markers. The results showed that the forms of metadiscourse markers were more varied in BAWE corpus compared to the MU corpus, and there were differences in the incidence of frequency of metadiscourse devices. There was an over-reliance on particular items such as 'because' for transitions, 'first' for frame markers and 'such as' for code glosses in MU corpus, whereas the items in each of these categories were more varied and evenly distributed in the BAWE corpus. From the findings obtained, it was concluded that writing skills of MU participants were still developing and did not reach to the writing ability of native writers yet.

Anwardeen et al.'s (2013) study also supports Chan and Tan's (2010) results. The aim of their study was to analyze frequency and distribution of metadiscourse markers employed by Malaysian college students, and also to examine the faulty use of these markers in the students' essays. The results of the study revealed that a number of metadiscourse markers was inappropriately used by native Malaysian undergraduates writing in English. In addition, they employed a very limited variety of code glosses and stance indicators. Anwardeen et al. (2013) suggested that students should be trained in using metadiscourse correctly.

On top of these studies which revealed differences between L1 and L2 English undergraduates' argumentative essays in terms of metadiscourse use, there are also other studies which found that the skilled L2 writers use metadiscourse more effectively.

In one of the earlier studies, Intraprawat and Steffenson (1995) investigated the use of metadiscourse in persuasive essays produced by ESL university students. The essays were rated by the researchers. Some essays received high scores and some received low scores. The good essays showed a more considerable diversity in the use of each category of MDMs compared to the poor essays. The study suggested

that "skilled writers have an awareness of the needs of their readers and control the strategies for making their texts more considerate and accessible to the reader" (p.253).

In a more recent study, Liu (2016) studied connector patterns in argumentative essays produced by Chinese undergraduates from different disciplines. Their essays were grouped into three levels: low-level, mid-level and high-level based on the scores they attained from the test. Native speakers of American English took part in the study as the control group. The findings showed that Chinese mid and low groups used connectors much more frequently than Chinese high and the native groups. While Chinese mid and low groups had an overreliance on particular connectors, high groups students used connectors as skillfully as the native groups.

Ho and Li's (2018) study was similar to those of Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995) and Liu (2016). They analyzed the pattern of metadiscourse use in argumentative essays written by undergraduate students. The essays were analyzed and grouped as low-rated and high-rated essays, and then compared by using the interpersonal model of metadiscourse as the analytical framework. The results revealed that writers of high-rated essays had a larger variety of metadiscourse markers with both simple and complex structures, and they used these markers in a stylish fashion, such as deploying these markers in various sentence positions (i.e. initial, middle, end) whereas writers of low-rated essays had difficulty in using metadiscourse when communicating convincing arguments. Ho & Li (2018) suggested that metadiscourse should be trained directly and explicitly at both secondary education and at the beginning stage of university education.

Although these studies suggest that metadiscourse training is essential in order to produce efficient and felicitous writings (Crismore, et al. 1993), to the best of the author's knowledge, there are no studies in the literature which investigate the effect of instruction on metadiscourse use while writing in L2 English. The only available research study exploring whether instruction results in any changes in writers' metadiscourse use was Steffensen and Cheng's (1996) study, but this study explored the effect of instruction on L1 English writers:

Steffensen and Cheng (1996) tried to explore the effects of university-level students' awareness of metadiscourse on their L1 writing abilities. It was a quasi-experimental study, which was conducted during the 16-week semester. One group of L1 university students (experimental class) was taught metadiscourse markers along with a process method while students in control class were taught writing only with a process method. Pre- and post-test papers were analyzed to find out if metadiscourse usage showed differences in both groups. The findings showed that the group that received instruction about metadiscourse used metadiscourse markers more skillfully and scored significantly higher scores than the control group. The study suggests that teaching students how to use metadiscourse in writing plays a significant role in improving their writing.

3.3. Interactive Metadiscourse Use in Novice Academic Writing by Turkish EFL Learners

Compared to the review of all these studies in different cultures and languages, studies exploring the use of metadiscourse by Turkish speakers of English are not prevalent in number. What is more, most research investigating the Turkish culture in L2 English writing concentrated on the interactional rhetorical devices such as hedges and boosters (Algi, 2012; Bayyurt & Akbas, 2014; Hatipoglu & Algi, 2017; Hatipoglu & Algi, 2018) or person markers (Candarli, Bayyurt & Marti, 2015). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is little attention on the use of interactive or textual metadiscourse in undergraduate L2 writing.

Can (2006) examined the use MDMs in argumentative essays produced by Turkish monolingual, Turkish bilingual who wrote in English and Turkish, and American monolingual university students. First, the essays were rated by two different raters and later analyzed on the basis of metadiscourse features. The results revealed that the scores in American essays were significantly higher than the other two groups'. Monolingual American students were found to use logical connectives, frame markers, code glosses, and first-person singular markers more frequently than the other students. On the other hand, English and Turkish essays written by bilingual Turkish students had significant similarities rather than differences. The researcher

concluded that bilingual Turkish students applied their native speaker norms in their L2 writing.

In a very recent study, Yüksel and Kavanoz (2018) carried out a corpus-based linguistic research study which aims to investigate the frequency and usages of MDMs in essays produced by Turkish learners of English and explore the digressions from native speaker norms. British Academic Written English (BAWE) and British National Corpus (BNS) were adopted as novice native and expert native reference corpora, respectively. The results showed that L1 background did not make a significant difference in terms of the higher frequency of interpersonal metadiscourse markers over textual metadiscourse markers. In all three corpora, logical connectors were the most frequently used textual metadiscourse markers. The second and third most frequently used sub-categories were frame markers and code glosses. When novice and expert native corpora were compared, it was found that pragmatic competence, particularly the use of metadiscourse, enhances by experience.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the setting, participants, instruments developed for the research with their features of usefulness, data collection procedure and data analysis methods utilized in the study.

4.1. Setting

The present study was conducted with students from the English Preparatory Unit of the Department of Foreign Languages at a private university in Ankara, Turkey. The institution and the English Preparatory Unit were presented and described in detail to depict a clear picture of the context where the study took place.

This institution has several faculties and institutes, and one English Preparatory School to develop students' language skills in English. Since English is the medium of instruction of all departments at the University, all registered students are required to take the English Proficiency Exam (EPE), designed and prepared by the Testing Unit of the Preparatory School, at the beginning of the academic year. The minimum EPE score for students to be able to start their undergraduate studies is 60. The students who fail to gain the minimum EPE score, however, are required to attend the Preparatory School of English for one academic year, which consists of four periods each of which includes eight weeks.

When the students fail in the EPE, therefore, lose the chance to start their undergraduate studies immediately, these students are required to take one placement exam at the beginning of the new academic year which assesses the proficiency level of students in English. Students are assigned into different levels

which are defined with the application of an *adapted* version the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The purpose of the placement exam is to determine English proficiency level of students and to assign the students to the most suitable class for that level. There are three level classes according to the language proficiency: A1 (Starter) and A2 Level (Elementary); B1 Level (Intermediate) and B2 Level (Advanced). Although C1 and C2 levels take place in the CEFR as effective operational proficiency and mastery levels respectively, these levels do not exist with these reference names in the curriculum of the preparatory school program. The reason why the English Language Preparatory program has a four-point scale from A1 to B2 rather than A1 to C2 as in the CEFR is that there are four periods in one academic year at Preparatory School. Each of the periods is 8 weeks, and a student is required to reach and complete B2 level with a minimum cumulative score of 60 to be able to take the EPE at the end of the academic year. Thus, succeeding in each proficiency level is highly essential for learners in order to meet the necessity of B2 level completion to be able to sit the EPE.

The normal duration of education in the Preparatory Class is one academic year and the maximum duration is two academic years. If students fail in EPE by the end of their maximum duration, they are dismissed from the University. Therefore, for students participating in the Preparatory School Program, it is highly essential to pass the EPE in the allocated time.

The exam is paper-based and takes 135 minutes to complete. The EPE includes *Listening (1 lecture + 1 conversation), 25 pts.; Reading (2 texts), 35 pts.; Language Use (Grammar and Vocabulary multiple choice questions), 20 pts.; and Writing (an opinion paragraph), 20 pts.;* sections.

In the writing section, students are asked to write an opinion paragraph of about 250 words. Two topics on academic or current news events are given and students have the right to choose one of them. In their writing, they are expected to convey their opinions on the topic with clear content and organization besides employing a wide-ranging, accurate, appropriate and complex grammatical and lexical knowledge.

After a standardization process with all exam graders, the paragraphs are marked by two exam raters separately using a scoring guide (a rubric) for writing responses. The exam raters grade student papers taking account of the proficiency in the content, organization, and grammatical and lexical accuracy. The rubric has five bands as *weak, limited, fair, good* and *outstanding*.

The aim of the preparatory school education is to equip students with the essential skills to understand and use English with sufficient proficiency to pursue their academic studies at their departments and to survive in the larger academic world with the help of experienced academic staff. The instructors who deliver the English courses vary from 7 to 24 years of experience in English language teaching. In all levels, students have General English courses and focus on main language skills: reading, listening, writing and speaking. Learners also take courses to develop their language use on grammar and vocabulary. They use skill books such as reading and writing, and listening and speaking books. Additionally, they also have one grammar book and an additional material pack prepared by the material unit of the Prep-School.

To assess the learners' English language development, one midterm exam and one final exam is performed in each semester. Besides test examinations, process evaluation is also applied. In process evaluation, students have compulsory tasks and a portfolio folder to complete. Students are required to add their weekly assignments to their portfolio folder and these assignments are specified on the content page of the portfolio for each level. These assignments are vocabulary notebook studies, paragraph writings, reader tasks, speaking recordings, and etc. Students are also expected to attend their classes regularly.

The weekly allocation for class hours shows differences between levels (A1 Level: 24 hours; A2 level: 23 hours; B1 level: 22 hours; and B2 level: 21 hours). Namely, there are 21 to 24 hours of General English courses per week. Besides regular class hours, students have the opportunity to see their lecturers at office hours which are designated to help students with their academic and personal problems. Compulsory attendance is 80% in each period. Considering the fact that students attending school

regularly may increase their chance of being successful academically, the importance of attendance is emphasized by the institution and their attendance is taken and registered daily. Although there is a relation between attendance and participation, attendance alone does not mean active participation. Thus, their in-class task performance and discipline are considered as determining factors in evaluating their success. Regular feedback is given to the students on their language learning progress and to that end the significance of process evaluation is always highlighted by the institution.

4.2. Participants

The participants in this study were 50 B1 level preparatory school students at a private university in Turkey. These participants were 29 male and 21 female students with ages ranging from 17 to 24. Since the differences between genders with respect to the use of 'interactive metadiscourse markers' were not the focus of the present study, the gender of participants was not considered in the sampling process. The students were from Turkish language background, and all of them had learned English as a foreign language in Turkey. The years of study in English varied from 5 to 14 years. This gap was because they studied at different primary, secondary and high schools (e.g. public vs. private). Some students also stated that they took private English lessons when they were young. None of the participants had an experience of living abroad for more than six months. If the participants were to live abroad for more than six months, they were going to be exempted from the study since their abroad studies might have an influence on the results of the present study. When the participants were asked about their proficiency in English, 67% of the students reported that they have an intermediate level of English and they sometimes face English communication difficulties.

Purposive sampling was used in order to select participants with the same language background (Turkish native speakers) and the same proficiency level in English (B1 level for all participants), (Mackey & Gass, 2015). Before these students started their education at the preparatory school, at the beginning of the academic term they had to sit for the placement exam administered by the Preparatory School Testing Unit

of the Department of Foreign Languages and were placed in A2 level (Elementary). At the time of the data collection, the participants had already completed A2 level successfully, and were continuing their intensive English language training in B1 level (intermediate). That is to say, the participants in the study were 'intermediate' level students. However, to understand how the level of participants played a major role in the selection of participants, it is necessary to gain an insight into what skills these students had gained in writing by the time the study was conducted.

The students in A2 level group start with basic writing skills which are guided and controlled tasks (e.g. to write about their family, living conditions, and educational background; to write short, simple biographies about people; to write about everyday aspects of his/her environment, etc). In Week 2, they start to practice paragraph organization. They analyze paragraphs by identifying parts of a paragraph, finding irrelevant sentences, ordering, completing paragraphs (writing topic, support and concluding sentences). In the following weeks (from Week 3 to Week 8), the students are trained in writing different types of paragraphs such as *Descriptive, Narrative,* and *Process Analysis* paragraphs.

When the students successfully complete the level with a minimum cumulative score of 60 (midterm exam + final exam + classroom participation + compulsory tasks + classroom participation + portfolio), they have a right to continue their language education in a higher level. Keeping this fact in mind, the students in the study had successfully passed A2 level and had the necessary qualifications to continue in B1 level. In the first two weeks of B1 level, on the other hand, paragraph organization is revised. Namely, students practice writing topic, supporting and concluding sentences for the types of paragraphs. In Week 3 and Week 4, Opinion Paragraph writing is instructed. In the following weeks (from Week 5 to Week 8) of B1 level, the students are taught Comparison and Contrast Paragraph and Classification Paragraph format.

In the writing courses, the structure of academic texts, i.e. introduction, supportive points and conclusion, is introduced to the students with source documents and sample paragraphs, and then the students are asked to write their own academic texts

applying the rules and structures that were instructed. After the students write their first draft in class, their paragraphs are collected by their instructors. In a few days, students receive feedback on their texts. Feedback focuses on every aspect of writing, i.e. content, organization and language use. For grammatical (morphological and syntactic), lexical (word choice), and mechanical (spelling and punctuation) errors, editing symbols are used (see Appendix A). Students are asked to analyze the detailed feedback and take their paragraphs home for correction and editing. The following day, students submit their second drafts to their instructors and their texts are marked. This drafting process is implemented after each new academic paragraph writing instruction, i.e. narrative, descriptive, opinion, compare or contrast, and etc.

After this brief description of the students' writing background in the relevant levels of the prep school, the picture behind the selection of B1 level students for this study can be clearly seen. The participants were selected to be B1 level students mainly because opinion paragraph writing is introduced to the students at this level. The participants were asked whether they had any experience in writing opinion paragraphs in English prior to their university education and all participants reported that opinion paragraph writing in English was not introduced to them neither at their secondary nor high school education.

On the other hand, the B1 level students had prior knowledge on how to write different types of paragraphs such as *descriptive* and *narrative paragraph writing* from their former A2 level writing instructions, which means that the study could safely focus on metadiscourse markers used in the students' paragraphs now rather than the analysis of content and organization. If participants were to be selected from upper levels, then the results would not be reliable because B2 level students had already studied opinion paragraph writing in their previous level, so if studied with them, it would not be possible to distinguish between the effects of the treatment and the effects of the prior knowledge of the participants (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.111).

Another criterion taken into consideration for the selection of participants is the language background of the participants. Language background of learners is one of the most important factors that may have an effect on the amount and functions of the language use in English language instruction (Scheffler, Horverak, Krzebietke, & Askland, 2017). The participants were selected from the students who are native speakers of Turkish so that we could acquire a homogeneous group and the results would be affected by another variable (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 109-110).

4.3. Data Collection Instruments and the Procedure

The present study investigates the types, frequencies, functions and appropriateness of the transitions, frame markers, and code glosses employed in the B1 level EFL students' opinion paragraphs before and after instruction at a prep-school of a private university in Turkey, and also intends to uncover the students' reasons for their choices when using these interactive metadiscourse markers. To gain deeper understandings of the L2 students' metadiscourse use, there was a need to elaborate on and explain the quantitative findings with qualitative data results (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Therefore, an explanatory sequential mixed method design was adopted as necessitated by the nature of questions under investigation, and the data were collected and analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods to explore overlapping aspects of the same phenomena (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). The present study benefited from multiple data sets such as pre-and post-treatment student writings, think-aloud protocols, follow-up interviews and an online questionnaire. Creswell and Clark (2011) point out to the significance of triangulation in research by suggesting that it enhances the accuracy and credibility of a study and it enables a more holistic view of the problem. Figure 4.1 illustrates the overall view of the data collection procedure:
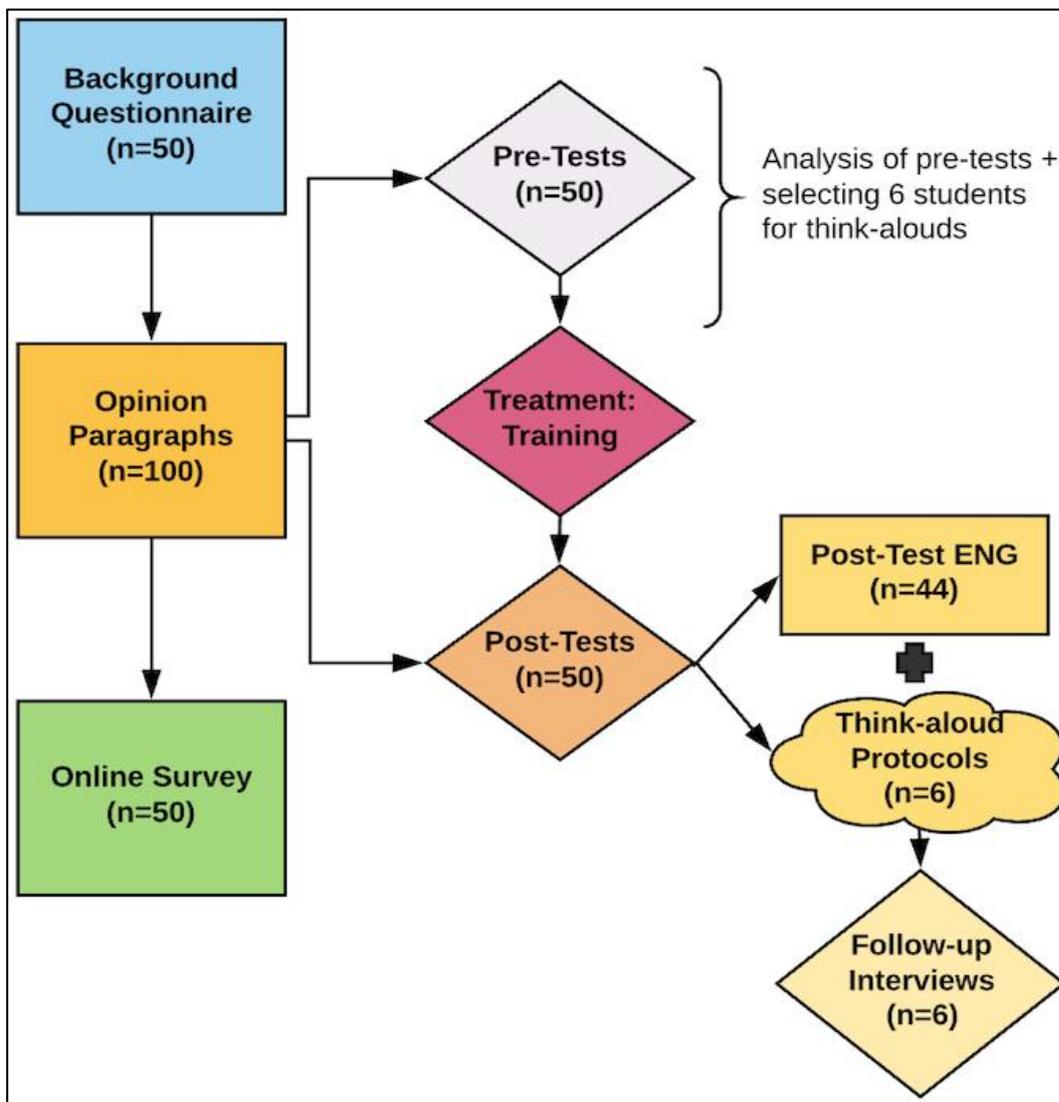
Figure 4.1. Overall View of the Data Collection Procedure

The data collection consisted of six instruments:

1. A Background Questionnaire

2. Pre-training and post-training English opinion paragraphs (N=50 for each)

3. Teaching materials for opinion paragraph writing

4. Think-aloud writing protocols with 6 students

5. Short follow-up semi-structured interviews with stimulated recall sessions with
   the same 6 students

6. An online survey

The Table below (Table 4.1) shows the stages of data collection according to the weekly schedule:

Table 4.1. Stages of the Data Collection

Week 1	Background Questionnaire
Week 2	Pre-Test Paragraph in English (N=50)
Week 3 & 4	English Instructions and Practice on Opinion Paragraph Writing
Week 5	Post-Test Paragraph in English (N=44) + Post-Test Paragraph in English with Think-Alouds (N=6)
Week 6	Semi-Structured Follow-up Interviews with Stimulated Recall
Week 7	Online Survey Completion

4.3.1. Background Questionnaire

A background questionnaire (See Appendix B) was given to the participants in order to collect information about their name, age groups, gender, place of birth, past education, education level of their parents, mother tongue, other languages they speak, the level of proficiency in English, and their visits to foreign countries (where, how long, and why).

The answers to the questions of background questionnaire were introduced in the section of *Participants* in order to provide a clear picture of the participants' characteristics.

4.3.2. Opinion Paragraph Writings and English Instructions on Opinion Paragraph Writing

To see the effect of instruction metadiscourse use while writing in English, a pre-test/post-test design was adopted (see Table 4.2). The participants were asked to write one English opinion paragraph of about 150 words before the instruction and another one after the instruction. All of these student paragraphs were written in the classroom in order to prevent the participants from using online sources or getting help from other people. The steps of this pre-test/post-test design were as follows: (1) pre-treatment English student paragraphs; (2) English instructions and practice on opinion paragraph writing; (3) post-treatment English student paragraphs. This

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stage of the study was conducted over four weeks (from Week 2 to Week 5) during the second period of 2018-2019 Autumn Term.

Table 4.2. The Steps of Opinion Paragraph Writings and English Instructions to 'Opinion Paragraph Writing'

Step 2 (Week 2)	Pre-Test Paragraph in English (N=51)
Step 3 (Week 3 & 4)	English Instructions and Practice on Opinion Paragraph Writing
Step 4 (Week 5)	Post-Test Paragraph in English (N=45)

The pre-test/post-test design was adopted to observe the frequency, types, functions and appropriateness of interactive metadiscourse markers used by Turkish L1 speakers writing English, and to compare the results of the pre-tests to the post-tests of the participants, which will help determine the role and the effectiveness of the instructional writing materials. In a pre-test/post-test design, researchers can measure the immediate effect of treatment (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 149).

4.3.2.1. Pre-Treatment Student Paragraphs in English

At the time of pre-test data collection, it was the second week of the second period in the 2018-2019 Autumn Term, and the participants were familiar with the structure of paragraph writing; however, they had no knowledge of opinion paragraph writing format and its rules and they were expected to write an opinion paragraph in English. Therefore, it is presumed that the only concepts that the participants could relate to in this opinion paragraph writing would be the ones that they had from their earlier education knowledge on composition skills in Turkey at high school.

Four opinion topics were selected from a web page that offers free practice for IELTS and TOEFL Academic writing tasks. The reason why IELTS and TOEFL topics were chosen for this study is that they are international English language proficiency exams designed for foreign speakers who learn English for academic purposes, and the writing topics given in the proficiency exam (EPE) of the preparatory school in the study are parallel to the ones in IELTS Task 2 writing. The participants in all classrooms were asked to choose one of the following topics below and cast their vote to determine the paragraph writing topic. More than one

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writing topic was offered to the students' selection because it was important that the participants write on a topic they are familiar with and willing to write so that they could convey their ideas more comfortably and display their best writing (Polio & Glew, 1996). Bonzo (2008) suggests that participants have a higher level of fluency when they had the chance to choose their own topics of interest.

The four writing prompts, which were presented to the participants to cast their vote for, were:

1. Do you think grades (marks) encourage students to learn? Why/why not?
2. Do you think college or university education should be available to all students? Why/why not?
3. Do you think children should begin their formal education at a very early age and should spend most of their time on school studies? Why/why not?
4. Do you think many university students should choose to attend universities outside their home countries? Why/why not?

Most participants selected the fourth prompt, which is '*Do you think many university students should choose to attend universities outside their home countries*?' To gain some insight on why they preferred to write on this subject, they reported that this is a current educational issue which is widely discussed in Turkey. Some participants stated that they are among the groups who consider studying abroad for its benefits. Since this is one of the most discussed issues among the students, as they say, they preferred to write on this topic. When asked if they had any difficulty in writing, most students stated that it was easy for them to write because they had sufficient knowledge to generate ideas and details on this topic. Only two students expressed that they found it difficult to write on this topic because they could not express themselves using appropriate words in English.

After the writing prompt was voted and selected in all classrooms mutually, the participants were distributed the writing task paper (see Appendix C) and asked to write an opinion paragraph of about 150 words in *English* in forty minutes using specific reasons and details to support their ideas. The time designated for the

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writing task was forty minutes because students have forty minutes in writing practice in classrooms and in the proficiency exam of the university that they are studying at. Their mobile phones were collected by the instructor and they were warned not to use any dictionaries and not to take any help from their teachers and friends while writing. The reason behind these precautions was to test the participants' sole knowledge in using the interactive metadiscourse markers in writing opinion paragraphs (Algi, 2012; Ulucay, 2014). The total number of pre-training student paragraphs was 50.

4.3.2.2. English Training and Practice on Opinion Paragraph Writing

In this step, students were trained in Opinion paragraph writing (Week 3). The only material resource used in the teaching is the material pack, which was prepared by the language instructors of the institution (see Appendix D). After students were trained in opinion paragraph writing with the guidelines and exercises allowing practice for using linkers as well, they were supposed to write an opinion paragraph choosing one of the topics given in the teaching resource. They were asked to draw an outline and write an opinion paragraph as a writing practice in the classroom (Week 4). This is the general procedure of opinion paragraph training in the institution. After opinion paragraph writing training, students write the first draft of their opinion paragraphs in the classroom. Then, these paragraphs are handed in to their instructors for feedback and advice on content, organization and language use (grammar and vocabulary). After students receive their feedback, they bring their papers home for editing and revising, and submit the second draft to their instructors in a few days to be marked.

Opinion paragraph is the type in which students express their opinions or perspectives on a debatable topic and provide reasons, proofs, facts, examples, and details to support their opinions. In the university, where the study was conducted, types of paragraphs (opinion paragraph, narrative paragraph, compare and contrast paragraph, and etc.) are presented to students in a material pack, which was prepared by the foreign language lecturers in the university, and distributed to students at the beginning of each new period (each period lasts eight weeks). Students use this material pack not only for writing skills, but also for a supplementary source to reading, listening, speaking skills

and language use practice. As for writing, material pack is used as the main source, which includes weekly writing sections on different academic writing genres with instructions, sample paragraphs and structures to be employed in that particular text.

In Opinion Paragraph writing, students are expected to:

- draw an outline for an opinion paragraph
- write topic, supporting and concluding sentences for opinion paragraph
- generate ideas and organize an opinion paragraph
- write reasons/explanations/examples to support an opinion
- use appropriate transitions to link sentences
- write a well-organized opinion paragraph
- use a checklist to edit and revise the paragraph

In the teaching material, discourse markers particularly used in opinion paragraphs are presented to the students with charts and practical activities. It is emphasized that these phrases help build the connection or relationship between ideas and make their paragraphs stronger and more effective.

To understand whether there was a correlation between the discourse markers the participants used and the ones provided in the teaching material, opinion paragraph writing section in the teaching material was also analyzed.

4.3.2.3. Post-Treatment Student Paragraphs in English

In this step, the participants were required to write an opinion paragraph of about 150 words in English as the post-test. A very similar topic to the one in the pre-test was chosen by the researcher. The topic of the post-test was: "Do you think high school students should go to schools outside their home districts?" There are some reasons behind choosing a similar prompt for the post-test. First, it was believed that the students would not have difficulty in generating ideas on this prompt as this topic was also related to school life and it was a subject of their interest. Besides, providing a different topic

would result in the participants' using different structural patterns in their writing (Hinkel, 2009; Swales, 2004; Ulucay & Hatipoğlu, 2017).

When the students (n=50) were asked whether they found it difficult to write about the topics before and after the treatment and why or why not, 19 students stated that they found it difficult to write a paragraph on this topic (see Figure 4.2) because they did not know how to write an opinion paragraph, and therefore could not reflect their thoughts on the topic in an organized way (10/19), they did not think of this topic before (2/19) and they could not make connections between their ideas using correct linkers (7/19). From the participants' responses, it can be concluded that the writers had difficulty in writing before the treatment not because they found the topic difficult, but instead they did not know how to organize their paragraph effectively. After the treatment 41 students reported that it was easy to write on this topic (see Figure 4.3) because they learned how to organize their thoughts into paragraphs (17/41), they learned useful expressions and organizational markers to make connections between their ideas while writing on that topic(11/41), they had enough knowledge on the topic (8/41), and they had already written on a similar topic in their former paragraph, and therefore had no difficulty in writing about the topic in their after-treatment paragraphs (5/41). These findings revealed that when students were trained in opinion paragraph writing, they were able to communicate their ideas on the topic more easily.
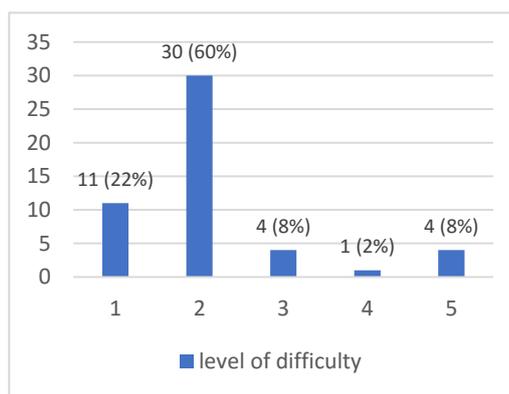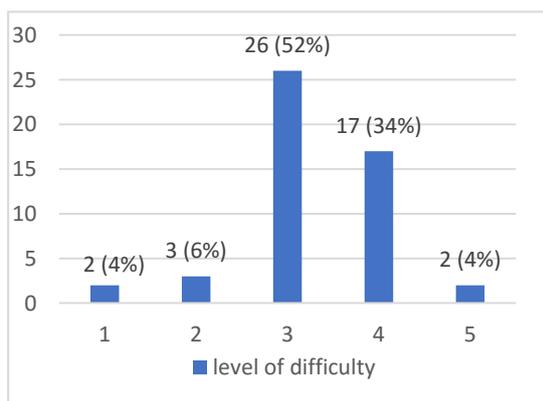
Levels of Difficulty: 1=Extremely easy, 2= Easy, 3=Neither easy nor difficult, 4=Difficult, 5=Extremely Difficult

Figure 4.2. Perceived Writing Difficulty Regarding the Topic Before Treatment   Figure 4.3. Perceived Writing Difficulty regarding the Topic After Training

The number of students participating in the post-test English paragraph writing was 44. The number of participants joining the in-class post-treatment writing session was smaller than the participant number in the pre-treatment paragraph writing session because 6 participants were selected aside for writing their paragraphs separately alongside think-aloud protocols (see section 4.3.3 for more details).

The aim of post-test writing was to see whether and to what extent the classroom materials helped students express their ideas appropriately and fluently in their opinion paragraphs with the use of textual discourse markers (in this context, these discourse markers are transitions and connectors for adding points, giving opposition, providing examples and concluding). In other words, the post-test was conducted to explore if teaching material, which was the treatment in the study, had any effect on students' writing with regard to the use of textual discourse markers.

4.3.3. Think-Aloud Writing Protocols

This study was a data-driven one and the reason of using think-aloud sessions was to gain deeper understanding of why novice L2 writers use the MD devices when writing opinion paragraphs in their L2.

To collect information on the participants' thought processes while writing and using these certain structures and markers, think-aloud writing protocols were used and six participants were asked to write one opinion paragraph in English in Week 5. These participants did not participate in the post-treatment in-class writing session since these participants were selected aside for writing their paragraphs by thinking-aloud.

The think-aloud protocols were conducted with participating students individually three weeks after all participants had written their pre-test paragraph writing in English (Week 2) since this time period was required for the analysis of the pre-test paragraphs of all participants. After the analysis of their pre-tests of opinion paragraphs, six participants were selected based on how accurately they used these markers and/or how frequently they used these markers. Two participants employed

the markers most frequently and accurately, two participants employed them the least frequently and two participants used the markers neither much nor less.

During the think-aloud protocol, students were asked to state their thoughts as they write their opinion paragraphs and to highlight the markers that they use in their paragraphs with the explanation of why they employed these markers in their paragraphs. Since, this is the first time for the participants to use thinking-aloud strategy, some demonstration and practice were needed prior to their think-aloud writing task. Charters (2003) states that "practice of a task might promote automaticity" before the reporting of thought processes. To this end, the researcher provided modelling as a pre-task orientation and wrote a paragraph (a descriptive paragraph) to briefly demonstrate the rationale and form of think-aloud strategy. The reason why a descriptive paragraph was written rather than an opinion paragraph for the demonstration was to avoid bias into the participants' think-aloud reporting since researcher modelling is good to reduce "cold start effect" but might introduce bias into think-aloud reporting (Gibson, 1997).

After each and every participant was introduced to think-aloud strategy with the researcher's modelling, they were asked to write an opinion paragraph in English of about 150 words in 40 minutes and to verbalize any words in their mind while performing their task.

The think-aloud protocols were video-recorded in the presence of the researcher. Although the researcher was present during the sessions, she did not direct the participants in the process. Instead, the researcher employed a "Keep Talking" sign to remind the participants to enunciate their thoughts verbally "without addressing them in speech which might interfere with their thoughts" (Gibson, 1997).

4.3.4. Follow-up Semi-Structured Interviews with Stimulated Recall Sessions

Mackey and Gass (2005) states that in a research that depends on participants' giving information on their thought processes, it is important to keep it in mind that participants may not acknowledge their processes or may not be willing to reveal

them. Taking this fact into consideration, the participants taking part in think-aloud protocols were asked to be interviewed with stimulated recall sessions. Stimulated recall is considered to be an introspective method in which participants are provided with a reminder such as a video/audio taped event, or any other physical reminder such as drafts of a composition, etc. (Gass & Mackey, 2013).

In this stimulated recall sessions, a semi-structured follow-up interviews of around 10 minutes were conducted in Week 6, one week after the think-aloud sessions. In this recall session, the opinion paragraphs they wrote in English in the pre- and post-treatment sessions were used as the stimulus. The interviews were designed as the discourse-based interviews (Odell, Goswami & Herrington, 1983; Bogdanović & Mirović, 2018), which means that the instances of metadiscourse elements in their paragraphs were found and highlighted, and the participants were asked to explain why they preferred using these markers to reassure the information provided by them in their think-aloud protocols (Macintyre, 2013).

The interviews were conducted in Turkish considering the proficiency level of the participants in English to make them feel more comfortable and to obtain as much information as possible from the participants about the underlying reasons for their preferences of certain textual discourse markers used in their opinion paragraphs. The interviews were video recorded since taking notes alone would not be sufficient to catch all the distinctive details of personal messages (Dörnyei, 2007, p.139)

Some possible interview questions were as follows:

➢ Why did you use X marker in your paragraph?
➢ What other markers could you have used other than X?
➢ Why would you not use Y marker here instead of X?
➢ When you compare your pre and post-treatment texts, what differences can you realize?
➢ Why do you think there is an improvement in the markers you used in your latter paragraphs?

4.3.5. Online Survey

To gain in-depth insight into participants' perceptions in the use of particular structures and markers in opinion paragraph writing, and the effectiveness of provided teaching materials in their English opinion paragraph writing, an online survey (see Appendix E) was conducted in Week 7 with all participants (N=50).

The survey was created using Google Docs. It included items which investigate the students' perceptions on opinion paragraph writing experience in English before and after instruction. They were asked whether and why they had difficulty in writing these paragraphs and in the use of paragraph structures. The survey included different type of questions: open-ended questions, check boxes and five-point Likert scales. Check boxes were used to investigate which structures and markers the participants found difficult to use, and later they were asked why they had difficulty in using these structures (see Appendix E).

To share the questionnaire with the participants, the URL address of the survey was sent to their e-mails, and the participants were asked to complete the survey in the classroom. The completion of the task took around twenty minutes. The students did not have any difficulty in the completion of the survey since they had earlier experiences with online surveys.

Think-aloud protocols, follow-up interviews and online survey were utilized as elicitation tools to corroborate data that were attained from pre- and post-training student writings. All the data collection tools were designed and employed to understand what types of, how often, and how appropriately interactive metadiscourse markers were used in English opinion paragraphs written by native speakers of Turkish before and after the provision of instruction; and to gain deeper understanding of why novice L2 writers make the choices they do when using metadiscourse.

4.4. Data Analysis

4.4.1. Analysis of Opinion Paragraphs and Teaching Materials

Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse taxonomy was employed to analyze interactive metadiscourse devices in this study. Although interactive metadiscourse has five sub-categories (i.e. transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses), *endophoric markers* and *evidentials* were excluded from the analysis since the input resources consisted only of short opinion paragraphs (an average of 150 words per paragraph) in which making additional information by either referring to something in other parts of the text (e.g. This section, note below, see Figure X) or indicating the source of information (e.g. according to, X (year) states that) is hardly observed.

All the paragraphs, 100 in total (N=50 in pre-tests; N=50 in post-tests), collected for the study were analyzed in the following stages:

Stage 1: The aim of the first stage was to gather a reference search list of transitions, frame markers and code glosses. In the coding process, besides the list of potential metadiscourse markers suggested by Hyland (2005), other studies focusing on metadiscourse devices (e.g. Can, 2006; Mohamed & Rashid, 2017; Ho & Li, 2018; Qin & Ucelli, 2019) were scrutinized to create an initial list. There are three main reasons for why Hyland's (2005) suggested list was not taken as the sole reference in this study: (1) the list is not comprehensive; (2) whether one particular marker is metadiscursive or not should be checked in context; (3) participants are novice (pre-intermediate level) L2 writers, so they may use unconventional and incorrectly used MDMs not noted and documented in earlier studies (Ho & Li, 2018). Therefore, although Hyland's metadiscourse taxonomy was used in the study, his suggested list for MDMs was not the only reference used in the present study.

Stage 2: The handwritten opinion paragraphs written by the students were digitalized by the researcher and the new digital forms were saved as separate computer files (i.e. English pre-tests; English post-tests). In the digitalized texts, participants' names were changed into identifiers such as M1 (first male participant), F1 (first female participant),

and so forth. Errors in student paragraphs were not revised and corrected except for the spelling of interactive MDMs since it might have influenced the study results, otherwise.

Then, the digitalized texts (of pre- and post-tests of opinion paragraphs written by the students in English) and teaching materials were edited in the format of CLAN CHILDES (Computerized Language Analysis Child Language Data Exchange System). The program is easy to set up and use, and it has powerful statistical capabilities. In the present study, it is used to calculate the frequency of the words in the texts (FREQ) and to search for co-occurring linguistic forms, i.e. word strings (COMBO), (Sokolov & Snow, 1994). These features of the program maximize the precision in the analyses and minimize the risk of skipping any particular items. This program has been used in some other metadiscourse studies (e.g. Algi, 2012; Ulucay & Hatipoğlu, 2017; Hatipoglu & Algi, 2018).

When the FREQ program was run, frequency counts of each word appear on the screen as in *Figure 4.4*. Here, for instance, there are 2 occurrences of *and* in the data of one participant.
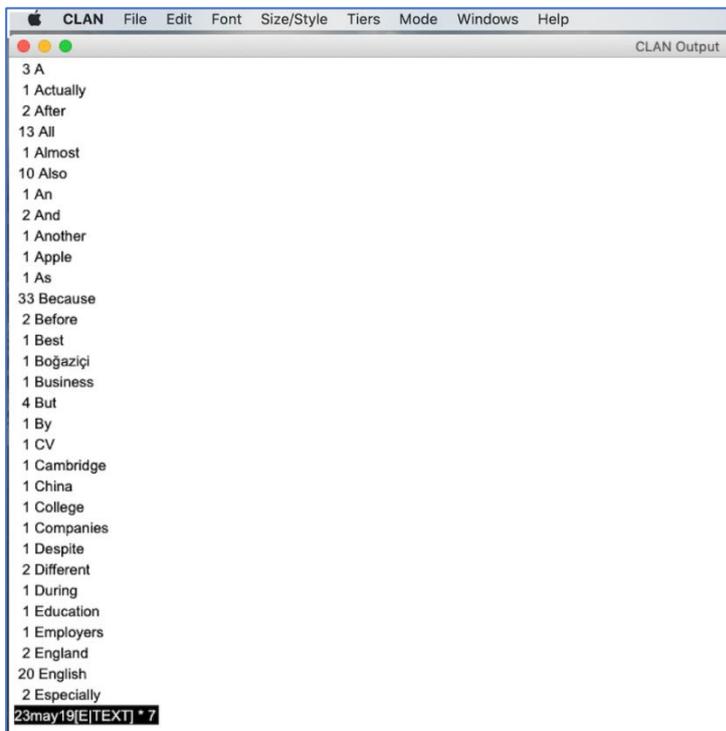
Figure 4.4. FREQ Output from CLAN CHILDES

However, contextualization was needed to count an item as a metadiscourse marker. Therefore, the COMBO function of the program was used to search for combinations and types of words (see Figure 4.5).

If we are interested in the coordinating conjunction 'and', for instance, as a metadiscoursal element, then we could use this output file, which shows each participant's input, for the analysis. For instance, there are four occurrences of *and* in the text of Participant F6. However, we realize that not all instances of *and* here have metadiscoursal value. While *and* was employed by the participant as a metadiscoursal element in the instances of (1) and (3), it has propositional meaning in the instances of (2) and (4).
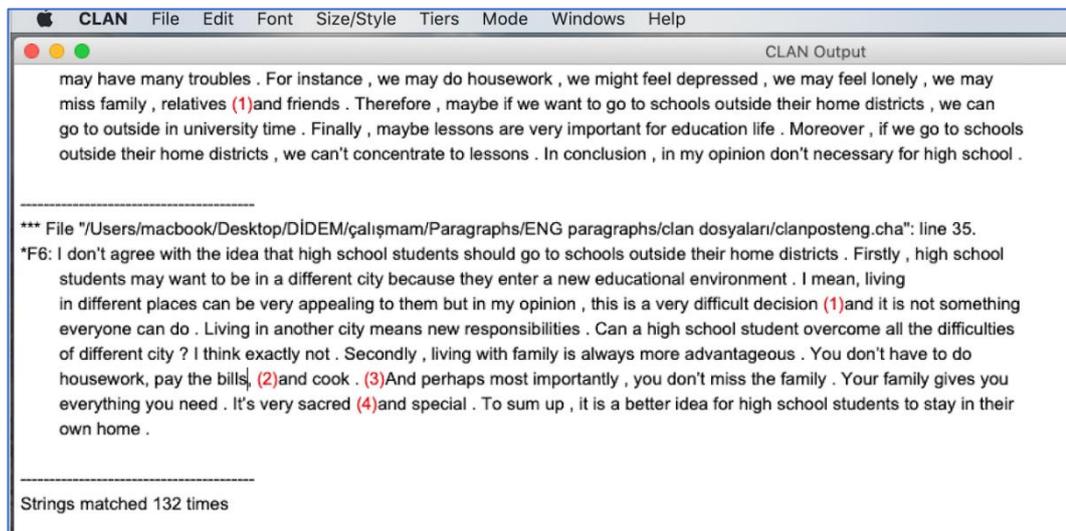
Figure 4.5. Combo Output from CLAN CHILDES

The data analysis with CLAN CHILDES revealed how frequently the MDMs were employed by the students and showed co-occurring linguistic forms. After this thorough analysis, some new metadiscourse items were added to the initial metadiscourse list (see Stage 1) in order to construct a more exhaustive and context-specific list which will be used in later stages of data analysis. Then, the final list was determined as 463 markers in pre-tests and 563 in post-tests.

Stage 3 explains how the distinction between metadiscoursal and propositional meanings was made in its sentential co-text.

Stage 3: In this stage, considering the fact that all items can realize either metadiscoursal or propositional content, functional analyses of Hyland (2005) were used for the identification of MDMs. Hyland (2005) explains the term *functional* in metadiscourse studies as:

> …it refers to how language works to achieve certain communicative purposes for users. It therefore concerns whether a stretch of language is asserting a claim, directing readers to an action or response, elaborating a meaning, posing a question and so on. Functional analyses recognize that a comprehensive and pragmatically grounded description of any text must involve attending to the use of language in relation to its surrounding co-text and the purpose of the writer in creating a text as a whole. The emphasis is therefore on meanings in context, how language is used, not what a dictionary says about it. So, when considering any item as a candidate for inclusion as metadiscourse, the question is not 'what is the function of this item?' but 'what is this item doing here at this point in the text?' (p.25)

The decision as to whether a particular item in the data was metadiscursive or not was made by the consensus of three raters: the researcher, a linguistics expert on metadiscourse and one English instructor who is also a native speaker of English who later helped with the detailed analysis of the MDMs used in student paragraphs. For instance, transition marker *and* is listed as an MDM only if it is connecting two or more ideas or creating relations with other parts of the text. As Hyland (2005) puts, "we have to distinguish transitions which connect *activities* and those which connect *arguments,* with metadiscourse referring only to this second, discourse-organizing role" (p. 166). The following examples show these distinct functions. While the underlined word in (a) below is categorized as metadiscourse, in (b) it does not:

Example 4.1. Distinction for Metadiscoursal (a) and Propositional (b) Functions of
Markers, AND (Student Paragraph, Participant F6)

(a) Living in different places may be very appealing to high school students, but in my opinion, this is a very difficult decision <u>and</u> it is not something everyone can do.

(b) Living with family is always more advantageous. You do not have to do housework, pay the bills <u>and</u> cook.

In Example 4.1 (a), <u>and</u> is used to link argument-internal elements, whereas in (b) it connects activities.

Example 4.2. Distinction for Metadiscoursal (a) and Propositional (b) Functions of Markers, THEN (Student Paragraph, Participant F12)

(a) Some students do not come back to their home countries. They earn lots of money, so they stay abroad. However, if they come back to their home countries, they can help build new schools. <u>Then</u>, they help develop the education in their country.
(b) I had a big problem in high school. This big problem was about solving Math problems. I failed in exams. <u>Then</u>, I talked with my family and they found a private teacher for me.

In Example 4.2 (a), the student is explaining how students abroad can help their own country by linking a relation between building new schools and developing the education in the country. However, in (b), she tells us the events in time order.

Expressions functioning as metadiscourse were identified and underlined (see Example 4.3) and then highlighted with three different colors in order to label these expressions according to the categories they belong to (i.e. transitions in yellow, frame markers in pink, and code glosses in blue) (see Example 4.4 and 4.5, respectively).

Example 4.3. Identification of Metadiscourse Markers (Student Paragraph, Participant M24)

I strongly believe that high school students should go to schools outside their hometown. <u>My first point is</u> learning a foreign language. If they study at the foreign high schools, they can learn their main language, <u>and</u> they can learn the culture of their language. <u>In addition</u>, students who study at the foreign high school can make a foreign friend, <u>so</u> they can upgrade their language levels perfectly. When they make a foreign friend, they can travel to their friends' hometowns in holidays, which is a good chance to go abroad for holiday <u>because</u> they can live abroad with this way. <u>Finally</u>, people who are going to high school can learn how they can survive without their parents when they study at the high schools in foreign countries. <u>For example</u>, they learn how to do shopping. <u>In a nutshell</u>, I think, the students who are going to high school in a foreign country or somewhere away from their hometown are lucky <u>because</u> they can learn a new language, they can go abroad for holiday <u>and</u> they learn to take responsibility.

Example 4.4. Categorization of Metadiscourse Markers (Student Paragraph, Participant M24)

I strongly believe that high school students should go to schools outside their hometown. <mark style="background-color:magenta">My first point is</mark> learning a foreign language. If they study at the foreign high schools, they can learn their main language, <mark style="background-color:yellow">and</mark> they can learn the culture of their language. <mark style="background-color:magenta">In addition</mark>, students who study at the foreign high school can make a foreign friend, <mark style="background-color:yellow">so</mark> they can upgrade their language levels perfectly. When they make a foreign friend, they can travel to their friends' hometowns in holidays, which is a good chance to go abroad for holiday <mark style="background-color:yellow">because</mark> they can live abroad with this way. <mark style="background-color:magenta">Finally</mark> people who are going to high school can learn how they can survive without their parents

when they study at the high schools in foreign countries. For example, they learn how to do shopping. In a nutshell, I think, the students who are going to high school in a foreign country or somewhere away from their hometown are lucky because they can learn a new language, they can go abroad for holiday and they learn to take responsibility.

Yellow: Transitions
Pink: Frame markers
Blue: Code glosses

Some markers can be multifunctional. This fact was taken into consideration as well while coding. For instance, 'then' is an additive marker in (a), while in (b) it functions as a frame marker:

Example 4.5. Representative Examples of Multifunctionality of Metadiscourse Markers (Student Paragraph, Participant F12 [a] and F15 [b])

(a) Some students do not come back to their home countries. They earn lots of money, so they stay abroad. However, if they come back to their home countries, they can help build new schools. Then, they help develop the education in their country.

(b) If an Indian, for instance, go to study abroad for his education, then his perspective towards his home environment would totally change.

The markers that perform different functions were identified and categorized accordingly.

Stage 4: The aim in this stage of analysis is to explore how appropriately novice L2 students used English interactive metadiscourse markers (MDMs) in their texts.

The researcher and one experienced English instructor who is a native speaker of English worked separately to analyze and classify the usages of interactive metadiscourse devices in the texts written by the participants (Table 4.3). The English instructor is working at English Preparatory School Unit of a private university in Ankara. He is Australian native and has been teaching English for over ten years. Besides teaching, he is also a proofreader in material development unit of the institution. Therefore, he has experience in proofreading teaching materials. The inter-coder reliability was 95% (the number of ratings in agreement/the total number of ratings, i.e. 938/986) and disagreements in the classifications were resolved through discussion and negotiation. For some items the accuracy of which is open

to discussion, and therefore difficult to categorize, the researcher consulted another English language teaching expert.

The categories of analysis in this stage are:

(i)   Correct use (CU): Appropriate use of the marker allowing writer to help guide the reader through the text

(ii) Incorrect use (ICU): The incorrect use of a marker to assess the certainty the writer attributes to the organization of the discourse.

(iii) Overuse (OU): The presence of a marker where it is not required (see Table 1).

Table 4.3. Representative Examples of Appropriate Use (CU), Incorrect Use (IU) and Overuse (OU)

Example	CU	IU	OU	Explanation
(i) When I studied in high school, I was outside my home district. **THEREFORE**, I learned my responsibilities earlier than my friends who go to school inside their home districts.	X			
(ii) My first point is money. In our country, some parents don't give enough Money to their children. So, students can't buy what they want. **ON THE OTHER HAND**, students who go to school outside their home districts have difficult lifestyles. They can't spend a lot of money.		X		*On the other hand* is used incorrectly. Here, the student is not contrasting events but giving further explanation for her first point. It may be replaced with a marker that helps the writer to introduce complementary information such as '*In other words',* or '*That is'.*
(iii) In my opinion, high school is too early to get education in a different city or region. **BECAUSE** for example in my childhood or teenager, I could not make true decision.			X	Not necessary.

Stage 5: The statistical analysis for the data collected for the study was carried out with SPSS version 22 statistical software package. A series of frequency analyses was run to determine the number of occurrences of the various categories of interactive metadiscourse devices. The paired samples t-tests were conducted to determine whether there were statistical mean differences between the number of markers employed in pre- and post- tests of the opinion paragraphs.

After the collection and analysis of the main collection data (i.e. pre- and post-training student paragraphs), think-aloud protocols, follow-up interviews and an online survey were conducted as elicitation tools to gain deeper understanding of why novice L2 writers use the MD devices when writing opinion paragraphs in their L2.

The collected information in think-aloud protocols and follow-up interviews were transcribed and coded manually. The analysis revealed the reasons behind student preferences while using metadiscourse in L2 writing.

The results of the online survey were viewed in the online interface of Google Docs, and then exported to a spreadsheet for coding the data of the responses. The analysis of the collected data in online surveys was helpful to find answers to some concepts which were identified by the researcher such as *topic of the writing task, background education on L2 opinion paragraph writing, difficulty of metadiscourse markers,* and *teaching materials*.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this chapter, the findings of the study and their interpretations are presented. Firstly, the overall distribution of interactive metadiscourse markers in the pre- and post-training opinion paragraphs is presented in Section 5.1. In order to see the effect of teaching materials on the overall distribution of these markers, the numbers in the student paragraphs are compared to the ones in the teaching material in Section 5.2. After a summary of results in the categorical distribution of interactive MDMs in the three sets of data (pre-treatment and post-treatment student paragraphs, and teaching material) is demonstrated in Section 5.3, a more detailed analysis of each category (i.e. transitions, frame markers and code glosses) and their subcategories is presented and discussed together with their frequency, forms and functions attributed to them by the students in Section 5.4 (transitions), Section 5.5 (frame markers) and 5.6 (code-glosses).

5.1. Overall Distribution of Transitions, Frame Markers (FMs) and Code Glosses (CGs) in pre- and post-tests of English Opinion Paragraphs

Table 5.1. Total and Average Number of Words, and Interactive MDMs Employed in the English Opinion Paragraphs

	Pre-tests	Post-tests
Total number of words	6701	7396
Average number of words per paragraph	134	148
Number of different words	822	886
Lexical Density	12.2%	11.9%
Total number of Transitions, FMs and CGs	423	563
Tokens per 100 words	6.3	7.6

The total number of words in the 50 pre-test English opinion paragraphs written for this study was 6701 (an average of 134 words per paragraph), and the number of interactive devices (transitions, frame markers and code glosses in this study) was 423. That is, the

frequency of interactive devices was 6.3 per 100 words. On the other hand, the post-test English corpus had 7396 words (an average of 148 words per paragraph), and the total number of interactive devices was 563, which means the frequency of interactive devices in post-tests in English was 7.6 in every 100 words. A paired-samples t-test was conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant mean difference between the frequency counts of interactive devices in pre-test and post-test English paragraphs, and the analysis revealed that students used statistically significantly bigger number of interactive devices in their post-tests: t(49)=4.8, p<.001.This means that the students used more interactive devices in their post-tests.

Although the students employed more metadiscourse markers in their post-test of paragraph writing, there was not an increase regarding lexical density between pre- and post-tests in English paragraph writing (12.2% and 11.9%, respectively). This suggests that the participants followed a repetitive pattern in their word choice in English opinion paragraphs.

Interactive MDMs used by the Turkish learners of English in this study are significantly higher than those in the previous studies on academic essays of non-native English learners (Ho & Li, 2018; Qin & Ucelli, 2019; Anwardeen et al., 2013). In the present study, Turkish non-native speakers used 63.1 interactive MDMs in their pre-tests and 76.1 MDMs (per 1000 words) in post-tests whereas the frequency of these markers is 30.1 (per 1000 words) in argumentative essays written by 181 first-year undergraduate Chinese learners of English (Ho & Li, 2018); 25.4 (per 1000 words) in 352 persuasive essays by EFL learners from different language backgrounds (e.g., Chinese, Mexican, French) with different English proficiency levels (Qin & Ucelli, 2019);and 27.4 (per 1000 words) in 1010 argumentative essays written by Malaysian Tertiary level of students (Anwardeen et al., 2013). One reason of this disparity between the results here may be the proficiency level of participants in these studies. In these other studies, the students had prior knowledge in academic writing since they took academic writing classes before, therefore had higher level of proficiency in English. They were observed to use these markers less frequently but more appropriately. In the present study, on the other hand, the participants had low proficiency in English. They were attending English preparatory school classes to improve their English proficiency. To this end,

they were being educated in academic writing along with other skills via classroom input and teaching materials. Considering the findings of some earlier studies that suggest the exposure to English teaching materials has an influence on the participants' MDM usages in writing (Cheng & Steffensen, 1996; Algi, 2012; Ulucay, 2014), the learners in the present study, who are low proficient in the second language, might be largely depending on teaching materials when using MDMs as will be discussed in the following sections of the present study.

On the other hand, our findings are very much in line with those of Yüksel and Kavanoz (2008). In the corpus-based study of Yüksel and Kavanoz (2018), the results of 316 student essays from Turkish learners of B2 level English showed that the frequency of interactive (textual) MDMs was 68 (per 1000 words). The Turkish corpus was compared to novice NS corpus (BAWE) and expert NS corpus (BNC). The number of MDMs employed in BAWE was 36 (per 1000 words), whereas that of BNC was 57. The results showed that although the occurrences of MDMs in paragraphs of Turkish novice language users were more than the ones in the paragraphs of novice NS of English, they were similar in number with that of expert NS of English. Based on this study result, the researcher suggested that novice writers might be attempting to imitate the MDMs used in the textbooks produced by expert writers.

To uncover the effect of teaching materials on the use of *transitions, frame markers,* and *code glosses* employed by Turkish EFL learners in opinion writing, the frequency and functions of these scrutinized interactive metadiscourse devices in the teaching material (TM, henceforth) were identified, and it was compared and contrasted with the pre- and post-treatment student paragraphs.

5.2. A Comparison of the Overall Distribution of the Interactive Metadiscourse Markers Employed in the Teaching Materials and the L2 Pre- and Post-Treatment Student Paragraphs

The comparison of the overall distribution of the interactive MDMs with respect to the total number of words in all three sets of data is illustrated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2. A Comparison of Total Interactive Devices

	Pre-tests	TM	Post-tests
Total number of words	6701	2607	7396
Total number of Transitions, FMs and CGs	423	188	563
Tokens per 100 words	6.3	7.2	7.6

The total number of words in the teaching material used for teaching opinion writing was 2607, and the total number of interactive MDMs was 188, which means that there were 7.2 interactive MDMs in every 100 words written by native speakers of Turkish who learn English as a foreign language. On the other hand, the frequency of interactive devices was 6.3 per 100 words in pre-tests and 7.6 per 100 words in post-tests.

Considering the similar rates in the use of scrutinized interactive devices in the teaching material and the post-treatment paragraphs (7.2 and 7.6 per 100 words, respectively), it is clear that the exposure to English teaching materials influenced the participants' MDM usages in writing. That is, the treatment (instructional materials) resulted in an increase in the use of interactive MDMs. Section 5.3. presents a categorical comparison of the transitions, FMs and CGs in the teaching material and pre- and post-tests.

5.3. Categorical Distribution of Interactive MDMs in the TM and L2 Pre- and Post-Treatment Student Paragraphs

Table 5.3. Categorical Distribution of Interactive MDMs in the Three Sets of Data
(Tokens per 100 words)

Category	Pre-tests (6701 words)			TM (2607 words)			Post-tests (7396 words)		
	f	Tokens	%	f	Tokens	%	f	Tokens	%
Transitions	263	3.9	62%	92	3.5	49%	305	4.1	54%
FMs	112	1.7	27%	64	2.4	34%	180	2.4	32%
CGs	48	0.7	11%	32	1.2	17%	78	1.1	14%
Total	423	6.3	100%	188	7.2	100%	563	7.6	100%

When the student paragraphs were analyzed descriptively based on the categories of interactive devices (transitions, FMs and CGs), it was found that the most frequently employed category of interactive markers was transitions, which accounts for the highest proportion of total interactive MDMs both in pre-tests (62%) and post-tests (54%). The second most frequently employed category was frame markers both in pre- (27%) and

post-tests (32%). In comparison, the use of code glosses in the corpus is the lowest with 11% use in pre-tests and 14% use in post-tests.

Similarly, the categorical analysis of the TM revealed that the most frequently employed category of interactive markers was transitions, accounting for the highest proportion (49%) of total interactive MDMs. Transitions was followed by FMs (34%) and CGs (17%), (see Table 5.3).

When the proportions of the categories in the TM were compared to the ones in the pre- (Transitions: 62%, FMs: 27%, and CGs: 11%) and post-tests (Transitions: 54%, FMs: 32%, CGs: 14%), it could be seen that the categorical patterns in the TM and the post-tests were alike. The over-reliance on *transitions* use in the pre-tests reduced after the treatment, and the participants increased the use of frame markers and code-glosses in their post-treatment writings. A series of paired samples were conducted to determine whether pre- and post-tests differed significantly regarding the use of transitions, FMs, and CGs. The results displayed no statistically significant difference in the use of transitions between the pre- and post-tests (t(49)= 1.79, p=0.79). However, the frequency of FM and CG use in the post-tests was significantly higher than in the pre-tests: t(49)= 5.36, p<.001, and t(49)=2.97,p<.001, respectively. This finding suggests that teaching materials had an effect on the students' preferences for the use of interactive metadiscourse markers in L2 writing.

On the other hand, although the students increased the use of FMs and CGs after the treatment, the numbers do not fully match with the ones in the teaching material. The percentages of these categories in the teaching material data were slightly higher. Algi (2012) suggests that the instructional materials purposefully include a slightly higher number of metadiscourse markers so that the students would be more aware of their use. In other words, when there is a higher metadiscourse use in the input, the students have a higher tendency to use these markers in their writing. This suggestion is consistent with Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis, which claims that the input should be a level just beyond the learner's current level of competence.

Comparison of the findings of the present study with other studies regarding the categorical distribution of interactive MDMs in English revealed that the category of *transitions* has the highest frequency of use with usually more than half of the total interactive MDMs in the earlier L2 metadiscourse studies, as well (e.g., Hyland and Tse, 2004; Chan & Tan, 2010; Anwardeen et al., 2013; Dobbs, 2014; Mohamed & Rashid, 2017; Ho & Li, 2018; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018; Qin & Ucelli, 2018). Hyland (2005) explains the transitions' being the most frequent subcategory as a "demonstration of writer's concerns that readers are able to recover their reasoning unambiguously" (p.56). If students were to convince their readers in a logical way, they would need to make connections between ideas explicitly. Indeed, transitions help readers to interpret and follow the connections between the ideas and to understand the reasoning of the writers clearly.

In the present study, frame markers were used more frequently than code glosses in both pre- and post-tests. This finding is supported by Yüksel and Kavanoz (2018). Similar to our results, Yüksel and Kavanoz (2018) found out that frame markers was the second most frequently used category in novice L2 corpus. Compared to novice L1 corpus (BAWE) and expert L1 corpus (BNC), frame markers were used almost two times more in the papers of non-native novice writers (YLW). Apparently, Turkish novice writers both in the present study and Yüksel and Kavanoz's (2018) study, favour the employment of frame markers in their persuasive writing. As for the code glosses, the study (Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018) found out that novice non-nativeand novice native writer groups differed from expert native group in the use of code glosses. Expert native writers employed code-glosses more than novice writers. Based on this finding, Yüksel and Kavanoz (2018) suggested that novice writers experienced problems in elaborating propositional meaning through further explanations or examples because of their inexperience in understanding the context of interaction between the reader and the writer.

The following sections present the frequencies, types and functions of *transitions, frame markers* and *code-glosses* in the teaching material and the pre- and post-treatment student papers, and discuss whether metadiscourse usage of the scrutinized markers was different in the three sets of data, revealing whether and how the treatment affected the use of transitions, FMs and CGs employed in the L2 student papers.

5.4. Transitions

Transition markers had the highest frequency of use in the instructional materials and in the students' English opinion paragraphs.

The use of transition markers is a combination of additive, causative and contrastive types (Hyland, 2005, p.50). These three main categories of transitions were identified in the three sets of data of the present study. The raw and normalized frequencies of the types of transitions (i.e. *addition, comparison* and *consequence)* and their corresponding ratio to the total number of *transitions* are presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4. Distribution of the Types of Transitions in the Three Sets of Data (Tokens per 100 words)

	Pre-tests (6701 words)			TM (2607 words)			Post-tests (7396 words)		
Types	**f**	**Tokens**	**%**	**f**	**Tokens**	**%**	**f**	**Tokens**	**%**
Addition	99	1.5	38%	62	3.5	67%	121	4.1	40%
Comparison	54	0.8	20%	5	2.4	5%	36	2.4	12%
Consequence	110	1.6	42%	25	1.2	27%	148	1.1	48%
Total	263	3.9	100%	92	7.2	100%	305	7.6	100%

As can be seen from Table 5.4, *consequential (causative) markers* topped the ranking (42%) with a total of 110 hits, which was followed by *additive* (38%) and *contrastive* transition markers (20%) with 99 and 54 hits, respectively *in the pre-tests*. Likewise, the participants preferred to use *consequential* (48%), *additive* (40%) and *contrastive* (12%) transition markers with a total of 148, 121, and 36 hits, respectively, *in the post-tests*.

However, it was the *additive markers* that topped the highest ranking (67%) in the teaching material with a total of 62 hits out of 92, which was followed by *consequence* (27%; 25/92), and *comparison* (5%; 5/92). The results show that while TM connected the relations between the ideas with additive markers mostly, the students used *the transitions of consequence* more than *addition* in their pre- and post-tests. That is, the participants in the present study felt a higher need to signal the cause and effect relationship between discourse segments.

Table 5.5 below illustrates the forms *of transitions* in the teaching material and the student paragraphs with their raw numbers and corresponding percentages under the relevant category.

Table 5.5. The Forms of Transitions in the Teaching Material (TM) and Pre- and Post-Tests

Subcategory	Transitions	Pre-tests (6701 words)		TM (2607)		Post-tests (7396 words)	
		f	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**
addition	**and**	69	26%	36	39%	87	29%
	also	15	6%	8	9%	19	6%
	or	6	2%	8	9%	6	2%
	too	2	0.8%	-	-	1	0.3%
	in addition	1	0.4%	-	-	-	-
	furthermore	1	0.4%	-	-	1	0.3%
	not just for	1	0.4%	-	-	-	-
	by the way	1	0.4%	-	-	-	-
	even (moreover)	1	0.4%	-	-	1	0.3%
	after that/this	1	0.4%	-	-	1	0.3%
	then	1	0.4%	-	-	-	-
	besides	-	-	2	2%	2	0.7%
	in addition to	-	-	5	5%	-	-
	apart from	-	-	3	3%	-	-
	moreover	-	-	-	-	2	0.7%
	both...and	-	-	-	-	1	0.3%
	Addition TOTAL	99	38%	62	67%	121	40%
comparison	**but**	32	12%	3	3%	21	7%
	however	11	4%	1	1%	7	2%
	on the other hand	8	3%	-	-	6	2%
	despite	1	0.4%	-	-	-	-
	even if	1	0.4%	-	-	1	0.3%
	even (though)	1	0.4%	-	-	-	-
	while	-	-	1	1%	-	-
	yet	-	-	-	-	1	0.3%
	Comparison TOTAL	54	20%	5	5%	36	12%
consequence	**because**	66	25%	6	7%	85	28%
	so	21	8%	5	5%	31	10%
	therefore	10	4%	1	1%	9	3%
	because of	7	3%	3	3%	6	2%
	that's why	5	2%	-	-	2	0.7%
	thanks to	1	0.4%	-	-	-	-
	result in	-	-	5	5%	-	-
	due to	-	-	1	1%	1	0.3%
	as a result	-	-	3	3%	-	-
	as	-	-	1	1%	-	-
	in this way	-	-	-	-	5	2%
	thus	-	-	-	-	4	1%
	lead to	-	-	-	-	1	0.3%
	of course	-	-	-	-	1	0.3%
	by this means	-	-	-	-	1	0.3%
	with that	-	-	-	-	1	0.3%
	thereby	-	-	-	-	1	0.3%
	Consequence TOTAL	110	42	25	27%	148	48%
ALL	TOTAL	263	100%	92	100%	305	100%

The most frequently used *transition* markers in the present corpus were *and* for addition (26% in the pre-tests; 39% in the TM; and 29% in the post-tests), *because* for consequence (25% in pre-tests; 7% in the TM, and 28% in the post-tests), and *but* for comparison (12%in the pre-tests, 3% in the TM; and 7% in the post-tests.).

These three most preferred tokens (and, because, but) accounted for over 60% of the entire transitions used in both pre- and post-tests, and the ratio for these three markers was around 50% in the TM.

There are other studies of metadiscourse in academic writing which also revealed that these three transition tokens (*and, because, but*) were the most frequently used transitions in English academic discourse (Martinez, 2002; Anwardeen et al., 2013; Ho & Li, 2018; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018; Dumlao & Wilang, 2019; Qin & Ucelli, 2019). Ho and Li (2018) state that "these tokens were most preferred probably because of their syntactical simplicity and thus ease of use" (p.57). Their suggestion was in line with the findings of the present study. In the online questionnaire of the present study, the participants were asked to choose the markers they found difficult to use while writing, and the results showed that *and, because, but* and *so* were the markers that they thought they did not have much difficulty in using. On the other hand, many participants had difficulty in using result in (31/50; 62%), due to (27/50; 54%), apart from (25/50; 50%), while (24/50; 48%) and because of (23/50; 46%), (see Figure 5.1).
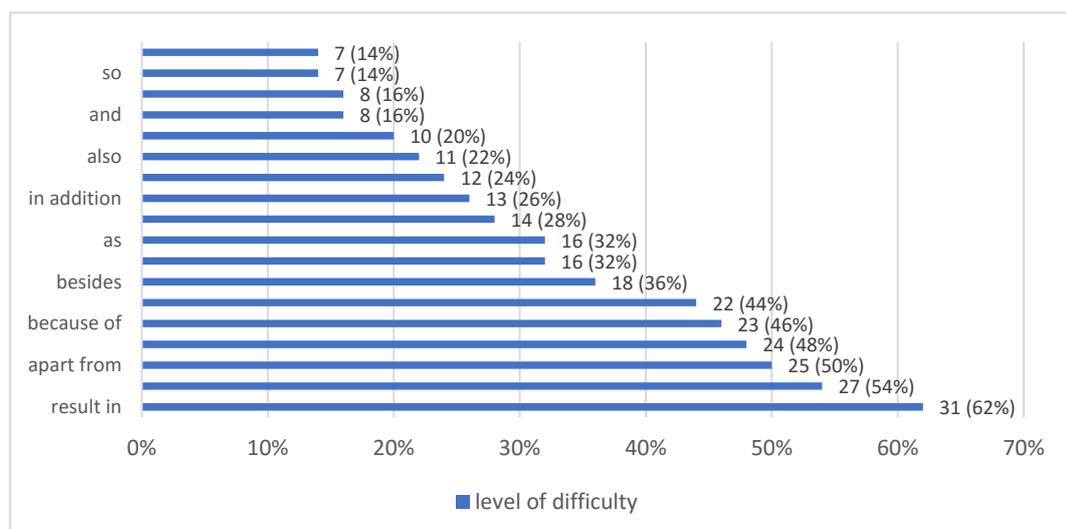
Figure 5.1. Transitions that L2 Writers Found Difficult to Use (N=50)

When the participants were asked about why they preferred to use some metadiscourse forms over others, many participants (22/50) stated that they preferably used the MD devices they were familiar with and they made it clear that they did not use the newly learned MD forms because they did not feel confident about how to use them in a sentence. Moreover, 7 participants reported that some markers were not illustrated with a sufficient number of examples nor practiced with additional exercises; therefore, they did not learn to use the new metadiscourse items in a sentence. These findings explain why students heavily relied on certain forms such as *and, because* and *but,* and abstained from using other transitions presented in the teaching material. The teaching materials could be held liable for the over-reliance on some particular transition markers in the students' papers since the TM itself had a limited set of *transitions* and there were not enough exercises or activities to practice different metadiscourse forms.

5.4.1. Transitions of Addition

The category of addition has eleven different forms of additive transitions in the pre-treatment corpus of the present study: 'and', 'also', 'or', 'too', 'in addition', 'furthermore', 'not just for', 'by the way', 'even', 'after that/this', and 'then'. In the post-treatment corpus, identified addition forms were 'and', 'also', 'or', 'too', 'besides', 'moreover', 'furthermore', 'even', 'after this/that', and 'both…and'. In the teaching material, on the other hand, only six forms of addition were identified: *and, also, or, in addition to, apart from,* and *besides*. Figure 5.2 illustrates the *additive transitions* with their percentages.

Transitions of Addition

	and	also	or	too	in addition	furthe rmore	not just for	by the way	even (more over)	after that/t his	then	beside s	in additio n to	apart from	moreo ver	both... and
pre-test	70%	15%	6%	2%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
TM	58%	13%	13%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3%	8%	5%	0%	0%
post-test	72%	16%	5%	1%	0%	1%	0%	0%	1%	1%	0%	2%	0%	0%	2%	1%
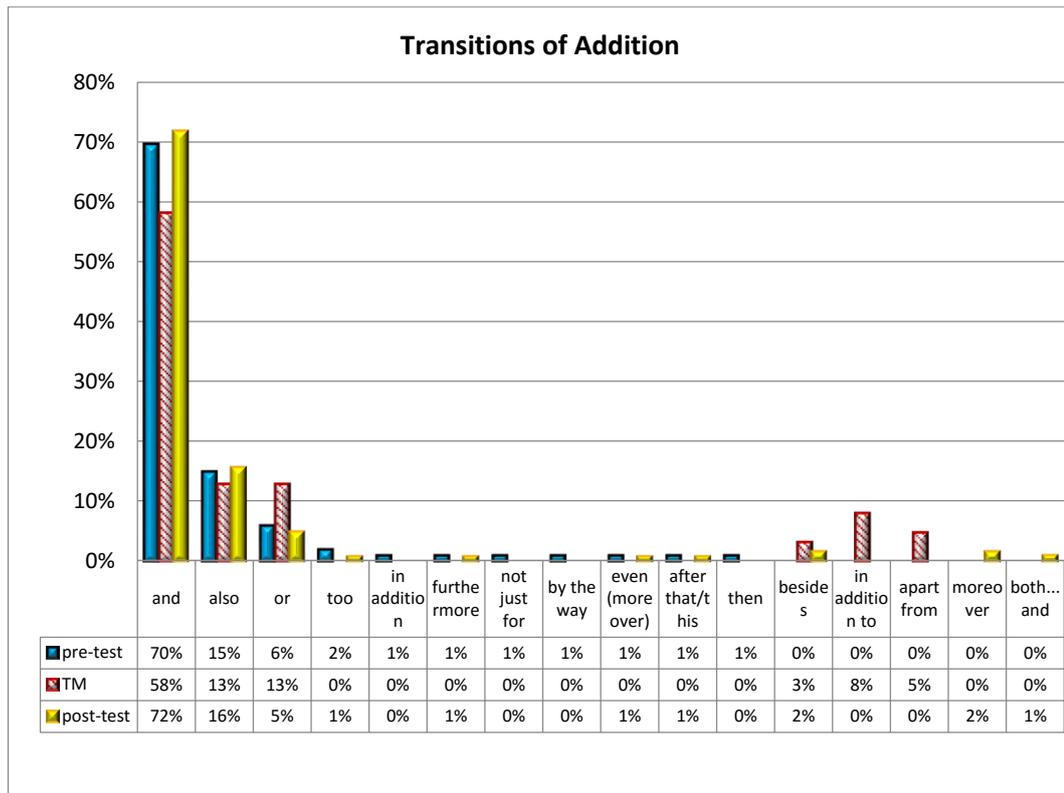
Figure 5.2. Distribution of 'Additive Transitions' in Pre-tests, TMs and Post-tests

As can be seen in Figure 5.2, *and* is the most frequently used item here among the entire set of additive transitions with around 70 percent in both pre- and post-tests. This means that nearly three quarters of additive markers were signaled with *and* to add and explain ideas in student paragraphs. *Also* (15% in both pre- and post-tests) and *or* (6% and 5% in pre- and post-tests, respectively) followed *and* as the second and third most preferred forms of additive markers. The last eight forms in the pre-tests (i.e. *too, in addition, furthermore, not just for, by the way, even, after that/this,* and *then*) comprised 8.5% of the total additive transitions. Likewise, the last seven addition forms in the post-tests (*too, furthermore, even, after that/this, besides, moreover,* and *both...and* comprised 7.5% of the total additive transitions.

In the teaching material, the most frequent tokens of these forms were *and* (58%), *also* (13%) and *or* (13%). In pre- and post-tests, the L2 novice writers preferred *and* with around 70% use. Although the participants did not use *besides* in their pre-tests, there were two occurrences of *besides* in post-tests, which means that the participants tried to utilize the input given. However, they did not employ *in addition*

to, and *apart from* in their post-tests even though these markers occurred in TMs. Students may be avoiding using these markers because of their difficulty in use on syntactic grounds (Asassfeh et al., 2013). On the other hand, the participants employed other additives such as *too, moreover, furthermore, moreover, after that* and *both...and,* which are not given in the instructional material. In fact, *moreover* and *furthermore* were employed in the TM, but they were functioning as frame markers, not as transitions.

The results demonstrated that the teaching material had a limited variety and range of additive transitions which were confined to particular markers such as *and, also* and *or*. Since the input itself offered a small set of additive transitions, it was not surprising to find that the participants heavily relied on certain *additive* markers even after the treatment. In fact, some participants did not confine the variety of additive transitions forms in their paragraphs to the ones given in the material. They had an attempt in trying more varied and different forms of transitions. This shows their willingness to learning a wider range of MDMs.

The following sub-sections (5.4.1, 5.4.2, 5.4.3 and 5.4.4) present meanings and functions attributed to the additive markers while writing opinion paragraphs. First, the most frequent *additive mark*ers (and, also, but), and then the other set of *additives* are discussed.

5.4.1.1. And

'And' was the most commonly used additive marker in the students' writings as well as the teaching material. Alone, this particular marker established a ratio of 70% and over of the additive markers, and around 30% of the total set of transitions in the students' pre and post-treatment writings. In the TM, the ratio of *and* to the total additives was 58%, and almost 40% to the entire set of transitions. When connecting words and sentences to add information, *and* was the marker that immediately came to the students' mind. An example of this instance was witnessed while one participant was verbalizing his thoughts in the think-aloud protocol:

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Example 5.1. Transition-Addition-AND (Think-aloud session)

> M29: [thinks what to write in his final point and how to connect his ideas]
> Now, I will give my third reason to support my idea. I will write about buying electronics at cheaper prices in other countries. If students go to other countries, they can buy electronics cheaper there than in our country. It is important to buy electronics because we live in the technology age. <u>I will also add that we need electronics in every area of our life.</u>
> [starts writing]
> Thirdly, you can buy electronics cheaper than our country. <u>This age is technology age and every time we need electronics.</u>

Considering the participants' lower level of proficiency in English, it was not surprising that *and* was their primary marker when adding ideas because of its syntactical and semantic simplicity (Ho & Li, 2018). They overused *and* to make up for their unfamiliarity with other transitions of addition (see Example 5.2).

Example 5.2. Transition-Addition- AND (Overuse; Post-treatment student paragraph, SP henceforth*)*

> M14: I strongly believe that high school students should go to schools outside their home districts. There are a lot of reasons to studying outside. First, education opportunities are better outside. If students want good education, they usually choose other cities. For example, there are a lot of schools in cities. <u>And</u> sometimes student want to earn money <u>and</u> enjoy life. Students do not want help from their parents <u>and</u> they find a job. For one thing, high school students want to be free <u>and</u> learn to live alone <u>and</u> improve themselves for future life <u>and</u> tackle everything in life. If you ask me, I prefer high school students' going to schools outside. All in all, if students want to improve themselves, they should go to schools outside.

The over-reliance of the additive marker *and* among L2 English users has been witnessed in earlier studies (e.g., Martinez, 2002; Chan & Tan, 2010; Asassfeh et. al; 2013; Ho & Li, 2018; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018; Dumlao & Wilang, 2019). In Dumlao and Wilang's (2019) study, for instance, *and* comprises 68% of total elaborative (addition) markers in L2 English users' writings. In fact, the prevalent use of *and* is not specific to L2 English users. Similar findings regarding the high frequency of *and* were found in L1 English users' writings in the same study of Dumlao and Wilang (2019). Although the frequency rate of *and* was close in both language user contexts, Dumlao and Wilang (2019) uncovered that while L2 English users employed *and* repetitively and sometimes inappropriately, L1 English users employed and placed it appropriately in their writings.

Since "the quantity does not always equal quality" as can be seen from the findings of Dumlao and Wilang's (2019) study, the uses of all interactive metadiscourse markers were analyzed within their contexts to determine the appropriateness level of their use. Table 5.6 demonstrates appropriate use (CU), inappropriate use (IU) and overuse (OU) of *and* in students' pre- and post-texts in English.

Table 5.6. Descriptive Statistics of Appropriate Use (CU), Incorrect Use (IU) and Overuse (OU) of 'and' in Pre- and Post-Training Writings

Pre-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	64	4	1	69
	Percentage	93%	6%	1%	100%
Post-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	77	7	3	87
	Percentage	89%	8%	3%	100%

The descriptive statistics indicated students used *and* appropriately with 93% in pre-tests and 89% in post-tests. On the other hand, the error count in the use of *and* is 6% in pre-tests and 8% in post-tests. There was also an overuse of *and* by 1% in pre-tests and 3% in post-tests. It seems that while students used *and* appropriately in most of the cases, there were a few inappropriate forms of *and* in both pre- and post-tests.

The following sentences give examples of appropriate use (Example 5.2), inappropriate use (Example 5.3 and 5.4) and overuse (Example 5.5) of *and* in the students' writings:

Example 5.3. Transition-Addition- AND (Correct Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> M24: Secondly, you can meet some foreign people. It helps learning their language and makes you a social person.

Example 5.4. Transition-Addition- AND (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> F11: Students want good universities with kind and good teachers and their country's schools are not good enough.

In Example 5.4, the expectations of students from universities contradict the reality. Thus, the meaning needed here is *but*.

Example 5.5. Transition-Addition- AND (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> F2: In our country, there are many universities <u>and</u> this decreases the education quality.

As in Example 5.5, the use of *and* is incorrect since a decrease in the quality of education is not expected when there are many universities in the country. Therefore, *and* is confusing to the reader. Instead, a contrastive marker such as *but* or *however* might be more appropriate to understand the writer's intended meaning. The error in Example 5.5 may be attributed to the interference of the corresponding expression "…*ve bu da....*" in Turkish. '…*ve bu da'* functions like the pronoun 'which' in a sentential relative clause. The participant F2 needed either to use a sentential relative clause ("...which decreases the education quality.") or begin a new sentence ("This decreases the education quality.") in this example. A similar error was observed in two more student paragraphs.

There was one case of overuse in pre-tests and three cases in post-tests. Example 5.6 is presented below to show an overuse of *and*:

Example 5.6. Transition-Addition- AND (Overuse; Post-treatment SP)

> M19: For example, when we stay in dormitory, we can learn to live with other people. This helps develop our communication with other people. Besides, when we have a meeting, we can understand people's things <u>and</u> we may respect them and we can shape ourselves.

Since there are three items (*we can understand people's things/we may respect them/we can shape ourselves*) in a series in this example, a comma was needed before the second item ("we may respect them*"*). The writer, however, did not prefer to finish his sentence and start a new one. This participant (M19) was one of informants in the think-aloud protocols and follow-up interviews. In the interview, when the participant was asked why he preferred to overuse *and*, he told that:

Example 5.7. Transition-Addition-AND (Follow-up Interview Data)

> "I was too much focused on the content that I just did not realize the overuse of and in that sentence."

The participant here focused on the product and did not pay attention to the aspects of process writing. What is more, he did not spare any time for revising or editing his mistakes during or after writing. This learner was not aware of the fact that writing is a process rather than a product (Zamel, 1983; Cheng & Steffenson, 1996; Algi, 2012; Uluçay; 2014). L2 writers should be reminded of this fact and be trained in the essential steps of process writing such as revising and editing for organization, style, language use, etc. in order for the students to realize their mistakes and fix them before they submit their papers.

The participants who inappropriately used *and* in their pre-tests were able to use it correctly in their post-tests. However, there are some instances for the opposite. The students who used *and* to signal addition in their pre-tests failed to use it correctly in their post-tests.

Since carelessness and hastiness plays a role in the misuse of some easy to use metadiscourse markers such as *and*, novice writers should be reminded of the fact that the first draft is not the final product in writing. Nunan and Lamb (1996) suggests that "making mistakes is a healthy part of the learning process, and that mistakes and subsequent corrections can provide the learner with valuable information on the target language" (p.68). Therefore, learners should be trained in and guided through the steps of revising and editing more for an effective writing development.

5.4.1.2. Also

'Also' was the second-most frequently used addition marker in the present L2 English corpus. It comprised 15% and 16% of total additive transition category in both pre- and post-tests, respectively. Similarly, this ratio was 13% in the teaching material. This is in consistency with the results of some earlier studies investigating English L2 users' writings (e.g. Chan & Tan, 2010; Qin & Ucelli, 2018). The overuse phenomenon of *also* was observed and described in Chan and Tan's (2010) study. They found that in the MU Corpus (L2 English corpus of Malaysian students),

also was used more than twice than in the BAWE Corpus (L1 English corpus). It seems that L2 users digressed from the native norms with regard to the use of *also*.

However, the findings regarding the rank ordering of *also* in the present study shows differences from the findings of Dumlao and Wilang (2019). In their study, both L1 and L2 English users preferred *or* (6.32% and 10.70% respectively) in the second place, and *also* (4.64% and 6.19 respectively) in the third place. The participants in the present study employed *also* almost three times more than the participants in the study of Dumlao and Wilang (2019). This may be due to the difference in the proficiency level of participants between these two studies. While our participants are B1 level novice English users at the English prep-school program in a university, the participants in Dumlao and Wilang's (2019) study were BA TESOL program recruits, using English language more efficiently and appropriately.

Teaching materials could be responsible for the over-reliance on the use of *also*. Since *also* was a frequently used item in the TM, no change was observed in the students' papers after the treatment, regarding the frequency of *also* use.

To investigate whether *also* was correctly used, incorrectly used or overused by the participants, the contextual analysis of *also* was conducted for both pre- and post-English paragraphs, and the analysis in the data revealed the following results in Table 5.7:

Table 5.7. Descriptive Statistics for 'also' with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

Pre-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	12	-	3	15
	Percentage	80%	0%	20%	100%
Post-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	13	1	5	19
	Percentage	69%	5%	26%	100%

As Table 5.7 illustrates, 20% of the total *also* occurrences were unnecessarily used in pre-tests, and this ratio increase to 25% in post-tests. This means that one fifth and one quarter of *also* employment in pre- and post-tests were overused. The

following examples are presented to compare how *also* is used correctly, incorrectly and unnecessarily.

Example 5.8. Transition-Addition- ALSO (Correct Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> F15: First of all, students will meet foreign people and learn foreign culture outside their home districts. Also, they can see different places. They will join a lot of events outside their districts.

Example 5.9. Transition-Addition- ALSO (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M20: I think main advantage is improving language. Also, if you go abroad, you learn the language.

Also was used incorrectly by the participant M20. After the use of *also*, the reader expects to read a relevant fact such as "Also, if you go abroad, you can meet different cultures." This would have a meaning for "in addition to improving the language, you can meet different cultures". The participant M20, however, is restating what he wrote in the previous sentence. A code-gloss such as *in other words* would be more appropriate. This example was extracted from the post-test of the participant, meaning that he had already been taught metadiscourse markers used in opinion paragraphs. However, the writer does not seem to be reflecting the difference between additive markers and clarification markers in his writing.

Example 5.10. Transition-Addition- ALSO (Overuse; Post-treatment SP)

> M15: On the other hand, high school students have to learn city life. In the city, students can learn how to be a good person and they also can learn how to live without parents.

There was not a need for *also* in the sentence since *and* was used already to signal a forthcoming idea to give additional meaning.

As be seen from the examples, although some students were aware of how to use *also* appropriately in their writings, some students tended to misuse or overuse it. Detecting the overuse of certain metadiscourse markers as in the instance of *also* here is significant in order to fix the students' misunderstanding of context-specific rhetorical expectations (Qin & Ucelli, 2019).

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5.4.1.3. Or

Or has the third highest frequency of use in the category of addition both in the pre-(6%) and post-tests (5%) with 6 occurrences in pre- and post-treatment corpora. In the teaching material, on the other hand, *or* makes up 13% (used 8 times) of the additives. The percentage of *or* use is higher in the teaching materials compared to its percentage in the student paragraphs. It is due to the limited variety in the forms of additives employed in the TM. In the TM, additives were comprised of only four different forms (i.e. *and, also, or, besides*) whereas the students used more varied forms of additives in their writings.

Table 5.8 shows frequencies and their corresponding percentages for the context-bound analysis of *or*:

Table 5.8. Descriptive Statistics for 'or' with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

Pre-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	3	2	1	6
	Percentage	50%	33,3%	16.7%	100%
Post-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	4	2	-	6
	Percentage	66.7%	33.3%	0%	100%

As Table 5.8 shows, a third of *or* use is incorrectly employed in both pre-and post-English writings. There is also one occurrence of overuse in pre-tests. The findings here demonstrate that some participants were not aware of how to use *or* correctly while writing academic paragraphs, and the teaching material does not seem to have much effect on the frequency of accurate usage of *or*. Consider the following example for the inaccurate usage of *or*:

Example 5.11. Transition-Addition-OR (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

M23: As an example, students contact other people or they improve themselves.

"...or they improve themselves" is not logically harmonizing with the previous idea in his example. There seems to be a conditional relationship between these two sentences. Therefore, reconstructing the statement with the conditional *if* would

clear the ambiguity in the meaning: "If students contact with other people, they can improve themselves". Alternatively, the student could use "By contacting with other people, students can improve themselves".

When the paragraphs of the participants who used *or* incorrectly were analyzed in detail, it was realized that these students were poor writers. Consider the whole paragraph of the participant F11, where interactive metadiscourse markers are underlined:

Example 5.12. Transition - Incorrect Usage of OR and OTHER TRANSITIONS (Pre-treatment SP)

> F11: Many students choose go to other country's university <u>because</u> their country's schools not good yet. This is very problem. I think, students choose go to their country's universities <u>but</u> I sometimes agree with students. Students want good universities kind and good teacher <u>and</u> their country's school not good yet <u>so</u>, they don't want to go to their country's universities. Their country's teachers say: You should do homework every day <u>or</u> you mustn't go to home early <u>because</u> you should do homework, but students don't want do homework every day. When this homework or exams are necessity, students are very bored <u>and</u> they feel sad <u>so</u> they don't want to go to their country's university. Their country's universities not good yet <u>so</u> they don't like this situation. I agree with students <u>but</u> I don't want to agree <u>because</u> I want the development of education in our country <u>but</u> our country's trainers don't nothing for development of education.

This sample paragraph shows that the problem in the participant F11's writing was not solely the problematic use of the MD marker *or*. She had problems with other markers and signalers (e.g., *but, and, so*), as well. In fact, the paragraph was weak overall due to insufficient linguistic proficiency, lack of ideas, inappropriate use of vocabulary, etc. It is apparent that the participant's inadequate command of the English language showed its reflection on the use of MDMs. This finding complies with the results of Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995). In their study, it was found that skilled writers are aware of the needs of their readers, thus use a greater variety of metadiscourse features in their essays whereas poor writers pay superficial attention to the use MDMs and generate inconsiderate texts.

5.4.1.4. Other Markers of Addition

As stated earlier, the other transitions of *addition* employed in the students' pre- and post-treatment writings had different sets of additive forms. The other forms of additives employed in the pre-test were 'in addition', 'furthermore', 'not just for', 'by the way', 'even', 'after that/this', and 'then'. The other additives in the post-tests, on the other hand, were 'besides', 'moreover', 'furthermore', 'even', 'after this/that', and 'both…and'. In the teaching materials, the other set of additives were 'addition to', 'apart from' and 'besides'. 'Besides' also occurred in the TM as the least frequently used additive marker (3%). There were 2 occurrences of 'besides' in the post-tests, which shows the participants' attempt in utilizing the metadiscourse in the teaching materials. However, they did not employ 'in addition to', and 'apart from' in their post-tests even though these markers occurred in the TM. Students may be avoiding using these markers because of their difficulty in use on syntactic grounds (Asassfeh et al., 2013). Table 5.9 demonstrates the context-bound appropriateness of these markers in the students' pre- and post-tests:

Table 5.9. Frequency for Other Transitions of Addition with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-Treatment Texts

	Pre-tests (f)				Post-tests (f)			
	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
too	2	-	-	2	1	-	-	1
in addition	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
furthermore	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
not just for	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
by the way	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
even (moreover)	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
after that/this	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	1
then	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
besides	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	2
moreover	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	2
both...and	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1

These figures indicate that, in pre-tests, there is one incorrectly used instance of *after that*. As can be seen from Example 5.13, the content of the idea following *after that* does not aptly relate to the idea of the previous sentence:

Example 5.13. Transition-Addition- AFTER THAT (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> M2: Thirdly education materials are too expensive in my country, for example, books, tablets and computers. If you have middle class family, you cannot buy these things. <u>After that</u> standards of European countries are so high.

As for *even*, it was counted as an addition marker in some contexts although in others, due to its multi-functionality, it was categorized as a member of comparison markers (see section 5.4.2). *Even* was used to add further information in additive transition contexts, but as can be seen from Table 5.9, *even* was inappropriately used by one participant in pre-test and by another participant in post-test. The following examples show how the students failed to use *even* inappropriately in their texts:

Example 5.14. Transition-Addition- EVEN (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> F20: There are a lot of chances for us. You can learn new languages. <u>Even</u> you may work there if you are successful.

Example 5.15. Transition-Addition- EVEN (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> F14: Finally, they can have a better education and <u>even</u> they care their education more.

The participants F20 and F14 used *even* to add facts. In their writings, *even* has the meaning for moreover ("Moreover, you may work there"; and "Moreover, they care their education more".) When the participant F14 was interviewed and asked why she used *even* in such context, she stated that she wanted to use a linker which has the same meaning with *hatta* in Turkish. *Hatta* corresponds to the expression *even* in English, but the meaning here, in fact, is *moreover*. Since the learner did not earn competence in using certain metadiscourse markers of the English language, she could not find the functional equivalents of this marker in the target language. Therefore, she translated and transferred the native-language structure (*hatta*) into the foreign language use, which affected the meaning and appropriateness in L2 usage negatively. Chesterman (1998, p.42) describes such L1 interference in L2 writing as "the belief that native-language structures […] tend to be transferred in foreign-language performance, and thus produce errors or deviant usage of various kinds".

The other transitions, on the other hand, such as *too, moreover, furthermore, in addition, not just for, by the way, then* and *both...and* are appropriately used in the

students' papers, which shows that the students had the awareness on how to use these additive markers appropriately in their texts.

5.4.2. Transitions of Comparison

C*omparison* (*adversatives)* was the least frequent type among the three main categories of transitions in the present study (20% use in pre-tests, 12% in post-tests and 5% in the TM). In earlier studies which investigated metadiscourse in L2 writings, it was also found that *adversatives* was the least frequently transition type in persuasive essays (e.g., Chan & Tan, 2010, Asassfeh, et al. 2013; Anwardeen et al., 2013). The findings indicated that the genre affected the preferences in the use of metadiscourse (Ädel, 2006, p.58).

In the category of comparison (contrastive transitions), there were six forms in the pre-tests (i.e. *but, however, on the other hand, despite, even if,* and *even*), and five forms in the post-tests (*but, however, on the other hand, even if,* and *yet*). But was overused in both pre- and post-treatment writings (60%). It was followed by *however* (20.37%), *on the other hand* (14.81%), *despite* (1.85%), *even if* (1.85%) and *even* (1.85) in pre-tests; and by *however* (19.44%), *on the other hand* (16.67%), *even if* (2.78%) and *yet* (2.78%) in post-tests In the TM, there were only 5 occurrences of *comparative transitions (adversatives)* which appeared in three forms: *but* (60%)*, however* (20%)*, and while* (20%)(see Figure 5.3).

	but	however	on the other hand	despite	even if	even (though)	yet	while
ENG pre-test	59%	20%	15%	2%	2%	2%	0%	0%
TM	60%	20%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	20%
ENG post-test	58%	19%	17%	0%	3%	0%	3%	0%
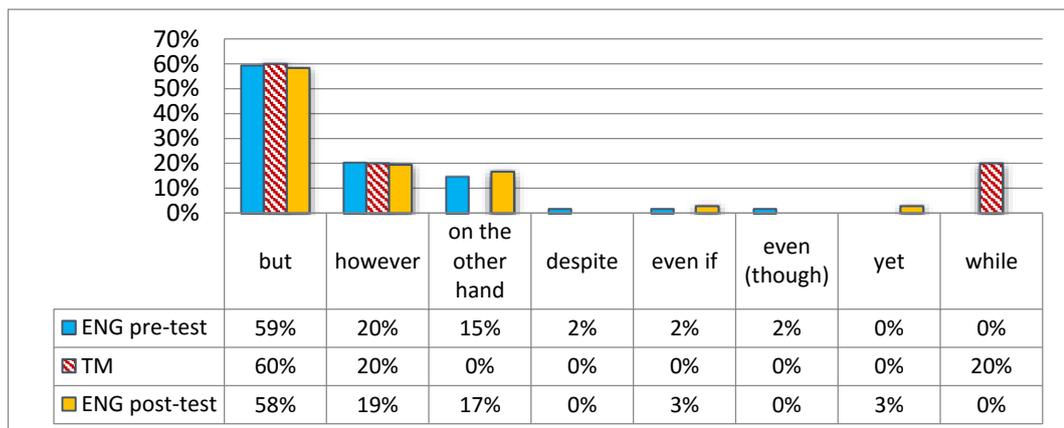
Figure 5.3. Distribution of 'Contrastive Connectives' in the Three Sets of Data

But and *however* were employed with similar rates in the TM and student paragraphs (*but*: around 60%, and however: 20% in all three sets of data), which means that the TM could be responsible for the students' over-reliance on *but* and *however* to signal contrastive information. *While* was not present in the students' writings, which again could be attributed to the lack of enough practice for this marker. The participants tried some other contrastive markers that were absent in the TM such as *on the other hand*, *even if* and *yet*. This indicates that although the participants in the present study are novice writers in the second language, they show eagerness to try different metadiscourse markers in their writings. Ädel (2006) suggests that non-native students employ more metadiscourse than native students do since "non-native speakers primarily aim to show their skills in the English language" (p.144). This could explain why the participants employed different forms of *transitions* that did not exist in the teaching materials.

5.4.2.1. But

The participants in the current study overused *but* with almost 60% in both pre- and post- English writings. The frequency rate of *but* in the teaching material (60%) is identical with the ones in the student paragraphs. Therefore, the TM could be held liable for the over-reliance on the use of *but* in the students' post writings. According to Fraser (1999), *but* is by far the most ubiquitous contrastive discourse marker because it has the least restrictions on its occurrence. Similarly, Ho and Li (2018) also suggests that *but* is the most frequently used contrastive marker because of its ease of use.

Similar findings have revealed the high frequency of *but* in the writings of L2 English users (e.g. Chan & Tan, 2010; Mohamed & Rashid, 2017; Dumlao & Wilang, 2018; Ho & Li, 2018; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018; Qin & Ucelli, 2019). The high frequency of *but* has also been observed among L1 English users (Chan & Tan, 2010; Dumlao & Wilang, 2018). However, it was found that L2 English users employed *but* much more frequently than L1 English users. In Dumlao and Wilang (2018), it was found that while L1 English users use *but* by 34% in the category of contrastive connectives, this rate was 59% among L2 English users. The high

frequency of *but* use among L2 English users in the study of Dumlao and Wilang (2018) and the present study is almost identical (59% in both studies), which shows that L2 English users tend to rely heavily on *but* to contrast arguments and evidence in their writings. Considering the fact that the proficiency level of participants in English is different in the present study (low proficiency level) and in Dumlao and Wilang (2018) (high proficiency level), it can be concluded that the proficiency level did not play a role in the over-reliance on *but* for L2 English users.

To explore whether *but* was correctly used, incorrectly used or overused by the participants, the contextual analysis of *but* was conducted for both pre- and post-English paragraphs, and the analysis in the data revealed the following results in Table 5.10:

Table 5.10. Descriptive Statistics for 'but' with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

Pre-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	28	3	1	32
	Percentage	87.5%	9.4%	3,1%	100%
Post-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	21	-	-	21
	Percentage	100%	33.3%	0%	100%

As Table 5.10 shows, the appropriate use of *but* was 87.5% in pre-tests and this percentage increased to 100% in post-tests, which means that all occurrences of *but* in post- English writings were appropriately used since there were no incorrect or overuse occurrences of the item. The following examples show how students appropriately used (Example 5.21) misused (Example 5.22) and overused (Example 5.23) *but* in their paragraphs:

Example 5.16. Transition-Comparison- BUT (Correct Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> F2: For instance, if students go to school outside it can be hard <u>but</u> they will have a lot of experience about their education or their life.

In Example 5.16, we can see how the participant implemented *but* appropriately to convey contrastive relations between the ideas.

Example 5.17. Transition-Comparison- BUT (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> F11: I think, students choose go to their country's universities <u>but</u> I sometimes agree with students.

F11 does not offer an unexpected or contrasting idea after *but*. *And* would be the more appropriate signaller here. F11 does not seem to know how to implement *but* to signal a contrastive concept.

Example 5.18. Transition-Comparison- BUT (Overuse; Pre-treatment SP)

> F11: I agree with students but I don't want to agree because I want the development of education in our country <u>but</u> our country's trainers don't do nothing for development of education.

F11 overused *but* in this example. A new sentence is required here, starting with *However* or something similar in meaning such as *Nevertheless, Nonetheless*, etc. This student's whole paragraph was demonstrated in Example 5.16 to see how she used the additive transition *or* clumsily*,* and it was realized that she used other markers including *but* incorrectly since she had inadequate command over the English language.

Although there were a few instances of incorrect and overuse of *but*, the participants used it mostly appropriately. The success in the use of *but* by the novice English L2 writers in the present study might be attributed to its syntactical simplicity, which makes it easy to use in nearly every context (Fraser, 1999; Ho & Li, 2018).

5.4.2.2. However

However was the second ranking metadiscourse marker as a transition of comparison in the pre-tests, the TM and post-tests (20%, 20% and 19%, respectively). Since there was an over-reliance on *however* in the teaching material, the students did not feel the need to change the habit of overusing this marker after the treatment.

The percentages in the use of *however* indicates that one fifth of the contrast relations between the ideas were signaled with *however*. The percentage of *however*

in the present study is higher than the previous studies (e.g. Dumlao & Wilang, 2018; Qin & Ucelli, 2019). In Dumlao and Wilang (2018), the percentage of *however* use was 9.85% among the L2 English users, and 11.3% among the L1 English users. The reason why the participants in the present study overused *however* may be the low proficiency level of the participants. Since the participants in Dumlao and Wilang (2018), for instance, had higher proficiency level in English, they had more variety in their use of contrastive transitions such as *although, though, nonetheless, still, rather* and *while,* thereby relying less on *however* to signal contrastive information than the novice students in the present study did.

As Table 5.11 shows, all occurrences of *however* were pragmatically appropriate in the pre-tests, whereas there was one incorrect occurrence in post-tests.

Table 5.11. Descriptive Statistics for 'however' with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-treatment Writings

Pre-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	11	-	-	11
	Percentage	100%	0%	0%	100%
Post-tests		**CU**	**IU**	**OU**	**TOTAL**
	N	6	1	-	7
	Percentage	85.7%	14.3%	0%	100%

The following two examples show how one participant (M1) appropriately used *however*, whereas the other (M20) failed to do so.

Example 5.19. Transition-Comparison- HOWEVER (Correct Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M1: Furthermore, you become independent and free. These are very important for self-improvement. However, there are also negative aspects. Lonely life is very difficult.

Example 5.20. Transition-Comparison- HOWEVER (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M20: Also if you go to abroad, you know the language. However, you will definitely improve your speaking skills.

M20 failed to present a contrast flow of conception with *however*. That was the one and only occurrence of incorrect use of *however*.

5.4.2.3. On the Other Hand

The third most frequently used contrastive transition was *on the other hand* in both pre- and post-test English data (14.8% in pre-tests and 16.7% in post-tests). When *on the other hand* was contextually analyzed with regard to its correct use, incorrect use and overuse, it was found out that 75% of *on the other hand* occurrences in pre-tests and 50% in post-tests were inappropriately used.

Table 5.12. Descriptive Statistics for 'on the other hand' with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

Pre-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
N		2	6	-	8
Percentage		25%	75%	0%	100%
Post-tests		**CU**	**IU**	**OU**	**TOTAL**
N		3	3	-	6
Percentage		50%	50%	0%	100%

On the other hand is used to present the second of two contrasting ideas, or to constitute an alternative proposition within some superordinate topic (Fraser, 1999). The following example shows how *on the other hand* was correctly used:

Example 5.21. Transition-Comparison- ON THE OTHER HAND (Correct Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M7: That is, going to schools outside is beneficial for these reasons. <u>On the other hand,</u> it has some bad effects.

However, the high percentage of incorrect occurrences in the use of *on the other hand* indicates that the participants found it difficult to utilize this contrastive signaller correctly. Ho & Waugh (2008) states that when L2 users do not know when and how to use contrastive linkers to signal contrasting concepts or/and adverse circumstance in writing, contrastive relations between the points or facts are not appropriately signalled by contrastive markers (as cited in Liu, 2016). We can observe such cases in the following examples:

Example 5.22. Transition-Comparison- ON THE OTHER HAND (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> F12: For example, some students work in German factories such as chocolate, computer or furniture factories. <u>On the other hand</u>, I don't support this situation because some students don't come back their home countries.

Here, instead of *on the other hand*, the writer F12 would use *however*, which will provide the meaning for a simple denial of the earlier statement. But, it is difficult for the novice writer to recognize the subtle and complex concepts of contrast relations (Liu, 2016).

The students often used *on the other hand* to give additional information instead of offering a contrast relation:

Example 5.23. Transition-Comparison- ON THE OTHER HAND (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> F21: I think, yes we should choose to attend university outside our country because our country does not give necessary opportunity. For example, we don't learn enough foreign language. <u>On the other hand</u>, our system isn't fair.

That the L2 English users employed *on the other hand* to imply the wrong type of relations is confirmed in the findings of Zhang (2000) and Gardner and Han (2018). In their study, it was found that the students employed adversative (contrastive) connectors such as *on the other hand* to add further explanation rather than offering a contrasting idea. Such incorrect usage was also observed in the think-aloud writing of one participant:

Example 5.24. Transition-Comparison- ON THE OTHER HAND (Incorrect Usage; Think-aloud session)

> M19: [after writing one advantage of staying in dormitories while studying in another city, he tries to find another advantage of dormitories]
> When we stay in dormitories, we learn how to live with others. When we get together with other people, we can understand and respect their feelings. OK. <u>But, what else?</u> <u>What other advantages do we have when we stay in dorms? What else?</u> Well, we learn how to handle our jobs.
> [starts writing]
> <u>On the other hand,</u> we can know how we do our jobs because we are alone and nobody could help us.

When M19 was later asked in the follow-up interview for why he preferred to use *on the other hand* in such context, he stated that he thought in his native tongue while choosing and placing this transition:

> "I used on the other hand, like its correspondent transition 'öteki taraftan ele almak gerekirse' in Turkish. But, I should have used something else like 'in addition' here." (M19; follow-up interview data)

Therefore, such incorrect usage in L2 writing could be attributed to the L1 influence. The corresponding marker of *on the other hand* is *öte yandan (*or *öteki taraftan ele almak gerekirse)* in Turkish. As in *on the other hand*, *öte yandan* is used to signal a contrast flow of conception. However, M19 does not seem to know how to use *öte yandan* appropriately in Turkish as well. M19 seem to use *öte yandan (on the other hand)* to mean *bundan başka (what is more)*. We see that a wrong conception in L1 metadiscourse knowledge interfered with its L2 usage and thus, had a negative impact on the acquisition of L2 metadiscourse markers in writing.

Turkish students of L2 English in the present study use *on the other hand* in sentence initial position only. It is because they were novice writers and they had not seen *on the other hand* in non-sentence initial positions (typically between the subject and the verb) in their teaching materials. This finding is in accordance with the findings of Gardner and Han (2018), which compared transitions of contrast in Chinese and English university students' academic writings. In their study, it was found that English students used *on the other hand* mostly in non-sentence initial positions, whereas Chinese students used it in sentence initial position.

5.4.2.4. Other Markers of Comparison

The other markers employed in the category of contrastive transitions in the pre- and post- English writings were *despite (1.85% and 0%)*, *even if (1.85% and 2.78%)*, *even* (1.85% and 0%) and *yet (0% and 2.78)*. The participants used these contrastive transitions appropriately except for *even* (Table 5.13).

Table 5.13. Frequency for Other Transitions of Comparison with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-Treatment Texts

	Pre-tests (f)				Post-tests (f)			
	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
despite	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
even if	1	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
even (though)	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
yet	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1

The following examples show how the novice L2 writers in the present study implemented *despite*, *even if* and *yet* appropriately in their texts:

Example 5.25. Transition-Comparison-DESPITE (Correct Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> F3: You can teach what you have learned abroad to students in your country. Despite this, there are disadvantages.

Example 5.26. Transition-Comparison-EVEN IF (Correct Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> F20: Even if our major is engineering, we have to learn basic subjects such as, history, Turkish, etc. in first class.

Example 5.27. Transition-Comparison-YET (Correct Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> F10: Finally, high school students don't do housework. Actually they can do yet they shouldn't do housework.

Using these transitions of contrast correctly can be considered as a development for these novice L2 users' competence in using connectors since adversative markers such as *despite this/that* may be difficult for L2 writers to use (Gardner and Han, 2018).

One participant attempted to indicate an unexpected idea with *even though* (or *even if*) as in Example 5.36 where *though* or *if* was elided:

Example 5.28. Transition-Comparison-EVEN (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> M19: However, in Turkey, after we finish the college, we always search a job and sometimes we couldn't find it even we have a great degree.

It turned out that Turkish novice students did not have much connector variety when signalling contrastive ideas. Since the participants in the study are low in English proficiency level, the use of contrastive transitions was limited and confined to particular forms (*but*, *however* and *on the other hand*). It was also found that students found it difficult to use some items such as *on the other hand* appropriately since contrastive relations are unclear and hard to conceptualize for L2 users (Liu, 2016; Povolna, 2012).

5.4.3. Transitions of Consequence

As Hyland (2005) suggests, transitions of consequence either signals a cause and effect relationship (*so, therefore, because*), or an argument that is being countered (*anyway, in any case, of course*).

In the category of consequence, 6 forms (i.e. *because, so, therefore, because of, that's why,* and *thanks to*) were identified in pre-tests, whereas 13 forms (*because, so, therefore, because of, in this way, thus, that's why, due to, lead to, of course, by this means, with that* and *thereby*) were identified in post-tests. Apparently, the variety of causal marker forms increased in the students' post-training writings.

Transitions of *consequence* had eight forms in the TM: *because, so, result in, because of therefore, due to, as a result* and *as.* Although *due to* was not employed in the pre-tests, it occurred in one of the students' papers after the treatment. On the other hand, 3 out of these 8 causal signalers (*result in, as a result* and *as*) were not used not even for once in the students' post-tests. The absence of these markers in the students' writings could result from the fact that although these markers occurred in the sample paragraphs given in the teaching material, these metadiscourse devices were not presented explicitly. According to Cheng and Steffenson (1996), the explicit teaching of metadiscourse devices is an important step in improving students' writing skills since direct teaching of these markers not only increases the students' awareness of metadiscourse but also helps them use these devices at more appropriate levels.

Figure 5.4 illustrates the percentages of the markers that signal the cause and effect relationship between discourse segments in the three sets of data.

	beca use	so	ther efor e	beca use of	in this way	thus	that' s why	than ks to	due to	lead to	of cour se	by this mea ns	with that	ther eby	resul t in	as a resul t	as
■ ENG pre-test	60%	19%	9%	6%	0%	0%	5%	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
◪ TM	24%	20%	4%	12%	0%	0%	0%	0%	4%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	20%	12%	4%
▨ ENG post-test2	57%	21%	6%	4%	3%	3%	1%	0%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	0%	0%	0%
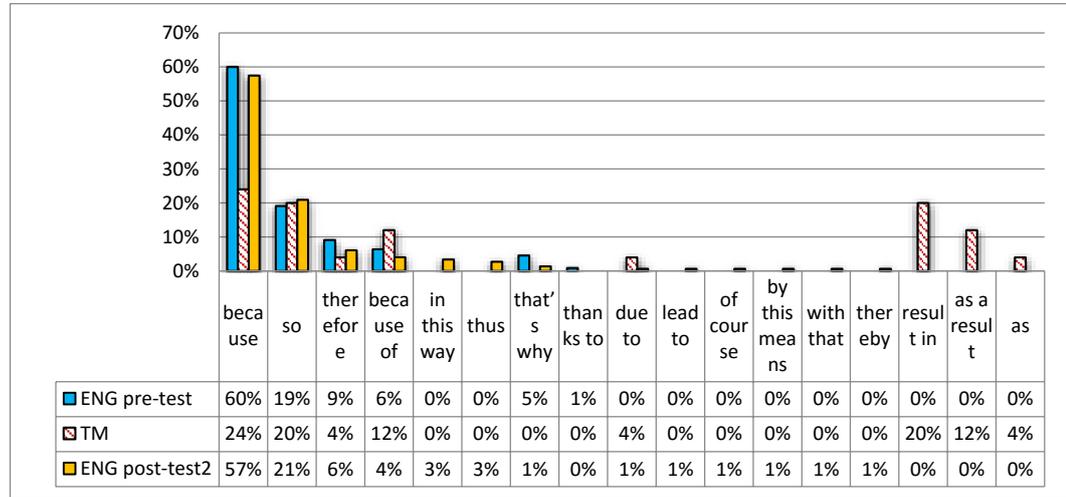
Figure 5.4. Distribution of 'Consequential Transitions' in the Three Sets of Data

The two most frequent forms, *because* and *so* account for almost 80% of consequential markers in the entire pre- and post-English data whereas the ratio for these two markers was 44% in the TM. Although the consequential markers in the TM were more evenly distributed, the over-reliance on the use of *because* and *so* was at the same level in the students' before and after treatment writings. As stated earlier, it could be attributed to the insufficient training in using these different transition forms. The other causal markers in the TM were not taught explicitly nor practiced with exercises; therefore, the students did not learn and use them in their post writings.

5.4.3.1. Because

As Figure 5.4 indicates, *because* is the most frequent causal marker and represents almost 60% of all tokens in the category of consequence in the students' papers. Our finding here conforms with the findings of Ulucay (2014). In Ulucay (2014), the frequencies and functions of causal markers used by Turkish university students of L2 English when writing cause paragraphs in both L1 and L2 were analyzed and the results were compared with an expert corpus. The study reported that the novice L2

writers used *because* almost twice as much as the expert writers. The expert writers preferred to use *since* and *as* as alternative causal conjunctions. Likewise, in Dumlao and Wilang (2018), L2 English students used *because* much more frequently than L1 English users (35% vs. 10%). L1 English users preferred some other markers such as *so that* and *since* to signal causal relationships in their essays whereas L2 users relied mostly on *because*. Similarly, in the present study, the participants did not use other causal markers such as *since* or *as* to substitute *because*.

When one participant was asked why he preferred to use *because* instead of *since* or *as*, he stated that *because* was the first item that comes to his mind when signalling a causal relation since he sees and hears this marker very frequently both in writing and in speaking. The findings may suggest that novice L2 writers rely heavily on the markers that they feel familiar with instead of trying more complex and different markers.

Table 5.14 illustrates whether *because* was appropriately used by the L2 novice writers in the present study. The findings show that around 90% of *because* use was appropriate in the students' paragraphs. The incorrect use of *because* reduced from 12% in pre-tests to 7% and post-tests, but there is 2.3% of overuse in post-tests.

Table 5.14. Descriptive Statistics for 'because' with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

Pre-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	58	8	-	66
	Percentage	87.9%	12.1%	0%	100%
Post-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	77	6	2	85
	Percentage	90.6%	7.1%	2.3%	100%

The following excerpt (Example 5.37) from a think-aloud protocol shows how the participant appropriately placed *because* in his writing to express a causal relationship:

Example 5.29. Transition-Consequence-BECAUSE (Correct Usage; Think-aloud session)

> M29: [writes his first reason so support the main idea]
> Firstly you can meet a lot of foreign people.

[thinks how to give details for the first point]
Now, <u>I want to highlight the significance of making foreign friends</u>. I believe this is an important thing <u>because when we have foreign friends, we socialize</u>. We can do a lot of activities with them. Yes, I will write it now.]
[puts his thoughts into writing]
This is important <u>because</u> you can do a lot of activities with these people.

Although some students as in Example 5.29 successfully utilizes *because* to signal causal relationships, some students failed to do so:

Example 5.30. Transition-Consequence-BECAUSE (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> M19: I think, they should choose to attend universities outside <u>because</u> there are many reason for that.

M19 did not use *because* in an appropriate way since the clause after *because* does not meaningfully explain the idea in the main clause. Namely, the information after this subordinator is devoid of meaning and redundant. It was merely sufficient to write: "*I think, they should choose to attend universities outside for many reasons"*. As Liu (2016) suggests, non-native English users apply some cause markers incorrectly since causal relations are unclear and complicated concepts.

5.4.3.2. So

So is the second most frequently used marker in the category of consequence with around 20% use in pre-tests and post-tests. Similarly, Dumlao and Wilang (2018) found that *so* is the second most common consequential marker (referred to as inferential marker in their study) in both L1 (19%) and L2 English students' (28%) writings.

When the contextual analysis was made to uncover if *so* was appropriately used or not, it was seen that 19% of *so* use was incorrectly employed in the post-tests whereas this rate was much lower in pre-tests (5%) as can be seen in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15. Descriptive Statistics for 'so' with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

Pre-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	19	1	1	21
	Percentage	90.4%	4.8%	4.8%	100%
Post-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	24	6	1	31
	Percentage	77.5%	19.3%	3.2%	100%

The following examples show how some participants could not manage to form a causal relationship between discourse segments using 'so':

Example 5.31. Transition-Consequence-SO (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> F12: For instance, I had a big problem in high school. This big problem was about solving Math problems. Then, I talked with my family, so I got private Math courses.

F12 would use *and* here rather than *so*.

It seems that even simple markers such as *so* can be inappropriately used by non-native novice writers since causal relations are unclear and complicated concepts to them (Liu, 2016). Therefore, if language teachers focus on and systematically exercise the MD markers which students have more difficulty in, students can learn and use these markers correctly.

5.4.3.3. Therefore

Therefore is the third most frequently preferred token of the category of consequence in both pre- (9%) and post-tests (6%). It is used by 4% in the TM. The frequency of *therefore* in the present corpora is different than the earlier studies. In Dumlao and Wilang (2018), it was reported that *therefore* obtained a zero percentage in L2 users' essays, and only 2 percentage in L1 users' essays. Similarly, the percentage of *therefore* occurrence is around 2% in L2 writers' essays in Qin and Ucelli's (2019) study. However, in Povolna (2012), it was reported that *therefore* represent more than one third of all consequential markers employed by novice writers. The reason why the students in the present study and in Povolna's (2012) study used *therefore* more than the L2 writers in the other studies novice

writers could be explained with the English proficiency level of the participants. In the present study and in Povolna's (2012) study, the participants have lower level of proficiency, thus rely on some particular markers when expressing causal relations.

As Table 5.16 indicates, 8 tokens out of 10 in pre-tests and 8 tokens out of 9 in post-tests were appropriately used.

Table 5.16. Descriptive Statistics for 'Therefore' with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

Pre-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	8	2	-	10
	Percentage	80%	20%	0%	100%
Post-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
	N	8	1	-	9
	Percentage	88.9%	11.1%	3.2%	100%

One participant used *therefore* inappropriately both in his pre- and post-tests:

Example 5.32. Transition-Consequence-THEREFORE (Incorrect Usage; Pre- and Post-treatment SP)

> M10 (pre-test): Almost all Turkish governments changed universities missions and goals with regulations. They have different goals and they want universities to have their goals. Therefore universities are affected badly because of that reason.
> M10 (post-test): To illustrate, when I studied in high school, I was outside my home district. Therefore, I learned my responsibilities earlier than my friends who go to school inside their home districts.

The sentences after the transition *therefore* do not express a strong causal relationship. Perhaps with *and* in place of *therefore*, the idea may be added as an afterthought, yet still be relevant and meaningful. That the student repeated the same kind of mistake in his post-test can be attributed to the underrepresentation of *therefore* in the teaching material. Markers that students have difficulty in using should be practiced more in the teaching materials. Otherwise, these erroneous forms in L2 writing could get fossilized (Schmidt, 1990).

5.4.3.4. Because of

Because of occurred as the fourth most common marker that forms a causal relation between the ideas in both pre- (6%) and post-tests (4%). It was used with a similar rate in the TM (4%). In Ulucay's (2014) study, *because of* is the most frequent cause marker used by Turkish students of L2 English in the category of complex prepositions which was followed by *due to* and *as a result of*. In her study, it was uncovered that although the novice L2 students employed *because of* frequently, they did not use it appropriately all the time. Congruent with the results of Uluçay (2014), the novice L2 writers in the present study mostly failed to use *because of* correctly in pre-tests. However, all occurrences of *because of* use are appropriate in post-tests (see Table 5.17).

Table 5.17. Descriptive Statistics for 'Because of' with respect to CU, IU and OU in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

Pre-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
N		2	5	-	7
Percentage		28.6%	71.4%	0%	100%
Post-tests		CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
N		6	-	-	6
Percentage		100%	0%	0%	100%

Example 5.33 and 5.34 compare how M24 used *because of* correctly, whereas M18 could not:

Example 5.33. Transition-Consequence-BECAUSE OF (Correct Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

  M24: I guess, if you can find a developed country for studying, don't stop, just go and live in that country <u>because of</u> the level of welfare.

Example 5.34. Transition-Consequence-BECAUSE OF (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

  M18: Many university students should choose to attend universities outside their home countries, <u>because of</u> that Turkey isn't enough to do master and do your job.

In Example 5.34, correct usage of *because of* would entail "...because of the fact that..." or "due to the fact that..." if the writer wishes to impart an air of erudition;

otherwise, a simple *because* would suffice here. To use such complex markers correctly, the students need more practice in using them.

5.4.3.5. Other Markers of Consequence

The other markers used in the pre-treatment student paragraphs were that' why (5%) and thanks to (1%). As for the other set of consequential markers in post-tests, the novice L2 participants employed *in this way* (3%), *thus* (3%), *that's why* (1%), *due to* (1%), *lead to* (1%), *of course* (1%), *by this means* (1%), *with that* (1%) and *thereby* (1%). As Table 5.18 shows, in post-tests a wider range of markers were used than in pre-tests, and they were used in mostly appropriate ways.

Table 5.18. Frequency for Other Transitions of Consequence with respect to CU, IU
and OU in Pre- and Post- English Texts

	Pre-tests (f)				Post-tests (f)			
	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
that's why	4	1	-	5	2	-	-	2
thanks to	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
in this way	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	5
thus	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	4
due to	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
lead to	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
of course	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
by this means	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
with that	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
thereby	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1

That's why had a frequency of occurrence of 5 tokens in pre-tests and 2 tokens in post-tests. in rank order line, it is the fifth common item in pre-tests, but the seventh item in post-tests as a marker of consequence. *That's why* obtained zero percentage in the TM. Less frequency in the use of *that's why* in post-tests can be attributed to its absence in the TM. Another reason could be the wider variety of forms in the use of cause markers in the post-tests. In pre-tests, there were only six forms including *that's why* whereas in post-tests, there were 13 different forms, which results in a more even distribution of the items.

Table 5.18 illustrates that there is only one incorrect occurrence of *that's why,* and it occurred in pre-tests. Thus, it can be concluded that the participants seem to know how to use *that's why* correctly when signalling a causal relationship.

The least frequently used marker that signal a cause relationship in the pre-tests was *thanks to*. It occurred only once. It obtained zero percentage in the TM and the post-treatment student paragraphs. Although *thanks to* is a complex marker, the student used it appropriately:

Example 5.35. Transition-Consequence-THANKS TO (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> M7: Also, if you attend universities abroad and get good education, you may find a high quality job. Thanks to your job, you can earn good money.

In the set of less frequently used consequential markers in the post-tests, *in this way, thus, lead to, of course, by this means* and *with that* were correctly used, whereas *due to* and *thereby*, which occurred only once, were incorrectly used:

Example 5.36. Transition-Consequence-DUE TO (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M5: That is, students shouldn't go to schools outside their home districts due to these reasons.

"...due to these reasons" is like writing the word *because* twice, one after another. *"...for these reasons."* or *"...due to the reasons I gave above."* would be more correct to use.

Example 5.37. Transition-Consequence-THEREBY (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M22: Secondly, students go to schools outside their home country and make new friends. Thereby, they learn new cultures and traditions.

M22 should replace *thereby* with *therefore*. *Thereby* shows cause and effect, meaning *as a result of that*, and it does not connect clauses. Since *thereby* is an advanced transition with particular syntactic rules in its use, it was not surprising

that the novice L2 writer here implemented it inappropriately. To use such complex markers correctly, the students need more practice in using them.

The participants in the present study used a wide range of consequential transitions, particularly in post-tests. However, as Martinez (2002) suggests, "the presence of a connective does not guarantee the interpretability of the resulting utterance" (p.125), as can be seen in the given examples of the incorrectly employed items in the paragraphs. Considering the proficiency level of the participants in English, inappropriate use in such complex markers as *therefore*, *thereby*, *because of*, *due to* etc. was an expected result. However, items such as *because* and *so* which are syntactically simple and easy to use were also inappropriately used by novice L2 writers. As Liu (2016) suggests, it is hard to utilize causal connectives since causal relations are complicated and ambiguous concepts.

5.5. Frame Markers

Frame markers serve "to structure the local and global organization in the text" (Hyland, 2005). They are formulaic expression such as *all in all, to begin with, first of all, last but not least*, etc. According to Bhatia (1993) and Cheung (1993), frame markers are essential components of the persuasive purpose (as cited in Hyland, 2005).

In the present study, frame markers recorded the second highest frequency of use, accounting for almost one third of total interactive MDMs both in pre-tests (27%) and in post-tests (32%). The frequency of FM use in the post-tests was significantly higher than in the pre-tests: t (49) = 5.36, p<.001. Apparently, the teaching materials affected the written products of the students in terms of metadiscourse use.

The following example illustrates how one participant started to incorporate frame markers into her writing after the instruction:

Example 5.38. Frame Markers (Pre-treatment [a] and Post-treatment [b] SP)

(a) F20: In my opinion, they should definitely choose university in abroad. If we have a chance about studying in abroad, we should use it. Because in our country, there isn't enough attention to information. Even if our major is engineering, we have to learn basic subjects such as, history, Turkish, etc. in first class. I think we should learn just what necessary for us. People who went to another country and studied there are more confident than they were. If we go abroad, we will see different people, different cultures, and they give lots of thing to us. On the other hand, they make us another people. It doesn't mean that you will change, but your ideas will change. I think studying another country is better. It develops us. There are a lot of chances for us. You can learn new languages. Even you may work there if you are successful. All in all, of course you should go university in another country, if you have a chance like this.

(b) F20: I strongly believe that high school students should go to school outside their home district. To start with they can see new culture. For example, they may meet foreign people and they can learn many things from them. Secondly, they can improve their characteristics. For instance, they can become more confident person. They may have more responsibilities. Because, there aren't any people to help them. They have to stand on their own feet. They can trust themselves more because there are not any person who they know. Finally, they can see another different places than their hometown. They can learn many information about foreign history. As an illustration, they can go many places near the country which they study. All in all, high school students should study in outside their home districts.

Before the input was given, the student did not use any organization markers except *all in all.* However, after the treatment, she made use of frame markers to organize her ideas. It is clear that introducing metadiscourse markers explicitly affected the way the students write (Steffensen & Cheng, 1996). They learned how to develop support for their ideas using metadiscourse markers in their texts.

The use of frame markers is a combination of *sequencing*, *labeling stages*, *announcing goals* and *shifting arguments* (Hyland, 2005: p.51). These sub-categories of frame markers were identified in the three sets of data of the current study and were presented with their raw and normalised frequencies in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19. Distribution of the Types of Frame Markers in the Three Sets of Data (Tokens per 100 words)

Types	Pre-tests (6701 words)			TM (2607 words)			Post-tests (7396words)		
	f	Tokens	%	f	Tokens	%	f	Tokens	%
Sequencing	72	1.1	64%	48	1.8	75%	132	1.8	73%
Label Stages	29	0.5	26%	14	0.5	22%	45	0.6	25%
Announce Goals	11	0.2	10%	2	0.1	3%	3	0.04	2%
Shift Topics	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	112	1.7	100%	64	2.4	100%	180	2.4	100%

Table 5.19 shows that among the four types of frame markers (sequencing, label stages, announce goals, and shift topic), *sequencing* was the most preferred sub-category with %64 use in pre-tests and 73% use in post-tests (72 out of 112 in pre-tests; and 132 out of 180 in post-tests), which was followed by *label stages* devices in both pre-tests (26%; 29/112) and post-tests (25%; 45/180). The third most common sub-category was *announce goals, which* accounted for 10% (11/112) of frame markers in the pre-test corpus whereas announce goals use was recorded as 2% (3/180) in post-tests.

On the other hand, there was a notable absence of *shift topic* devices both in the TM and the student paragraphs. The absence of *shift topic* devices in the present study can be attributed to the genre of the writing. In opinion paragraph writing, the students were asked to take a stand on an argumentative issue and support their opinion with the best two or three separate reasons. Since the position on the topic was supposed to be presented in a clear and concise fashion, the paragraphs concerned were quite short (around 150 words). Therefore, the students abstained from denoting a shift in topic such as *back to, turn to* and *to look more closely.* In line with the present study, Chan and Tan (2010) reported a marked absence of markers that signals a shift in topic, such as *back to, with regard to, move on, return to*, etc. in the persuasive essays of L2 writers. These findings prove that "genre exerts an influence on what types of discourse acts are performed" (Ädel, 2006, p.58).

An almost full match was observed between the teaching materials and post-treatment student paragraphs in terms of the employment of frame markers, particularly in *sequencing* and *label stages* types. In the TM and post-tests, the percentages of *sequencing, labeling stages* and *announcing goals* were almost identical (sequencing 75% and 73%; label stages: 22% and 25%; announce goals: 3% and 2% in the TM and post-tests, respectively). In the pre-tests, on the other hand, the percentage of *sequencing* was much lower (64%) whereas the percentage of *announcing goals* was higher (10%). Apparently, there was parallelism between the teaching material (input) and the students' post-treatment writings (output), which means that the novice L2 writers in the present study benefited from the frame markers used in the instructional materials.

Table 5.20 below shows the forms *of frame markers* in the teaching material and the student paragraphs with their raw numbers and corresponding percentages under the relevant category.

Table 5.20. The Forms of Frame Markers in the Pre-Treatment SPs, the TM and the
Post-Treatment SPs

Subcategory	Frame Markers	Pre-tests (6701words)		TM (2607 words)		Post-tests (7396 words)	
		f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
Sequencing	First of all	9	8%	5	8%	9	5%
	Firstly	6	5%	1	2%	14	8%
	First	3	3%	1	2%	7	4%
	For one thing	-	-	5	8%	7	4%
	To begin/start with	-	-	7	11%	5	3%
	In the first place	-	-	1	2%	-	-
	Secondly	13	12%	4	6%	22	12%
	Second	5	4%	-	-	6	3%
	Another...	2	2%	2	3%	12	7%
	Next	6	5%	-	-	-	-
	Then	2	2%	-	-	1	1%
	In addition	1	1%	4	6%	4	2%
	Furthermore	-	-	5	8%	3	2%
	Moreover	-	-	2	3%	5	3%
	Second of all	-	-	-	-	1	1%
	Besides	-	-	1	2%	-	-
	A further point	-	-	1	2%	-	-
	Finally	10	9%	8	12%	18	10%
	Thirdly	9	8%	1	2%	8	4%
	Third	2	2%	-	-	2	1%
	Fourthly	2	2%	-	-	-	-
	The most important...	2	2%	-	-	4	2%
	Eventually	-	-	-	-	1	1%
	Last...	-	-	-	-	3	2%
	Sequencing TOTAL	**72**	**64%**	**48**	**75%**	**132**	**73%**
Label Stages	All in all	12	11%	3	5%	18	10%
	To sum up	7	6%	5	8%	17	9%
	In short	7	6%	1	2%	2	1%
	In conclusion	2	2%	3	5%	4	2%
	Shortly	1	1%	-	-	1	1%
	(to put) in a nutshell	-	-	1	2%	2	1%
	To conclude	-	-	1	2%	-	-
	In summary	-	-	-	-	1	1%
	Label Stages TOTAL	**29**	**26%**	**14**	**22%**	**45**	**25%**
Announce goals	There are (many/a lot of/some) reasons	5	4%	-	-	1	1%
	I have several reasons	1	1%	-	-	-	-
	for some/many reasons	1	1%	2	3%	-	-
	for other reasons	1	1%	-	-	2	1%
	for these reasons	1	1%	-	-	-	-
	These reasons come first	1	1%	-	-	-	-
	The other reasons show	1	1%	-	-	-	-
	Announce Goals TOTAL	**11**	**10%**	**2**	**3%**	**3**	**2%**
Shift topic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Shift Topic TOTAL	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
ALL	**TOTAL**	112	100%	64	100%	180	100%

90

As for the number of forms of frame markers, the results revealed that while the pre-test corpus had a total of 25 forms, the post-test corpus exhibited 28 forms of frame markers. In the TM, on the other hand, there were 22 forms of frame markers. It seems that the variety in the forms increased after the treatment. When analyzed type by type, some notable differences were observed between pre-tests and in post-tests based on the variety of forms, which is discussed in the following sections (see Section *5.5.1, 5.5.2,* and *5.5.3*).

5.5.1. Sequencing

Sequencing devices accounts for the highest percentage of the total frame markers in the three sets of data (64% in pre-tests, 75% in the TM and 73% in post-tests). The raw frequency of *sequentials* was 72 in pre-tests and 132 in post-tests. The employment of sequencing devices increased by 11% after the instruction.

Similarly, there was an increase in the number of forms between pre- and post-tests. While the pre-test corpus exhibited 14 forms, the post-test corpus had a total of 19 forms of sequencing devices. Apparently, the participants used sequencing markers more frequently with more varied forms after the treatment of instructional materials. In the teaching material, there were fifteen forms of *sequentials*, and all of these forms were employed in the post-treatment student paragraphs except for *in the first place, a further point,* and *besides.* In fact, *besides* was employed by the participants but as an additive marker to link ideas, therefore their usage was categorized as a transition rather than a frame marker.

In the teaching material employed in the present study, the function of markers such as *furthermore, moreover, in addition* and *besides* was to list and add points:

To list and add points:	
Firstly/ First,	In addition,
In the first place,	Moreover,
To start with,	To begin with,
Furthermore,	Secondly,
Thirdly,	Finally,
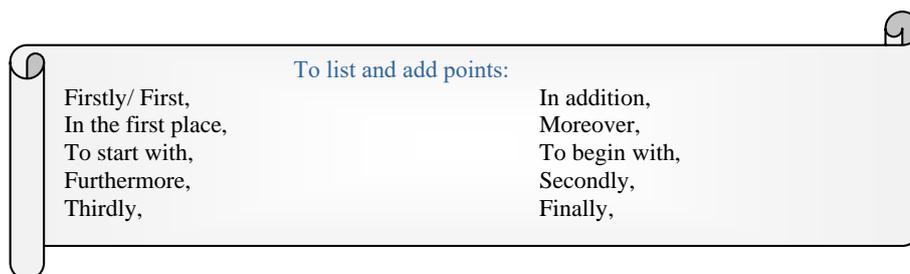
Figure 5.5. Useful Language: Markers to List and Add points (from the TM)

The sample paragraph from the teaching material (Example 5.39) shows how *moreover*, for instance, was functioning as a framer marker when listing a point:

Example 5.39. FM-Sequencing-MOREOVER (Sample Paragraph from the TM)

> Parents should protect children from too much TV exposure. First of all, there is sometimes too much violence on TV. Parents should prevent children from watching these programs. <u>Moreover, too much TV viewing can result in health problems for children.</u> For example, statistics show that children who watch too much TV have worse eye-sight than children who watch less TV. In addition to health problems, watching TV for long hours results in failure at school. Children who watch TV for long hours are less successful at school subjects. All in all, too much TV exposure is dangerous for children in many ways, so parents should try hard to protect their children.

However, these markers (i.e. *furthermore*, *moreover*, *in addition, besides)* are commonly used and categorized as transitions rather than frame markers in the earlier studies (Hyland, 2005; Anwardeen et al., 2013; Mohamed & Rashid, 2017; Qin & Ucelli, 2019). This suggests that the instructional material used in the present study identified these markers with different categories than in the latest corpus studies. Presenting these markers under a category different than their suggested usages may lead students to misconceptualize these forms. Therefore, it is essential for the material developers to follow and analyze the latest corpus studies to see the norms and the new trends in the expert language users' discourse register.

Figure 5.6 illustrates the percentages of sequencing devices markers employed in the pre-test, the teaching material and the post-test data of the present study.
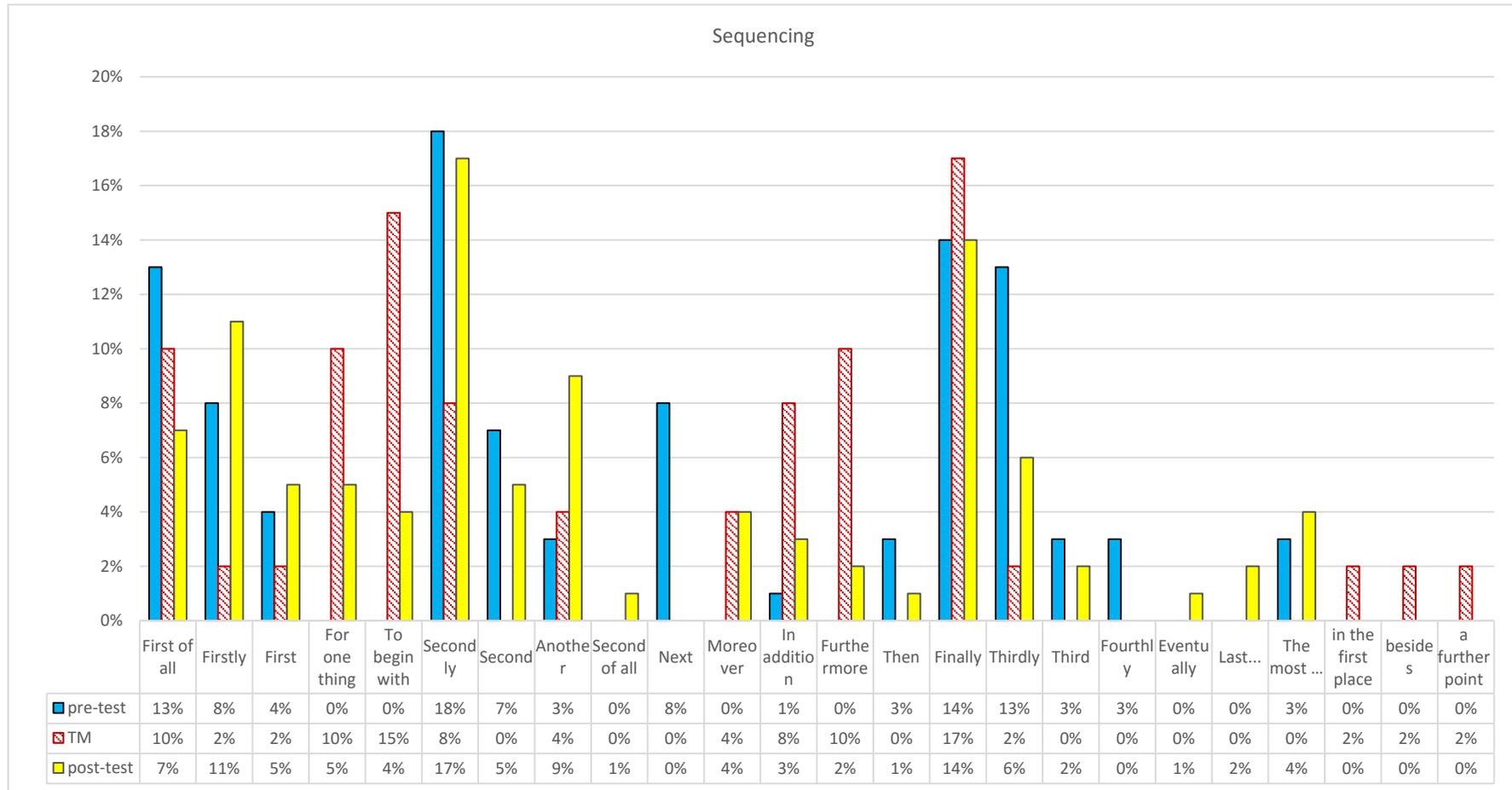
Figure 5.6. Distribution of Sequencing Devices in the Three Sets of Data

	First of all	Firstly	First	For one thing	To begin with	Secondly	Second	Another	Second of all	Next	Moreover	In addition	Furthermore	Then	Finally	Thirdly	Third	Fourthly	Eventually	Last…	The most …	in the first place	besides	a further point
pre-test	13%	8%	4%	0%	0%	18%	7%	3%	0%	8%	0%	1%	0%	3%	14%	13%	3%	3%	0%	0%	3%	0%	0%	0%
TM	10%	2%	2%	10%	15%	8%	0%	4%	0%	0%	4%	8%	10%	0%	17%	2%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2%	2%	2%
post-test	7%	11%	5%	5%	4%	17%	5%	9%	1%	0%	4%	3%	2%	1%	14%	6%	2%	0%	1%	2%	4%	0%	0%	0%

As Figure 5.6 illustrates, the items which were commonly used in pre- and post-tests were *firstly, first of all, first, secondly, second, another (reason, thing, point, etc.) in addition, then, finally, thirdly, third,* and *the most important (reason, point, one, etc.).* Different from post-tests, pre-tests had *next* and *fourthly.* The forms that were observed in post-tests but not in pre-tests, on the other hand, were *for one thing, to begin with, second of all, furthermore, moreover, last* and *eventually.* The participants employed a wider set of sequentials in their post-tests, replicating particular items such as *for one thing, to begin, furthermore* and *moreover* used in the teaching material. The participants showed awareness on how to enrich their writing with different metadiscourse markers after the treatment.

On the other hand, the participants heavily relied on *first of all* (13%) in their pre-tests and *firstly* (11%) in their post-tests to signal their initial starts, and *secondly* to introduce their second point both in pre-tests and post-tests (18% and 17%, respectively). To mark their last point, the writers preferred *finally (*14% in both pre and post-tests) and thirdly (13% in pre-tests and 6% in post-tests).

The findings of the former studies also found that L2 learners use a similar set of metadiscourse devices (firstly, secondly, thirdly or finally) when sequencing their ideas in writing (Ädel, 2006; Chan & Tan, 2010; Asassfeh et al., 2013; Anwardeen et al., 2013; Mohamed & Rashid, 2017; Ho & Li, 2018; Dumlao & Wilang, 2019, Qin & Ucelli, 2019). Ädel (2006) argued that enumerators (first, second, third) are necessary to use in argumentative text since they help the writer support their arguments in a clear manner. It is easy to identify the arguments with the help of these numerical labels if it is done in a succinct manner as the Example 40 illustrates:

Example 5.40. FM-Sequencing-ENUMERATORS (Post-Treatment SP)

> F13: I strongly believe high school students shouldn't go to schools outside their home districts for some reasons. First reason is security. If students go to schools outside, they don't feel safe because there are many dangers outside. Secondly, they miss their family, so they cannot focus on their lessons. If their family is near their children, they can support them. Family support is an important thing for students' lessons. Third and most important reason is money. High school students are too young, so maybe they cannot control their money. When they go outside, they can spend money more than enough. In this way, they may have financial problems. To sum up, in my opinion high school student should go to schools in their hometowns. If you are parent, you should listen to me. You will see that it is better.

In Example 5.40, the participant F13 announces that there are some reasons that support her claim, and then she continues presenting these reasons. In her paragraph, enumerators are followed by other words such as *reason*. Her final enumeration (third) also co-occurred with a formulaic expression (third and most important reason), which served to signal that her third reason is the most important one. The enumeration helped structure the text and guided the reader through the discourse.

Ädel (2006) states that enumerators can be seen as adverbs all alone, or they can co-exist with other words such as 'discourse-specific activities' (*argument, claim, example, point*), 'cognitive nouns' (*idea, problem, reason*), 'categorizing nouns' (*category, area, aspect*), or 'language-internal nouns' (*statement, quote*). In Example 5.59, an example of this type of co-occurrence was illustrated. When the participant was asked how she decided to use *third and most important reason* instead of a simpler form such as thirdly, she stated that:

> "I try to use new markers that I learn at school. I like trying new things. In our teaching material, I saw the word <u>third</u> and <u>the most important reason</u> in separate examples. I decided to combine them." (F14, follow-up interview data)

There were more instances of students' attempts in using such co-occurrences in the present data. The permutations of the enumerators in the present data were as follows (with their raw frequency in parentheses):

- *first issue (1), my first thing (1), first reason (3), my first point (1), first benefit (1)*
- *second problem (1), the second one (1), second chance (1), my second opinion (1), second most important one (1)*
- *Third reason (1), The third and the most important one (1), third and most important reason (1)*

The word *another* and *last* also co-occurred with other nouns:

- *another reason (3), another thing (6), another point (2), another way (1), another situation (1), my another idea (1)*
- *last way (1), my last opinion (1), last but most important point (1)*

95

Furthermore, when students wanted to order the points of their argument from the least important to the most important one or vice versa, they used chunks such as *the most important thing, the most important reason* or *most importantly* to highlight the most important point as can be seen from Example 5.39 above.

Although the writers used these combinations that vary the forms of *sequentials*, some word choices in the combinations were incorrect in the context they were given:

Example 5.41. FM-Sequencing-ENUMERATORS IN CHUNKS (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M17: I believe that students shouldn't go to schools outside their home districts. <u>My first thing</u> is money. In our country, some parents don't give enough money. So, students can't buy what they want.

In Example 5.41, the writer used a wrong noun *(thing)* to combine the enumerator. *The first issue* or *my first concern* would do better in this discourse-specific context. Similarly, in *another way* and in *second chance* co-occurrences found in the student paragraphs, the nouns *way* and *chance* were the wrong words that did not combine their pre-modifier enumerators appropriately in the context.

It is apparent that students attempt to use different combinations to vary the forms of markers in their writing, thus these enumerators can be illustrated with their possible chunks in order to avoid such wrong co-occurrences in L2 writing. This finding complements the findings of Li, Franken and Wu's (2017) study, which suggests that it is important "to extend learners' metadiscourse bundle knowledge" (p.266).

Even though the participants showed awareness on how to enrich their writing with different metadiscourse markers after the treatment, some sequential markers in the TM markers such as *in the first place, a further point,* and *besides* were not replicated in the students' post-treatment writings.

When the participants were asked to choose the *sequential markers* they found difficult to use or did not prefer to use, it was found that the markers they found

difficult to use were either not employed in the students' writings or were the least preferred markers in their paragraphs (see Figure 5.7).
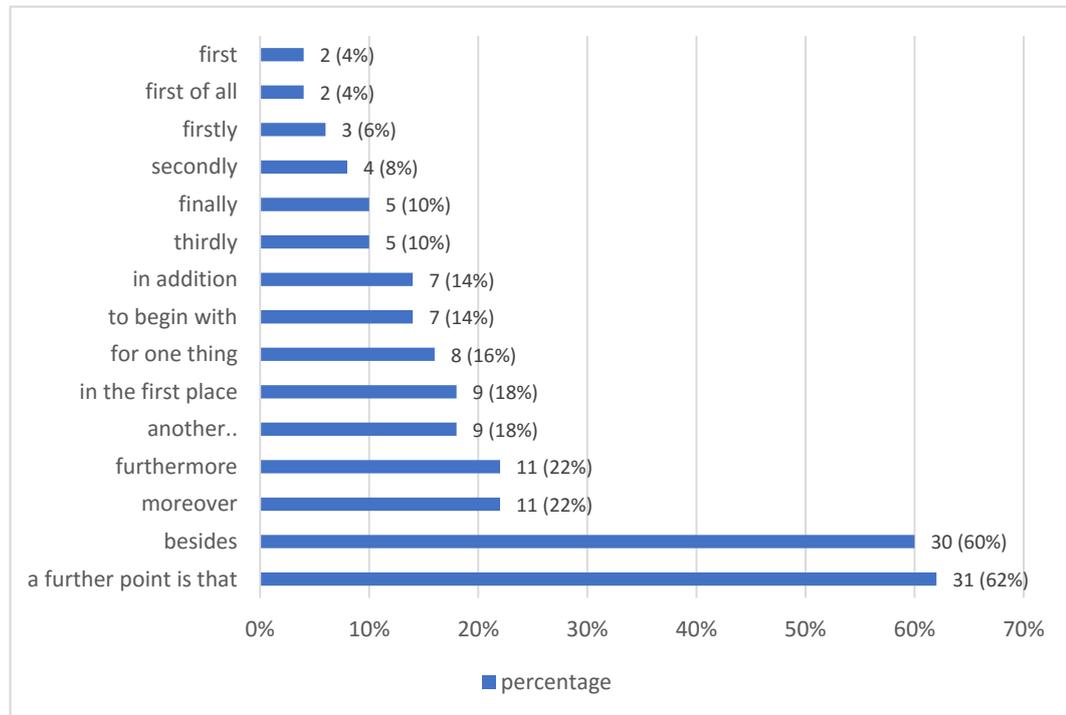
Figure 5.7. Frame Markers that L2 Writers Found Difficult to Use (N=50)

When they were asked for the reason why they did not prefer to use these markers, they stated that they either did not see these markers before, or they were not practiced enough in the teaching materials, so the students could not remember these markers while writing their paragraphs. The student reports here once again suggest that if these markers were exercised more often, the participants would use these markers more commonly, and thus vary the metadiscourse in their texts.

The uses of frame markers were scrutinized in order to determine their context-bound appropriateness in the data. Table 5.21 demonstrates frequencies for the contextual analysis of *sequencing devices* in the data.

Table 5.21. Frequencies for Sequencing Devices with regard to their Context-Bound Appropriateness in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

	Pre-tests *f*				Post-tests *f*			
	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL

First of all	4	5	-	9	1	8	-	9
Firstly	2	4	-	6	1	13	-	14
First	2	1	-	3	3	4	-	7
For one thing	-	-	-	-	6	1	-	7
To begin/start with	-	-	-	-	4	-	1	5
Secondly	13	-	-	13	19	3	-	22
Second	3	2	-	5	5	1	-	6
Another...	2	-	-	2	11	1	-	12
Second of all	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
Next	5	-	1	6	-	-	-	-
Moreover	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	5
In addition	1	-	-	1	4	-	-	4
Furthermore	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	3
Then	2	-	-	2	-	1	-	1
Finally	7	3	-	10	17	1	-	18
Thirdly	9	-	-	9	6	1	1	8
Third	2	-	-	2	2	-	-	2
Fourthly	2	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Eventually	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Last...	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	3
The most important...	2	-	-	2	4	-	-	4
TOTAL	56	15	1	72	95	35	2	132

The results revealed that the incorrect use of sequencing devices was 21% in pre-tests, and it was even higher in post-tests (27%). *Firstly, first of all* and *first,* which mark the initial points of the argument, were the problematic ones that were mainly responsible for the high percentage of inappropriate use in sequencing devices. In pre-tests, 55% (10/18) of total *firstly*, *first of all* and *first* occurrences were misused. In post-tests, the percentage of incorrect use of these items was even higher with 83% (25/30). One problem with the use of *initial starters* was the lack of announcing signaler in the topic sentence. Without a list (of items) specified by the writer, *firstly, first of all, first*, *etc*. are not correct to use:

Example 5.42. FM-Sequencing-FIRST OF ALL(Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> F16: Many university students should choose to attend universities outside their home countries. <u>First of all</u>, university students need to learn new languages.

In Example 5.41 the writer is allegedly indicating <u>the first</u> in a list of items unspecified by the writer. In other words, in the topic sentence the writer did not signal that an explanation for the opinion was forthcoming, yet an explanation was presented. *First of all* would be more appropriate if there were something indicating a forthcoming

explanation after the first sentence, such as 'This is due to <u>the following…</u>", etc., or the topic sentence should include an indicator announcing a list of items: "There are many benefits to going abroad for education".

Gear and Gear (2002) demonstrated how a writer should indicate that an explanation for the opinion is forthcoming with using a predictor as the following extract from an exemplary paragraph sample in the writing strategies section of their TOEFL test preparation book:

> "Hobbies are important <u>for many reasons</u>. <u>First</u>, a hobby can be educational." (Writing Skills Section, Gear & Gear, 2002, p. 397)

Gear and Gear (2002) explained that the argument here is hobbies, and the controlling idea is the reasons that show the importance of hobbies. Since the introductory statement made it clear to the reader that a number of items are forthcoming, it is correct to use *first*, which will be ideally followed with linkers to list the other reasons.

One of the biggest reasons the students failed to use *the initial starters* correctly was the instructional materials used in teaching paragraph writing in the classroom. When the learning materials used in the present study were analyzed, it was found that the enumerators such as *first, second, etc.* were used without an indicator, which announces the forthcoming items in the paragraph:

Example 5.43. FM-Sequencing-FIRST OF ALL(Incorrect Usage; Sample Paragraph from the TM)

> Smoking should definitely be banned in public places. <u>First of all</u>, smoking is dangerous for human health. It results in many dangerous illnesses such as asthma, bronchitis, cancer, etc. Therefore, people should not smoke. Furthermore, when people smoke in public places, they may disturb people around them with the smell of their cigarettes…

The introductory statement should include an indicator that announces the forthcoming items: "Smoking should definitely be banned in public places <u>for some reasons</u>". Considering the fact that teaching materials influence the use of metadiscourse markers (Algı, 2012; Uluçay, 2014; Macintyre, 2013; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018), it was inevitable that the misuse in the sample paragraphs of the teaching materials resulted in the students' misusing these markers in a similar vein. Therefore, it is important to note

that teaching resources should be revised by expert material developers before they are presented to the students in order to avoid such misrepresentations.

Another problem with the use of *initial starters* was placing them in the wrong place. In two incorrect occurrences, it was observed that *firstly* and *first of all* were used in place of *secondly*:

Example 5.44. FM-Sequencing-FIRSTLY (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M19: High school students should go to schools outside their home districts. I think there are many advantages. To begin with, it changes our lifestyle. Firstly, we can learn how to take care of ourselves.

In Example 5.44, the writer presented the first point (*lifestyle*) with *to begin with*. Therefore, the following point, which is *learning how to take care of ourselves*, should be marked with an intermediate sequencing device such as *secondly* or *another advantage is*, etc. When this participant was asked why he used *to begin with* in one sentence and then *firstly* in the following one, he stated that he was going to write *for example* there in the place of *firstly*, so he describes this mistake basically as a slip of the pen. Some other mistakes were observed (such as overuse of *and*, and misuse of *on the other hand* and *even*) in this participant's (M19) texts and they were presented in earlier sections. The participant attributed his mistakes to his carelessness while writing. Since carelessness and hastiness plays a role in the misuse of metadiscourse markers, novice writers should be reminded of the fact that writing is a process rather than a product (Zamel, 1983; Cheng & Steffensen, 1996; Algi, 2012; Ulucay; 2014), and they should be trained in and guided through the steps of revising and editing more to fix their mistakes.

Finally was another sequential that was incorrectly used in pre-tests (43%; 3/7 in pre-test). In the post-test, on the other hand, only one occurrence of misuse was found out of total 17 occurrences of *finally*. This means that there was an improvement in the appropriate use of particular items such as *finally*. The following example illustrates the inappropriate use of finally in the pre-tests:

Example 5.45. FM-Sequencing-FINALLY(Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> M2: Thirdly education materials are too expensive in my country, for example, books, tablets and computers. If you have middle class family, you cannot buy these things. After that standards of European countries are so high. If I have a chance, I will definitely go. <u>Finally</u>, going to foreign countries for education is absolutely a good idea.

In Example 5.45, the student used *finally* to signal a conclusion, which is incorrect. Since this is a mistake Turkish L2 novice writers make frequently, the students were warned about the use of this item while teaching, which helped decrease the occurrences of inappropriate use of this marker in the post-training writings. Therefore, it is essential to detect such group-specific inappropriate usages in writing so that teachers, material writers and students could be warned about them.

Although L2 learners are reported to have problems with an over-reliance on the use of particular sequential markers such as *first, firstly, secondly, etc.*in previous studies (Anwardeen et al., 2013; Asassfeh et al., 2013; Ho & Li, 2018; Qin & Uccelli, 2019; Dumlao & Wilang, 2019), inappropriate usages were not discussed in any of the earlier studies to the author's best knowledge.

5.5.2. Label Stages

Frame markers that explicitly tag the phases in the text with expressions such as *to sum up, all in all, by way of introduction*, etc. are categorized as *label stages* (Hyland, 2005, p.51). *Label stages* (LS, henceforth) occurred as the second most frequent category of the frame markers in the data, and they constituted one fourth of the frame markers in the data with a ratio of 26% (with a frequency of 29 occurrences) in the pre-test and 25% (with a frequency of 45) in the post-test. In the teaching material, *label stages* constitutes 22% of total frame markers (14/64).

Table 5.20 in Section 5.5 lists the forms of label stages with their frequencies, and Figure 5.8 below illustrates the distribution of forms of *label stages* in the pre-test, the teaching material and the post-test data with their percentages.
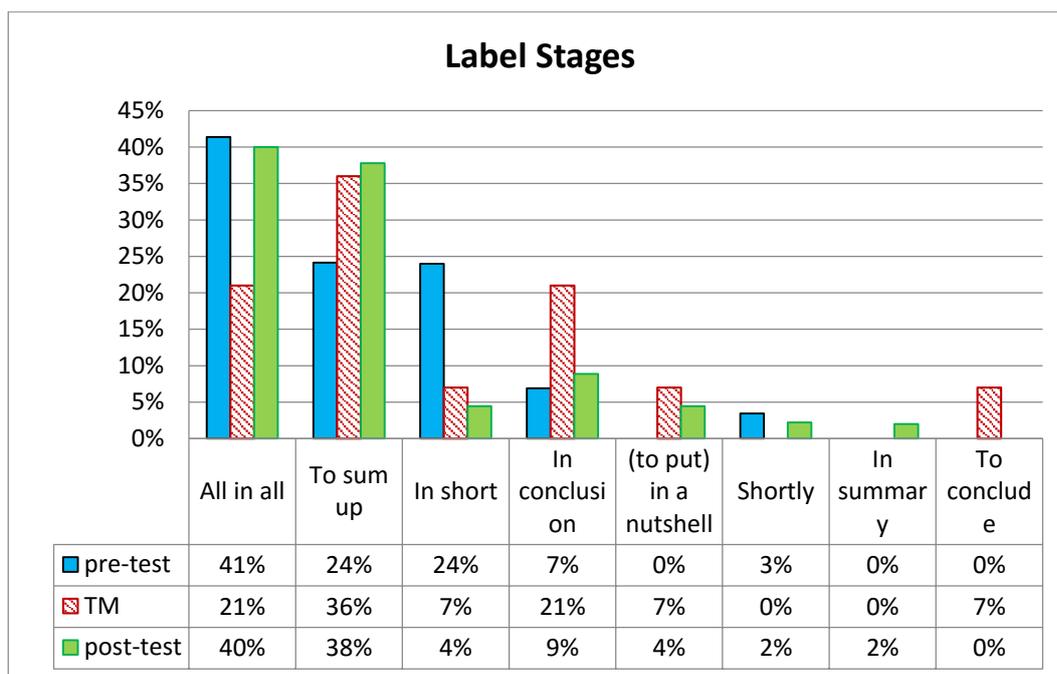
Figure 5.8. Distribution of 'Label Stages' in the Three Sets of Data

There were five forms of LS (*all in all, to sum up, in short, in conclusion, shortly*) in the pre-test data, and seven forms of LS (*all in all, to sum up, in conclusion, in short, to put in a nutshell, shortly, in the summary*) in the post-test data. That is, there were two new forms in the post-test (*to put in a nutshell* and *in summary*). *To put in a nutshell* expression was introduced to students in the instructional materials and *in summary* was provided by the teacher when writing a sample paragraph in the writing class. Although *to conclude* was presented explicitly in the teaching material, it did not occur in the students' post-writings. It could be because of its low frequency in the material. That is, the participants did not practice this item enough to use it in their texts.

The most frequent LS form in the data was *all in all* with 41% in pre-tests and 40% in post-tests. The most frequent LS in the teaching material was *to sum up* (36%). As illustrated in Figure 5.8, after the treatment some changes occurred in the distribution of particular items. While the participants used to sum up much more frequently in their writings (from 24% in the pre-test to 38% in the post-test), they used *in short* much less frequently (from 24% to 4%, respectively).

The three most frequently used LS devices (*all in all*, *to sum up* and *in short* in pre-tests, and *all in all*, *to sum up*, *in conclusion* in post-tests) comprised almost 90% of the total LS devices in the data. It seems that the L2 novice writers in the present study had a limited repertoire of label stages. The findings of the present study concerning the limited repertoire of LS forms were congruent with those of Chan & Tan, 2010; Anwardeen et al., 2013; Ho & Li, 2018 and Qin & Ucelli, 2018. In Chan and Tan's (2010) study, when the L2 English corpus was compared to L1 English corpus (the BAWE corpus), it was found that the L1 writer had a richer repertoire of LS items compared to the L2 writers.

Table 5.22 shows frequencies for the context-bound analysis of frame markers that label stages:

Table 5.22. Frequencies of Frame Markers that 'Label Stages' with regard to their Context-Bound Appropriateness in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

Label stages	Pre-tests *f*				Post-tests *f*			
	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
All in all	12	-	-	12	18	-	-	18
To sum up	7	-	-	7	17	-	-	17
In short	7	-	-	7	2	-	-	2
In conclusion	2	-	-	2	4	-	-	4
(to put) in a nutshell	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	2
Shortly	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
In the summary	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
TOTAL	**28**	**1**	**0**	**29**	**44**	**1**	**0**	**45**

The contextual analysis of LS markers revealed that all LS occurrences were appropriately used except for *shortly*.

Although '*shortly*' is an adverb of time meaning *soon*, one participant in pre-tests and another participant in post-tests used '*shortly*' to signal a conclusion:

Example 5.46. FM-Label Stages-SHORTLY (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> M19: Third, other universities give you scholarship. Our universities give it, too. However, in other countries, they don't just give a scholarship. They also want to earn you. They want you to be a successful student. They support you for your research. Shortly, if you want to be a good student, you would prefer going to other countries' universities.

When the participant was asked why he used *shortly* to signal the conclusion in his text, he stated that:

"I wanted to use it to mean <u>kısacası</u>." (M19, follow-up interview)

'kısacası' is an adverb in Turkish, which is used as an organizational marker to introduce a summary to mean 'in short' or 'in brief' in English. It derives from the adjective word 'kısa'. The corresponding adjective for 'kısa' is 'short' in English. The participant generalized the adding –ly to an adjective to make an adverb rule and wrote shortly to mean in short. Therefore, the misuse of shortly is a result of L1 transfer and overgeneralization –ly suffix rule.

The other LS markers, on the other hand, were appropriately placed and used to signal the conclusion. Example 5.47 illustrates how the writer F15 appropriately employed *all in all* in her concluding statement to complete the paragraph:

Example 5.47. FM-Label Stages-ALL IN ALL(Correct Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> F15: In my opinion, high school students should go to schools outside their home districts. First of all, students will meet foreign people and learn foreign culture outside their home districts. Also, they can see different places. They will join a lot of events outside their districts. For example, concerts, festivals and musicals. Second of all, high school students will get education better than. They can learn foreign languages. They can get best opportunities. For example, students can use new lab, classes and libraries. They can take education from better teachers. Finally, they can enhance their personalities. If high school students go to schools outside, they can be sociable, friendly and confident. <u>All in all</u>, high school students should go to schools outside their home districts.

Although the L2 novice writers in the present study did not employ a wide repertoire of LS markers, these markers were pragmatically and contextually appropriate in their opinion paragraphs.

5.5.3. Announce Goals

The category of frame markers that *announce goals* was the least frequent category of frame markers which comprised 10% of the total frame markers in pre-tests, and only 2% in post-tests. *Announcing phrases* had 11 occurrences in the pre-tests and this number decreased to 3 occurrences in the post-tests. The frequency of this

category in the TM correlated with the frequency in the students' post-treatment writings (3% and 2%, respectively). Therefore, the decrease in the use of *announcing* markers could be attributed to the very little use of this category in the teaching material.

Similar findings were found in the study of Chan and Tan (2010), which acknowledged a marked absence of frame markers that announce goals such as *objective, aim, purpose,* and *wish.* However, there are some other studies which yielded different results with respect to the use *announcing* phrases. In Mohamed and Rashid (2017), and in Qin and Ucelli (2019), L2 learners used a different repertoire of announcing phrases such as *would like to, objective, purpose, want to,* and *in this part.* Since such markers were not presented and used in the instructional materials, the participants in the present study may not have felt the need to use these markers.

Figure 5.9 shows the forms of *announcing phrases* in the pre-test, the teaching material and the post-test data with their percentages of use in this category.

Announcing Goals

	There are (many/a lot of/some) reasons	for these reasons	for some reasons	for other reasons	I have several reasons	These reasons come first	The other reasons show
pre-test	45%	9%	9%	9%	9%	9%	9%
TM	0%	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
post-test	33%	67%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
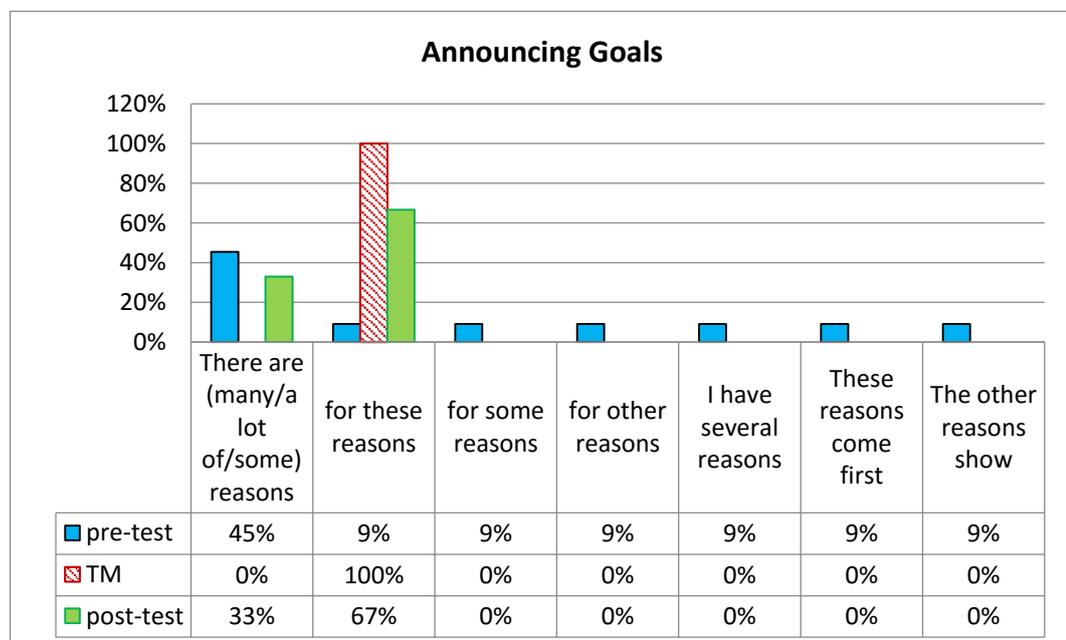
Figure 5.9. Distribution of Frame Markers that 'Announce Goals' in the Three Sets of Data

Announcing goals phrases (AG, henceforth) has 7 members in the pre-treatment student papers: *there are (many/a lot of/some) reasons, I have several reasons, for some reasons, for other reasons, for these reasons, these reasons come first* and *the other reasons show.* On the other hand, AG has only 2 members in the post-treatment student papers: *there are (many / a lot of / some) reasons,* and *for these reasons. For these reasons* also occurred twice in the TM.

The results showed that 5 participants (45%) in the pre-tests and 1 participant (33%) in the post-tests used *there are many/a lot of reasons* or *I have several reasons* statement as an indicator of announcing a forthcoming list of items as the Example 5.48 illustrates:

Example 5.48. FM-Announcing Phrases-THERE ARE REASONS… (Correct Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M14: I strongly believe that high school students should go to schools outside their home districts. <u>There are a lot of reasons to studying outside</u>. First, education opportunities are better outside…

1 participant in the pre-test preferred to use *for some reasons* and *for other reasons* in one sentence to show that she understands the issue from both sides, thus listing her explanations accordingly:

Example 5.49. FM-Announcing Phrases-FOR SOME REASONS (Correct Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> F14: Some people think that students should choose to attend universities outside their home countries. <u>For some reasons</u> they are right, but <u>for some other reasons</u> they are not right. If students go abroad, they will be successful there, but it will decrease our country's success rate…

In the post-treatment papers, there were not any occurrences of a pattern like '*for some reasons…but for other reasons*' since students were instructed to choose *one side* of the argument and support the position with reasons accordingly (Gough, 2001) in opinion paragraph writing training. Therefore, after the participants were trained in opinion writing, they abstained from supporting both sides of the arguments. The constraints of the genre affected the preferences in the use of metadiscourse (Ädel, 2006, p.58).

Table 5.23 demonstrates frequencies for the contextual analysis of *announcing devices* in the pre- and post-treatment data.

Table 5.23. Frequencies of Frame Markers that 'Announce Goals' with regard to their Context-Bound Appropriateness in Pre- and Post-Treatment Writings

	Pre-tests *f*				Post-tests *f*			
Announce goals	**CU**	**IU**	**OU**	**TOTAL**	**CU**	**IU**	**OU**	**TOTAL**
There are (many/a lot of/some) reasons	5	-	-	5	1	-	-	1
I have several reasons	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
For some reasons	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
For other reasons	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
for these reasons	-	1	-	1	1	1	-	2
These reasons come first	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
The other reasons show	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	**10**	**1**	**0**	**11**	**2**	**1**	**-**	**3**

1 participant in the pre-tests and 2 participants in the post-tests used *for these reasons* in their concluding statement to declare how the items he listed in the earlier statements supported their standpoint, but in 2 occurrences this expression was used redundantly as can be seen in Example 5.50:

Example 5.50. FM-Announcing Phrases-FOR THESE REASONS (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> M7: I agree this idea. I think students should choose to attend universities abroad if students have enough money because studying in a foreign country is very important. If you get education in foreign country, you can develop yourself. For example, you must use a foreign language. So, you can learn some languages. Next, you live in difference tradition from your tradition and you can learn some different customs. Also, if you attend universities abroad and get good education, you may find a high-quality job. Thanks to your job, you can earn good money. All in all, students should attend universities outside their home countries <u>for these reasons.</u>

For these reasons is pragmatically redundant in this sentence. The redundancy in its use can be recovered if *for these reasons* replaces *all in all* ("*For these reasons*, students should attend universities outside their home countries.")

Other than the two occurrences showing redundancy in the use of *for these reasons,* no errors were identified in the use of *announcing devices* in the present data.

Although the frequency in the use of *announcing phrases* is low and the forms are limited, the participants showed an awareness on how to use these markers appropriately.

5.6. Code Glosses

Code glosses serve "to help readers grasp meanings of ideational material" (Hyland, 2005, p.49). They elaborate the information for the intended audience through *rewording, explaining, defining, defining or clarifying the sense of a usage*. (Hyland, 2005, p.32).

Code glosses had the least frequency, accounting for the lowest proportion of total interactive metadiscourse with 11% in pre-tests and 14% use in post-tests. In a similar vein, *code glosses* was the least frequently employed category in the TM, accounting for 17% of total metadiscourse use (see Table 5.3 in Section 5.3).

The findings of *code glosses* with regard to the frequency of its use were in consistency with the findings of earlier L2 metadiscourse studies (e.g. Chan & Tan, 2010; Li and Ho, 2018; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018; Qin and Ucelli, 2019). There was a tendency in using code glosses much less than transitions and frame markers among L2 writers regardless of their first language backgrounds. For instance, non-native writers such as the Chinese students from different faculties of a university in Hong Kong in Ho and Li (2018), EFL learners from different nationalities (e.g., Chinese, Mexican, French) in Qin and Ucelli (2019), and Turkish undergraduate writers in Yüksel and Kavanoz (2018) used code glosses at a much lower rate than transitions. Furthermore, in corpus-based studies, which compared the frequencies and usages of metadiscourse markers in the writings of L1 English students and L2 English students, it was found that native English writers use code-glosses more frequently than L2 writers (e.g. Chan & Tan, 2010; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018). As suggested by Li and Ho (2018), the reason for L2 students' not using items which further illustrates the meaning for the reader or not feeling the need to explain the proposition via rewording or exemplification could be related to the role of the interactional context. The L2 essay writers might be thinking that the readers, who were the examiners of their essays, were more knowledgeable, thus being more responsible for understanding their intended meaning. Another reason for the higher employment of code glosses by English L1 users compared to L2 users from different language backgrounds

could be the cultural convention factor (Ädel, 2006). According to Hinds (1987), cultural conventions play a role in "how much responsibility the writer requires the reader to take in reading/understanding the text" (as cited in Ädel, 2006). Hinds (1987) suggests that in English-language culture, writers were held responsible for the clarity and organization in their statements, whereas in Japanese culture, for instance, it was the responsibility of readers (or listeners) to understand the intended meaning of the writer or the speaker (p.143). Therefore, material developers and teachers must be knowledgeable about metadiscourse and its use in the foreign language conventions in order to help learners produce efficient and felicitous writings in the target language. (Markkanen, et al. 1993).

In the present study, there are ten different forms of codes glosses in the pre-tests (i.e. *for example, such as, it means, like, for instance, it doesn't mean, this explains, an example of this, one more example* and *even*), and twelve different forms in the post-tests: (*for example, for instance, such as, to illustrate, that is, like, as an example, as like, I mean, what I mean is that, as an illustration* and *even*). The distribution of *code glosses* in the teaching material and the student paragraphs with their raw numbers and corresponding percentages is presented in Table 5.24.

Table 5.24. Distribution of Code Glosses in the Three Sets of Data

Code-glosses	Pre-tests (6701 words) *f*	%	TM (2607 words) *f*	%	Post-tests (7396 words) *f*	%
for example	30	63%	6	19%	36	46%
such as	6	13%	6	19%	6	8%
it means	4	8%	-	-	-	-
like	2	4%	3	9%	2	3%
for instance	**1**	**2%**	**3**	**9%**	**20**	**26%**
it doesn't mean	1	2%	-	-	-	-
this explains	1	2%	-		-	-
an example of this	1	2%	-		-	-
one more example	1	2%	-		-	-
even	1	2%	-		1	1
to illustrate	**-**	**-**	**5**	**16%**	**4**	**5%**
that is	**-**	**-**	**2**	**6%**	**3**	**4%**
as an example	**-**	**-**	**1**	**3%**	**2**	**3%**
as like	-	-	-	-	1	1%
I mean	-	-	-	-	1	1%
what I mean is that	-	-	-	-	1	1%
as an illustration	**-**	**-**	**1**	**3%**	**1**	**1%**
namely	-	-	2	6%	-	-
In other words	-	-	1	3%	-	-
or	-	-	1	3%	-	-
to exemplify	-	-	1	3%	-	-
TOTAL	**48**	**100%**	**32**	**100%**	**78**	**100%**

As can be seen from Table 5.24, code glosses had 48 occurrences in pre-tests and this number increased to 78 occurrences in post-tests. The ratio of code glosses to the total interactive MDMs raised from 11% to 14% after the input (the teaching material). A paired samples t-test analysis revealed that the frequency of code gloss use in post-tests was significantly higher than in pre-tests: t (49) = 2.97, p<.001.

The results revealed that 16 students did not use any code glosses in their pre-tests. However, the number of participants who did not employ any code glosses decreased to 8 students in the post-treatment paragraphs. 4 participants, on the other hand, used *code glosses* in their pre-tests but not in the post-tests and 4 participants preferred not to use code glosses in neither pre- nor post-training writings. It seems that although 12 participants started to utilize code glosses to elaborate the intended meanings in their writing after the treatment, 8 participants did not feel this need even after the practice of these markers when writing opinion paragraphs. One possible reason for why these participants did not feel the need to use markers of this category could be the length of the opinion paragraphs (the average length being 150 words). Their writings were too short to feel the need of this category. The following example of a student paragraph shows how the student completed his paragraph without using any code glosses:

Example 5.51. Code Glosses (CG, henceforth)-NO OCCURRENCE (Post-treatment SP)

> M11: As far as I am concerned, high school students should go to schools outside their home districts. Firstly, students should stay alone when they are teenagers and learn the real life. If they see the poverty they won't waste money in the future. Secondly they should stay away from parents and they learn how to stay alone. If they stay alone, in the future they know how to look after their family and how to grow their children. Finally they should go away from their family because of courage. If students stay away from their family, they will tackle the problems and their courage will enhance and in the future they will go to foreign countries very easy. All in all if students want to develop their courage and themselves, they should go to schools outside their home districts at high school.

On the other hand, there is more variety in the forms of code glosses in post-tests (10 forms pf CGs in pre-test and 12 forms in the post-tests), and they are more evenly distributed. Figure 5.10 illustrates the distribution of code glosses with their percentages in the three sets of data.
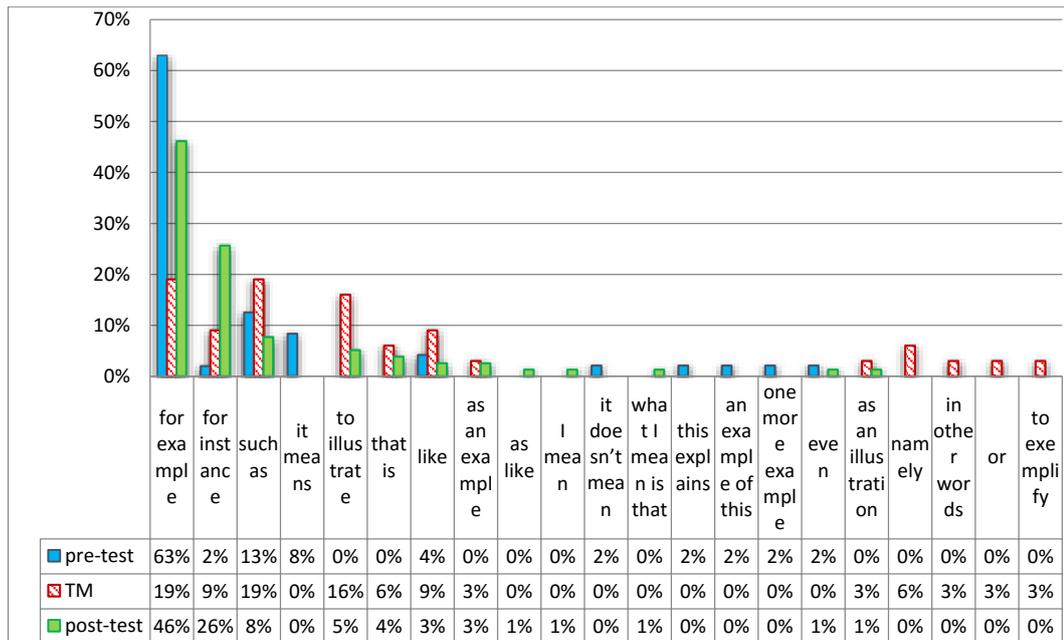
Figure 5.10. Percent Distribution of Code Glosses in the Three Sets of Data

	for example	for instance	such as	it means	to illustrate	that is	like	as an example	as like	I mean	it doesn't mean	what I mean is that	this explains	an example of this	one more example	even	as an illustration	namely	in other words	or	to exemplify
pre-test	63%	2%	13%	8%	0%	0%	4%	0%	0%	0%	2%	0%	2%	2%	2%	2%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
TM	19%	9%	19%	0%	16%	6%	9%	3%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3%	6%	3%	3%	3%
post-test	46%	26%	8%	0%	5%	4%	3%	3%	1%	1%	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%	1%	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%

As Figure 5.10 shows, participants heavily relied on *for example,* which accounted for a ratio of nearly 63% in pre-tests, but this ratio decreased to 46% in post-tests. As for the distribution of the other code glosses in the data, a different pattern was observed in pre- and post-tests. While *such as* (12.5%) ranked second with its 6 occurrences in pre-tests, it was *for instance* (26%) with its 20 hits in the second place of code glosses in post-tests. There is an extreme discrepancy between *for example* and *for instance* in pre-tests (63% vs. 2%), though.

The frequent use of *for example, for instance* and *such as* was observed in earlier studies (Chan & Tan, 2010; Asassfeh et al., 2013; Qin & Ucelli, 2018; Yüksel and Kavanoz, 2018). However, some frequent forms of code glosses observed in earlier studies such as *in fact* were not found at all in the present study.

Of the other set of code glosses in pre-tests, *it means* (8%) ranked third, which was followed by *like* (4%), *for instance* (2%), *it doesn't mean* (2%), *this explains* (2%) *one more example* (2%) and *even* (2%). There is, however, an almost completely different set of code glosses with a different ranking in post-tests. *For example* and *for instance* is followed by *such as* (8%), *to illustrate* (5%), *that is* (4%), *like* (3%), *as an example* (3%), *as like* (1%), *I mean* (1%), *what I mean is that* (1%), *as an illustration* (1%) and *even* (1%).

The results showed that the students changed their preferences in the use of code glosses to a great deal in their post-tests.

The code glosses employed by the novice L2 writers in the post-test corpus of the present study show similar patterns with the ones used in the teaching material in terms of frequencies and functions of these markers. After the treatment, the participants started to use *for instance* more often and employed new markers such as *to illustrate, that is, as an example* and *as an illustration* which were presented to the students in the teaching material. These findings indicate that novice L2 writers try to imitate the metadiscourse markers used in the instructional materials. Similarly, Yüksel and Kavanoz (2018) reported that novice writers replicate the MDMs used in the textbooks which were prepared by expert writers.

On the other hand, some code glosses used in the teaching material such as *namely, in other words, or* and *to exemplify* were not replicated in the students' post-treatment writings. As Yüksel and Kavanoz (2018) suggest, novice writers can experience problems in using complicated but important forms of metadiscourse markers. This suggestion was supported with the findings of the present study. When the participants were asked to choose *the code glosses* that they found difficult to use, the results showed that the participants had difficulty in using *namely, to exemplify, as an illustration, to illustrate, in other words, or, that is,* etc. (see Figure 5.11). The markers the learners had difficulty in using were either not employed in the students' writings or were the least preferred tokens.
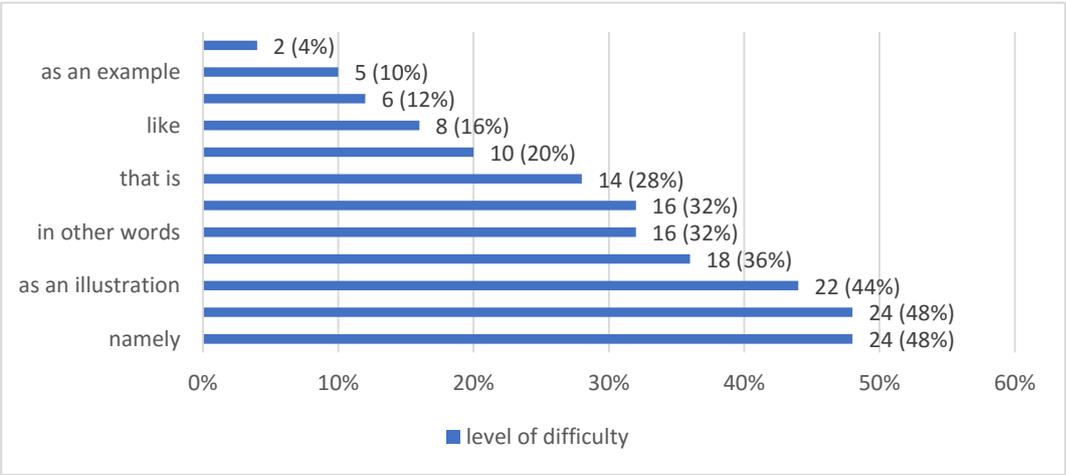
Figure 5.11. Difficulty Level of Code Glosses to L2 Novice Writers

When the participants were asked why they did not prefer to use these particular items, 24 students out of 50 reported that these markers were not prevalent in speaking nor in writing. They could not, therefore, recall them while writing their paragraphs. The findings here suggest that if these markers were placed into their teaching materials and exercised more often, the participants would use them more commonly in their texts.

The uses of code glosses were analyzed in order to determine their context-bound appropriateness in the data. Based on the use of *for example*, which is the most frequently used code gloss in both pre- and post-tests, the analysis yielded significant and interesting results (Table 5.25):

Table 5.25. Frequencies for Code Glosses with regard to their Context-Bound Appropriateness in Pre- and Post-treatment Student Paragraphs

	Pre-tests f				Post-tests f			
	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL	CU	IU	OU	TOTAL
for example	29	1	-	30	24	11	1	36
for instance	1	-	-	1	13	7	-	20
such as	4	2	-	6	6	-	-	6
it means	4	-	-	4	-	-	-	-
to illustrate	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	4
that is	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	3
like	2	-	-	2	2	-	-	2
as an example	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	2
as like	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
I mean	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
it doesn't mean	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
what I mean is that	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
this explains	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
an example of this	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
one more example	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
even	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
as an illustration	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
TOTAL	42	6	-	48	54	23	1	78

As Table 5.25 illustrates, 87.5% (42/48) of the items in code glosses category were correctly used and 12.5% (6/48) of the total 48 occurrences were incorrectly used in pre-tests. On the other hand, the percentage in the appropriate use of code glosses was much lower in post-tests (69%; 54/78). 29% of the total 78 code glosses were inappropriately used and 1% was overused. This means that although students

increased the number of code glosses after the treatment (instructional material use), they did not acquire competency in using code glosses accurately.

The most inaccurate occurrence frequency was observed in the item *for example*. Although 97% of *for example* is appropriate in pre-tests, this percentage falls to 67% in post-tests. Similarly, the accuracy rate of *for instance* was 65% in post-tests. This was an unexpected and undesired result since students were supposed to use metadiscourse markers more correctly in their post-training writings. Some participants who did not have an awareness of how to use *code glosses* for exemplification were responsible for the sudden increase in the inaccurate use of *for example* and *for instance*. In Example 5.52, we see how the participant constantly used *for example* and *for instance* inappropriately and unnecessarily in his paragraph:

Example 5.52. CG-FOR EXAMPLE/FOR INSTANCE (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M29: I believe that high school students should go to schools outside their home districts. First reason is different culture is important. For example different culture is different lifestyle. For instance, multiculture means different friendships. Other reason is, good experience for the students. For example, different school, different teacher, different people always give best experience. For instance, students can visit historical places and cultural area because historical area very important the education for student. For example, different school education can improve students decisions for the future. Third reason is students can visit university. For example, maybe student will choose this university for university education. For instance, student can go to small school trip daily. University course and information office for learning new information about the universities. To sum up, I believe and I agree student should go to schools outside their home districts for improve yourself and success.

The sentences following *for example* and *for instance* are supposed to be the exemplification of the previous information. However, they were just a continuation and clarification of the previous sentences in his paragraph. Although this participant increased the number of code glosses in his post-test, he was not able to use them correctly. It seems that this student did not benefit from the instructional materials with regard to how to use exemplification markers appropriately. This instance once again proves that the abundance of MDMs in a student's writing does not tell us anything about the quality in the use of these markers. In addition, the

frequency of MDM occurrences alone does not show whether these markers were acquired sufficiently by the learners.

Such as, which was the second most preferred code gloss with 6 occurrences in the pre-tests and the third most prevalent code gloss with 6 occurrences again in post-tests, was incorrectly used by 33% (2 occurrences) in pre-tests, and this percentage decreased to 0% (no incorrect occurrence) in post-tests. The following example illustrates how the participant failed to use *such as* in his pre-treatment writing:

Example 5.53. CG-SUCH AS (Incorrect Usage; Pre-treatment SP)

> M9: First, other countries are more comfortable than the home country. <u>Such as</u>, life is so amazing.

The usage of *such as* in M9's sentence ("Such as, life is so amazing") was misused both semantically and syntactically. Asassfeh et al. (2013) suggests that students may find it difficult to use certain items such as *such as* based on its syntactical grounds. However, the student here also failed to use *such as* correctly as a metadiscursive expression.

Some other students, on the other hand, had the knowledge of how to support their propositions with appropriate examples using *code glosses* such as *for instance*. The participant in the following example demonstrates how she was aware of using *for example* to ensure the contextual integrity between the ideas:

Example 5.54. CG-FOR EXAMPLE (Correct Usage; Think-aloud session)

> F20: [writes]
>
> Secondly, students can improve their <u>character and skills</u> when they go to schools outside their home districts.
>
> [thinks how to support her second reason]
>
> OK, now <u>I will give an example</u>.
>
> [writes]
>
> For instance, they can become a more confident person.
>
> [rereads what she writes]

No, <u>I want to delete the word 'skills'</u> from my earlier statement <u>because I will not say anything about skills in my example. I will write 'character' only because I said 'they become more confident' for my exemplification, and this is about character, not skills</u>.

[deletes the word 'skills' and rewrites]

Secondly, students can improve their character. <u>For instance</u>, they can become a more confident person.

The verbalized thoughts of the participant in this example show how the participant realized that the word 'skills' was not needed in the sentence since her following statement did not exemplify anything about that word. Therefore, she decided to use the word 'character' only. This revision in her writing illustrates how she tried and managed to create a fluent concordance between her proposition and its forthcoming exemplification successfully. Example 5.54 also shows us the importance of revising and editing in writing since writing is a process rather than a product. The students who are aware of this fact succeed in using metadiscourse correctly since process approach followers "discuss and reproduce their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (Zamel, 1983, p. 165).

The other appropriately used items when giving examples were: *like, for instance,* and *an example of this* in pre-tests; and *to illustrate, like,* and *as like* in post-tests. However, the students failed to use some other code glosses such as *one more example* and *even* in pre-tests, and *as an example, as an illustration,* and *even in post-tests*. In fact, there is no existence of a code-gloss as 'as like'. The participant was supposed to choose either *as* or *like*, but since it was used for exemplification in an appropriate manner, it was counted as correct:

Example 5.55. CG-AS LIKE (Post-treatment SP)

F5: On the other hand, they must explain themselves more clearly because other people cannot understand them. We can give many disadvantages <u>as like</u> these.

In addition to the special case of *as like*, one participant in the pre-test and another participant in the post-test used *even* with the meaning of *in fact*:

Example 5.56. CG-EVEN (Incorrect Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> M18: This is not good for a student. Even it is too bad.

Here, M18 tried to rephrase the previous statement after *even*. However, *even* cannot be used in this manner. *In fact*, should be used here instead. *Even* was also used incorrectly as an *addition* and *comparison* marker as discussed in the previous sections (Section 5.4.1 and 5.4.2). It is apparent that students need some explicit guidance for the use of *even* in writing.

Other than exemplifying the previously given information, *code glosses* are also used to give a precise and definite meaning of the expression by rephrasing. To make the meaning clear to the reader, the participants employed different forms of signallers in pre- and post-tests: *it means (4), it doesn't mean (1)* and *this explains (1)* were preferred in pre-tests, and that *is (3), I mean (1) and what I mean is that (1)* in post-tests. All occurrences of these expressions were correctly used in post-tests. Based on the frequency of their occurrences, it can be seen that *that is* replaced *it means* in post-tests. Since *that is* was one of the items presented in the teaching materials, it seems that the students preferred to use a new item that they had just learned. This shows us the influence of teaching materials on students' preferences while using metadiscourse markers in writing. The participants used these devices appropriately. The following example illustrates how the participant used *that is* correctly:

Example 5.57. CG-THAT IS (Correct Usage; Post-treatment SP)

> F4: For one thing, leading their lives in somewhere which is far away from their home can be difficult. <u>That is</u>, a student who is between 15-18 years old might not clean the house or eat healthy food.

Particular items such as 'that is' were correctly used in all their occurrences. However, the overall findings of code glosses indicate that although the students used code glosses more frequently with a more variety in forms in the post-tests than in pre-tests (with a raw frequency of 78 occurrences in post-tests vs. 48 occurrences in pre-tests; and with 12 different forms in post-tests vs. 10 different forms in pre-tests), they misused (30%) and overused (1%) these items in post-tests. In other

words, a third of code glosses were inappropriately and unnecessarily used by the participants in the present study. This means that code glosses are not so easy to use for L2 novice writers since these inexperienced writers have difficulty in elaborating their intended messages with examples (Asassfeh et al., 2013; Anwaarden et al, 2013; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018).

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This chapter first presents the main research findings of the study, then considers the pedagogical implications, and finally discusses the limitations of the current study along with suggestions for further research.

6.1. Summary of the Study

The study aimed to identify the types, frequencies, functions and contextual appropriateness of the interactive metadiscourse devices such as transitions, frame markers and code glosses used by Turkish EFL learners in their opinion paragraphs before and after their training; to explain the underlying reasons for the employment and avoidance of those markers; and to uncover whether training in the target language has an effect on the use of the scrutinized interactive metadiscourse devices. In order to gain deeper understanding and to triangulate the results of the study, data from B1 level EFL students at a prep-school of a university in Turkey were collected in five stages: (1) Pre-treatment English student paragraphs; (2) Post-treatment English student paragraphs; (3) think-aloud sessions; (4) follow-up interviews; and (5) an online questionnaire. The data sets collected in these stages were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The analysis of the data yielded the following findings:

1. The most frequently employed category of interactive markers used by L2 English novice writers was *transitions* accounting for the highest proportion of total interactive metadiscourse markers in both pre-tests (62%) and post-tests (54%). Transitions was followed by frame markers (27% and 32%, respectively), and code glosses (11% and 14% use, respectively). The over-reliance on

transitions use in the pre-tests reduced after the treatment, and the participants increased the use of frame markers and code-glosses in their post-treatment writings.

2. The variety and the range of interactive MD devices in students' writings were confined to particular forms. In the category of *transitions*, the participants heavily relied on 'and' for addition, 'because' for consequence, and 'but' for comparison. These three most preferred devices (*and, because, but*) accounted for over 60% of all transitions used in both pre- and post-treatment paragraphs, and the ratio for these three markers was around 50% in the teaching material.

   In the category of frame markers, there was an over-reliance on sequencing markers such as 'first of all', 'firstly', 'secondly' and 'finally'. These four most frequently used sequentials accounted for 53% of total sequentials in pre-tests and 49% in post-tests. As for the code glosses, participants heavily relied on 'for example' (63% in pre-tests and 46% in post-tests). As a result of this, the students' writing products were full of repetitions of the same MD devices.

3. When the participants were asked about the reasons for their over-reliance on particular MD markers, they reported that they preferred to use MD devices they were familiar with because they did not feel confident about the use of newly learned MD forms, and thus did not try to change it with another form from the same category. Some participants, on the other hand, pointed out to the insufficient practicing with metadiscourse markers. Therefore, the teaching materials could be held liable for the over-reliance on some particular transition markers in the students' papers since the TM itself had a limited set of *transitions,* and indeed there were not enough exercises nor activities to practice different metadiscourse forms.

4. Although there was an over-reliance on particular items, the participants employed a wider set of frame markers and code glosses in their post-tests. It was found that the students replicated the metadiscourse items used in their instructional materials.

5. The genre of the academic writing also had an influence on what types of metadiscourse markers were employed as suggested by Ädel (2006, p.58). *Shift topic* markers (one type of frame markers) were not observed in neither the teaching material nor the student paragraphs. In opinion paragraph writing, there

was not a need to denote a shift in topic, and therefore the students avoided using markers such as 'back to', 'to look more closely', etc. Another reason was the length of the paragraphs (the average length being 150 words). The students' writings were too short to feel the need of indicating a shift in topic. The lower frequency of *adversatives* compared to the other types of transitions could also be explained with the influence of genre and the length of the writing.

To investigate whether the interactive MDMs employed by Turkish EFL novice writers were correctly used, incorrectly used or overused, the context-bound analysis of these markers (Hinkel, 2001; Asassfeh et al.,2012) was conducted for both pre- and post-treatment paragraphs. The findings are summarized as follows:

1. Although the students showed awareness on using *addition* markers mostly appropriately in their writings, they had difficulty in using comparison markers such as 'on the other hand', and causal markers such as 'because', 'so', 'therefore', 'because of', appropriately. Although students did not mention those as difficult MD markers, they made mistakes while using these markers. According to Liu (2006) and Povolna (2012), contrastive and causal relations are unclear and hard to conceptualize for L2 novice writers.

2. Sequencing devices that mark the initial points of the argument such as 'firstly', 'first of all' and 'first' were the problematic frame markers with a high percentage of inappropriate use both in pre- and post-treatment writings. In fact, the percentage of incorrect use of these items was even higher in post-tests (83% in post-tests vs. 67% in pre-tests). One problem with the use of *initial starters* was the lack of announcing signaler in the topic sentence. One of the biggest reasons the students failed to use *the initial starters* correctly was the instructional materials used in the writing classroom. In the sample paragraphs of the teaching material, the enumerators such as *first, second, etc.* were used without an indicator, which announces the forthcoming items in the paragraph (see Example 5.42, Section 5.5.1). Therefore, there was a negative transfer from the teaching material with regard to the use of these *initial starters*.

On the other hand, there was an improvement in the appropriate use of particular *sequentials* such as 'finally'. In the pre-tests, some students used 'finally' in the concluding statement (see Example 5.45, Section 5.5.1). Since this is a mistake native speakers of Turkish learning English make frequently, teachers should direct the students' attention to the correct use of this marker while teaching frame markers. This could help reduce the faulty usage of this marker in the students' writings.

3. Although the code glosses were more frequently used with a wider range of forms after the instruction, it was found that still a third of the code glosses were misused or overused in the post-treatment writings. This means that it is not so easy for L2 novice writers to use code glosses since these inexperienced writers have difficulty in elaborating their intended messages with examples even after their training (Asassfeh et al., 2013; Anwaarden et al, 2013; Yüksel & Kavanoz, 2018).

4. It was found that some students did not show an improvement in the use of some of the MD markers even after their training. The mistakes in their pre-treatment writings were repeated in their post-treatment writing as well. That the student repeated the same kind of mistake in his post-test can be attributed to the underrepresentation of *therefore* in the teaching material. Markers that students have difficulty in using should be practiced more in the teaching materials. Otherwise, these erroneous forms in L2 writing could get fossilized (Schmidt, 1990).

5. L1 interference in L2 writing resulted in the inappropriate usage of items such as, 'even', 'on the other hand', and 'shortly' *(See Sections 5.4.1.4; 5.4.2.3; and 5.5.2, respectively).*

6. The follow up interview results showed that some of the participants attributed the MD mistakes to their carelessness while writing. These participants were observed to be focusing on the product rather than the process while writing, and therefore did not revise or edit their papers before submission. These learners were not aware of the fact that writing is a process rather than a product.

6.2. Pedagogical Implications and Suggestions

The findings of the current study provide some significant implications for second/foreign language teaching, and the groups that can benefit from this study are varied: language teachers (both in-service and pre-service trainers), students, material developers, test developers, administrators, researchers and linguists.

First of all, based on the results regarding the use of interactive metadicourse, it was found that the students used a limited variety of metadiscourse markers, and therefore an overreliance on particular markers were observed in their writings. This may result in 'pragmatic fossilization' (Dumlao & Wilang, 2019), and "lead to the production of weak ties and cause boredom on the reader's behalf" (Asassfeh et al., 2013, p.579). Instructional materials could be held responsible for the overreliance on some particular MDMs utilized in the students' papers since analysis of the teaching materials used in the writing classes of the examined program revealed that the frequencies and variety of interactive MDMs in the student paragraphs were parallel to the ones used in the teaching materials. Therefore, different forms of interactive devices should be studied in writing classes so that the learners could show the connections between their ideas using a variety of forms.

Secondly, the inappropriate use or overuse of particular metadiscourse items was prominent in the writing of the L2 novice writers, which not only results in the disorganized texts but also makes the content incomprehensible on behalf of the reader. The misuse and overuse of the interactive MDMs could be attributed to different factors. The first reason could be the insufficient practice of these markers in the teaching material. Although these markers were utilized in the teaching material, there were not any explicit instructions nor further practice for them. This suggests that the teaching material did not exert a remarkable improvement on the appropriacy rate of these markers due to the lack of explicit instructions and absence of exercises allowing practice in the materials. Therefore, it is important to teach and practice the use of metadiscourse markers in context.

In addition, there was a negative transfer from the teaching material with regard to the use of *initial starters*. In the sample paragraphs of the teaching material, the enumerators such as *first, second, etc.* were used without an indicator in the topic sentence (such as "…due to the following reasons"), and this mistake was replicated by the L2 novice writers in their outputs. In order to avoid such misrepresentations, teaching resources should be revised by expert material developers and authentic materials should be used so that students could produce more appropriate and natural writings in the target language.

That the students replicated the metadiscourse items used in their instructional materials points out to the importance of training and teaching materials on the frequency and successful use of metadiscourse markers. In Turkey where English is taught as a foreign language, students do not have much exposure to English outside the classroom. Therefore, teachers and teaching materials are playing an essential role in teaching English metadiscourse (Algi, 2012; Ulucay, 2014; Daşkın & Hatipoglu, 2019). This should be interpreted as a make-up call for teachers and material developers. They must be knowledgeable about metadiscourse and its use in the foreign language conventions in order to help learners produce efficient and felicitous writings in the target language. It is essential for the material developers to follow and analyze the latest corpus studies to see the norms and the new trends in the expert language users' discourse register, and tailor the instructional materials used in academic writing classes, accordingly. Language teachers should also provide good modeling in the use of metadiscourse devices and provide feedback on the students' writing products in order to equip them with the knowledge necessary to be competent in creating cohesive and coherent texts.

Besides teaching materials, L1 interference was also responsible for some inappropriately used metadiscourse devices (e.g. *even*, *on the other hand* and *shortly*). Identifying L1 interference through context-specific analysis is essential, and teachers, material writers and students should be warned about the use of metadiscourse. Carelessness and hastiness also played a role in the misuse of some simple metadiscourse markers such as 'and'. This suggests that students should be trained in revising and editing, which are the essential steps of process writing. The

novice writers should be reminded of the fact that writing is a process rather than a product, and therefore the first draft should not be considered as the final product. In the process of revision, students could reproduce their ideas and correct their mistakes as they attempt to communicate the intended meaning in an appropriate manner.

The findings of the current study supported further evidence for the importance of training in the metadiscourse. When the use of metadiscourse devices in L2 are not taught and practiced in teaching materials, novice L2 learners have difficulty in using these devices and have tendency in applying particular metadicourse markers in an inappropriate manner, which results in disorganized and weak texts (Crismore, et al. 1993; Steffensen & Cheng, 1996; Ulucay, 2014; Hatipoglu & Algi, 2018). Therefore, teaching materials and teaching techniques with regard to the use of metadiscourse should be reassessed and developed. Not only pre-service but also in-service teacher trainers should be trained in metadiscourse and its use in L2 writing so that they could help their students produce coherent texts using various categories and appropriate forms of metadicourse devices (Ädel, 2006).

This study also highlighted the importance of corpus-based investigations of context-specific metadiscourse use in L2 undergraduate writing. The results of such context-specific studies help identify context-specific problems in the use of metadiscourse in L2 writing, and thus help increase the awareness of the researchers, teachers and material developers on the metadiscourse patterns occurring in the students' writings. According to Baker (2006), the most important type of corpus in discourse analysis is context-dependent corpus. Therefore, language teachers should be encouraged to explore the discourse conventions in their students' writings through context-specific investigation, such as action research (Littlewood, 2014).

Finally, the data triangulation was a requirement in the present study in order to identify the frequencies, types and features of the interactive metadiscourse devices, and to gain an insight into the reasons behind student preferences while using metadiscourse in L2 writing. It would not have been possible to understand and interpret the reasons behind their choices without the verbal reports, follow-up

interviews and questionnaires. To see the whole picture from the participants, a methodological triangulation is suggested for further studies.

6.3. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research

There are also several limitations of the current study. First, the data in the present study were collected from students in a single program. Since these participants share specific characteristics of this single group, it is not possible to generalize the results to all novice EFL learners. A further research is needed to gain a deeper understanding of how EFL learners from different institutions use metadiscourse while writing opinion paragraphs in the second/foreign language.

This research investigated the interactive MDMs employed by lower level intermediate students before and after the instruction. To uncover how students from the other levels of proficiency (A1, A2, B2, C1) use interactive metadiscourse devices and whether or not training in this area would affect the use of those markers, a further research is needed.

A longitudinal study can also be conducted to investigate whether learners develop their pragmatic competence over time and whether or not further training is going to affect the use of MD markers.

In the present study, frame markers and glosses were explicitly instructed with the lists of tables and practiced with further exercises, and the findings showed an improvement in the appropriate use of some of the MD devices after the instruction. To find out whether explicit or implicit instructions help students more an experimental research study with one control and one experimental group could be conducted.

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APPENDICES

A: ERROR CORRECTION CODES

Error Correction Codes of English Writing Courses

Symbol	Type of Error	Example	Corrected version
Sp	Spelling	The **custumer** bought a pair of trousers by credit card.	The **customer** bought a pair of trousers by credit card.
P	Punctuation	I studied very hard **however** I failed.	I studied very hard**; however,** I failed.
C	Capitalization	My friend **susan** is very beautiful. **she** has green eyes.	My friend **Susan** is very beautiful. **She** has green eyes.
SV	Subject-verb agreement	Ali and Ayşe **has** been abroad several times. There **is** five students in the classroom.	Ali and Ayşe **have** been abroad several times. There **are** five students in the classroom.
Sng?/pl	Singular or Plural	The manager treats his employees like **slave**. When I entered my office, I saw a **people** waiting for me.	The manager treats his employees like **slaves.** When I entered my office, I saw a **person** waiting for me.
Art	Article (a/an-the)	**An** university is going to be opened in the eastern side of Turkey. I bought an umbrella yesterday. **An** umbrella is broken.	**A** university is going to be opened in the eastern side of Turkey. I bought an umbrella yesterday. **The** umbrella is broken.
Prep	Preposition	She is looking**to**a new pair of shoes. Alice is going to stay **on** a hotel.	She is looking **for** a new pair of shoes. Alice is going to stay **in** a hotel.
WL	Wrong Linker	The company hosted a trade fair**; however,** they wanted to increase their sales. For example, Antalya.	The company hosted a trade fair **because** they wanted to increase their sales. For example, Antalya is one of the Mediterranean cities.
V	Vocabulary Choice	My teacher **learns** English very well.	My teacher **teaches** English very well.
f	Word Form/part of speech	My friend speaks English very **good.** There are a lot of negative **effectives** of tap water. This result will **effect**lots of people. Universities have **serve.**	My friend speaks English very **well.** There are a lot of negative **effects** of tap water. This result will **affect** lots of people. Universities have **services.**
A/P	Active Passive	People are **preferred** different vehicles	People **prefer** different vehicles.

VT	Verb Tense	After she **washes** her clothes, she took a shower.	After she **had washed** her clothes, she took a shower.
GR	Grammar	You are **gooder**than me at English. She talked to **he** in the canteen.	You are **better** than me at English. She talked to **him** in the canteen.
✕	Unnecessary Word	My boss ~~he~~ is very conscientious.	My boss is very conscientious.
⬭	Connect the sentences	We work together. So we have become friends.	We work together, so we have become friends.
^	Missing Word	After she kissed him,∧ took ashower and left for work.	After she kissed him, she took a shower an left for work.
	Rewrite	I very often trying new.	I often try new things.
ROS	Run on sentence	Murray takes the train to school Mom rides the bus.	Murray takes the train to school,**and**Mom rides the bus.
IR	Irrelevant sentence, erase it.	〰〰〰〰	
PSM	Please See Me		

Düşünce/Fikir Paragrafı Yazımında Kullanılan Yapılar

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Bu çalışma anadili Türkçe olan öğrencilerin İngilizcede düşünce-fikir paragrafı yazarken kullandıkları yapıları araştırmak amacı ile yapılmaktadır. Katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır ve sizden elde edilen veriler yalnızca bilimsel çalışmalarda kullanılacak olup isminiz gizli tutulacaktır. Çalışmanın verimli olabilmesi için soruları dürüstlükle cevaplamanız önemlidir. Katılımınız için çok teşekkürler.

1.Ad-Soyad:

2.Yaş :

3.Cinsiyet: Kadın ☐   Erkek ☐

4.Doğum Yeri :

5.Anadil(ler):

6.İlkokul:

7.Lise:

8.Lise Mezuniyet Ortalaması:

9.Babanızın eğitim düzeyi nedir? (Lütfen sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)

☐**Hiçbir eğitim almadı**   ☐**İlkokul**   ☐**Orta Okul**

☐**Lise**   ☐**Üniversite**

10.Annenizin eğitim düzeyi nedir? (Lütfen sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)

☐**Hiçbir eğitim almadı**   ☐**İlkokul**   ☐**Orta Okul**

☐**Lise**   ☐**Üniversite**

11.Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğrenmektesiniz (Tüm eğitim hayatınız boyunca)?

12.İngilizce Yeterlilik seviyeniz nedir?: (Lütfen sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)

Çok iyi: Hem yazılı hem de sözlü olarak mükemmel bir şekilde iletişim kurabiliyorum.

İyi: İngilizce kullanarak iletişim kurmakta sıkıntı çekmiyorum.

Orta: İngilizce kullanarak iletişim kurmakta bazen zorlanıyorum.

Kötü: İngilizce iletişim kurmakta ciddi sorunlarım var.

☐**Çok iyi**   ☐**İyi**   ☐ **Orta**   ☐**Kötü**

13.Yurt dışında 6 aydan fazla yaşadığınız oldu mu? :   ☐**Evet**   ☐**Hayır**

Eğer cevabınız "Evet" ise lütfen yaşadığınız ülkeleri, ne kadar süre orada kaldığınızı ve gitme sebebinizi belirtiniz.

Ülke	Bulunduğunuz Süre	Bulunma sebebiniz
a. _____	_____	_____
b. _____	_____	_____
c. _____	_____	_____

C: STUDENT ASSIGNMENT PAPER

Student Assignment Paper

Name-Surname:	Class:
Task Name: **Pre-Test (Opinion Paragraph Writing)**	

✔ Write an opinion paragraph of about 150 words in English.

✔ Submit your mobile phones to your teacher.

✖ Do NOT use any dictionaries or do NOT take any help from your teacher or from your friends while writing.

Topic: _____

_____

_____

_____

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_____

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_____

* Instructor Feedback (Instructor's Comments on <u>Strengths</u> and <u>Areas for Improvement</u>)

<u>**Content**</u> (meeting task requirements, appropriacy, use of supportive ideas, originality)	<u>**Organization**</u> (paragraphing, use of topic sentence, logical order, unity, coherence; correct use of linkers/conjunctions)	<u>**Language Use**</u> (grammatical and lexical accuracy and appropriacy; correct use of grammar points and words that they have learned recently; spelling, punctuation, legibility)

<u>Further Comments & Suggestions</u>:

Outstanding	Good	Fair	Limited	Weak

Instructor:

D: WRITING MATERIAL

(FOR WEEKS 4 & 5)

WRITING OPINION PARAGRAPHS

PART I: WHAT IS AN OPINION PARAGRAPH?

The government is planning to build nuclear plants. What do you think about them?

I think they're dangerous for human health and environment. Instead of building power plants, the government should focus on natural energy sources. What about you? How do you feel about this issue?

Mary   Jane

Well, I believe, only nuclear power plants can solve the energy problem in the long term. If the government takes the necessary precautions, they are not dangerous.

Read the conversation between Mary and Jane and answer the following questions.

1. What are Mary and Jane talking about?
   They are talking about the government's plan on building nuclear plants.
2. What is Jane's opinion about the issue?
   She thinks that they are dangerous for human health and environment. For this reason, she believes that the government should focus on natural energy sources instead of building nuclear plants.
3. What does Mary think about it?
   She thinks that building nuclear plants can solve the energy problem in the future.
4. Whose ideas do you agree with? Why?
   Free answers.
5. What is the difference between **an opinion** and **a fact**?
We can prove a fact with evidence and facts are generally objective while an opinion is based on beliefs and interpretation of facts and they are generally subjective.

An **opinion paragraph** starts with an original and a clear point of view or attitude about a debatable topic. The writer tries to express her/his opinion or perspective on the topic by providing supporting points such as **reasons, proofs, facts, examples**, and **details**.

STEPS TO FOLLOW:

- Start with a clear topic sentence and introduce your opinion about that topic.

e.g. a) **I strongly believe** that cheating at school is unacceptable.
   b) **In my opinion**, parents should control the content of TV shows for their children.
   c) **I don't think** that movies are too violent nowadays.

- Provide enough reasons, proofs, facts, examples, and details to support your opinion.

e.g. a) **For one thing**, cheating is an unethical behavior in our society.
   b) **For example,** a child shouldn't watch any violent programs or news on TV because they might affect her psychology in a negative way.
   c) **To illustrate,** according to a recent research, for the last 5 years, most movies have focused on history, romance, and comedy.

- End your paragraph with a concluding sentence that restates your opinion clearly and effectively.

e.g. a) **All in all**, cheating is an intolerable act and we should do everything in our power to stop this immoral behavior.
   b) **To conclude**, if you don't want your children to be aggressive and violent individuals, you should control what they are watching.
   c) **To sum up**, recent movies have taught us history, made us cry or laugh and this is a good sign for the future of cinema and the viewers.

- Use the following phrases to make your paragraph stronger and more effective:

I (don't) think…	In my view…
In my opinion…	From my point of view…
I (don't) feel…	My point of view is that
As far as I am concerned…	As I see it…

To list and add points:

In the first place,	In addition,
To start with,	Moreover,
To begin with	Furthermore,
Secondly,	Besides,
Thirdly,	Finally,

Study the following examples:

1. Studying a language in a country where it is widely spoken has many advantages. **To begin with**, every day there are more opportunities to practice listening to and speaking with native speakers. **In addition**, students can experience the culture first-hand, which is a great help when trying to understand the language. This is especially true if they choose to live with a British family, as exchange students for example, and, if students attend a language school full-time, the teachers will be native speakers. In this case, they will **also** improve speaking and listening skills. **Besides**, attention can be given to developing reading and writing skills. In conclusion, it is preferable to study English in an English- speaking Country because of the advantages listed above.

(Adapted from: http://www.eslhandouts.com/materials/ielts_writing.pdf)

2. Parents should protect children from too much TV exposure. **First of all**, there is sometimes too much violence on TV. Parents should prevent children from watching these programs. **Moreover**, too much TV viewing can result in health problems for children. For example, statistics show that children who watch too much TV have worse eye-sight than children who watch less TV. **In addition to** health problems, watching TV for long hours results in failure at school. Children who watch TV for long hours are less successful at school subjects. All in all, too much TV exposure is dangerous for children in many ways, so parents should try hard to protect their children.

To introduce examples:

For example,	As an example
For instance,	As an illustration,
Namely,	such as
To illustrate,	like
To exemplify,	

**Stud** the **following examples:**

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1. In my opinion, education is advantageous for the country and the individual. To start with, it is impossible to be overeducated. The more people are educated, the better the world will be, because people will be able to discuss and exchange ideas. A further point is that people with degrees have many more opportunities. **For instance**, they can take a wider variety of jobs and do what they enjoy doing, instead of being forced to take a job they dislike. Finally, a highly educated workforce is good for the economy of the country. **Namely**, it attracts foreign investment, and this helps the development of the economy in the country. In conclusion, I feel strongly that the country can only progress if all people are educated to the maximum of their ability.
(Adapted from: http://www.writefix.com/argument/education.htm)

2. Smoking should definitely be banned in public places. First of all, smoking is dangerous for human health. It results in many dangerous illnesses **such as** asthma, bronchitis, cancer, etc. Therefore, people should not smoke. Furthermore, when people smoke in public places, they may disturb people around them with the smell of their cigarettes. People should not forget that they can disturb people when they smoke. Also, smoking is harmful for the economy of families. If the government bans smoking in public places, people can decide to quit smoking. This may help to save money. **To illustrate**, a packet of cigarette is about 5 YTL in Turkey. If people do not smoke, they can save their money. To sum up, forbidding smoking in public places can be really helpful for people.

PRACTICE

1. Use the linkers from the following box to complete the blanks in the following texts. There may be more than one correct answer for some blanks.

in addition	to start with	such as
apart from	also	in addition to
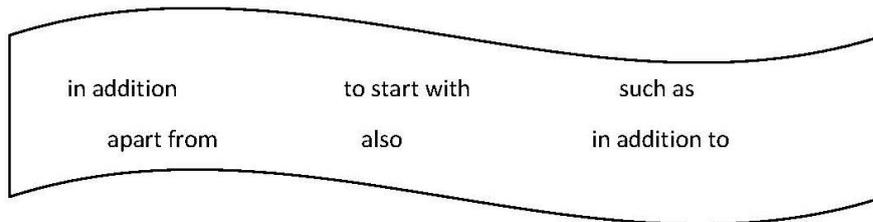
a. In my opinion, there should not be any rules and regulations about sports. 1) **To start with**, young children learn their own limits and strengths through play with others 2) **apart from** social lessons about the right and wrong. **3)In addition**, challenging sport provides a healthy, safe, physical outlet for aggression. 4) **In addition to** starting many friendships in teams, sport helps to reduce stress. 5) **Also**, sport teaches and requires many important lessons in society 6) **such as** discipline, training, and respect for the rules. There is 7) **also** the issue of freedom. People should be free to participate in activities.

(Adapted from: http://www.writefix.com/argument/sports.htm)

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furthermore          like

apart from this      for one thing        finally
```
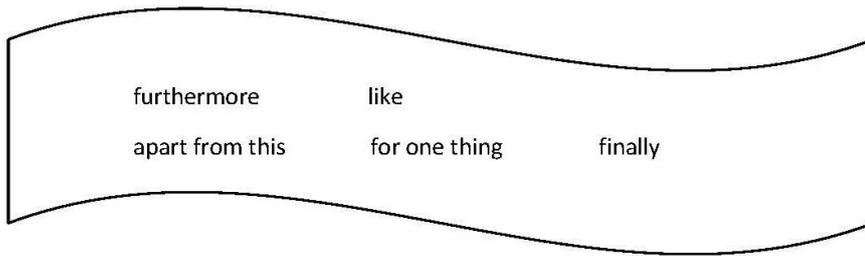
b. I strongly believe that children should be educated at schools, not at home. 1) **For one thing**, children need to be exposed to other children. These other children will represent different personalities for them. 2) **Furthermore**, they will be able to meet friends from different sections of society and different families or even cultures. 3) **Apart from this**, children learn to function outside their families when they go to school. In this way, they will not be dependent on their parents for many needs 4) **like** educational, emotional and social needs. 5**) Finally**, when children finish school, they can find it easier to adapt to their work or college. **In short**, education at school is really necessary for children because it helps them in different aspects.

2. Write your own paragraph using the linkers of addition and exemplification effectively:

Topic sentence: I think genetic engineering should be very carefully controlled.

1ˢᵗ Supporting Idea: Life on our planet has evolved slowly, over thousands of years.

Explanation: If we change that process too quickly by changing the genes, we may cause terrible damage.

2ⁿᵈ Supporting Idea: Genetic engineering may result in really important health problems if we try to change the genes.

Example: Genetic changes can cause the mutation of viruses or may develop diseased cells in human bodies.

3ʳᵈ Supporting Idea: We should consider how some evil people could use genetics.

Example: They might try to create 'the perfect baby' or design a 'master-race'.

Conclusion: There may be some important advantages of genetic engineering, but for me there are more disadvantages than advantages.

Write Your Paragraph Here: (sample)

I think genetic engineering should be very carefully controlled. To begin with, life on our planet has evolved slowly over thousands of years. So, if we change that process too quickly by changing the genes, we may cause terrible damages. Furthermore, genetic engineering may result in really important health problems when we try to change the genes. To illustrate, genetic changes can cause the transformation of viruses or may develop diseased cells in human bodies. Finally, we should consider how some evil people could use genetics. For instance, they might try to create 'the perfect baby' or design a 'master-race'. To sum up, there may be some important advantages of genetic engineering, but for me there are more disadvantages than advantages.

PART II: ANALYSIS

A- **Read the following opinion paragraph and answer the following questions.**

TO THE EDITOR OF *NEWSWEEK*:

In your February issue, you have mentioned that young people should make decisions about their education. **However**, from my point of view, young people cannot make their decisions about their education. **For one thing**, teenagers need guidance in life about important decisions because they lack experience. **In other words**, they don't have enough experience to understand the benefits of good education. **Another thing is that** teenagers may become lost under the weight of such a huge decision and **as a result**, they may feel stressed and even become more aggressive and accuse their parents for not helping them with such a life changing decision. **Finally**, young people tend to act without thinking. They are not mature enough to understand the consequences of their acts. **So**, it is possible that they may regret their decisions in the future and it may be too late to undo their mistakes. **To sum up**, teenagers need guidance and counseling about their choices in their education if they don't want to have regrets in the future.

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1. What is the passage about?
   The passage is about whether teenagers can make their decisions about their education or not.

2. What is the writer's opinion about the topic?
   The writer believes young people cannot make their decisions about their education.

3. How does the writer support her opinion? What are her supports?
   The writer has three supports. First of all, teenagers need guidance in life about important decisions because they lack experience. Secondly, there is a risk of getting lost under the weight of life changing decisions. Finally, teenagers are not mature enough to make right decisions.

4. Underline the linkers and discuss their functions.

5. Do you agree with the writer? Why / why not?

FREE ANSWERS

B- Now read the opinion paragraphs below and answer the following questions.

Paragraph A

I strongly believe that university education is meaningless. If you look at the most successful people in the world, they are mostly high-school or college dropouts. For example, think about Bill Gates; he never finished college, but he is very rich! And they teach nothing useful at college. Believe me I know! Besides, when you graduate from college, you can't find a job easily, so what's the point of wasting four years on nothing? All in all, I am a college dropout and I know that one day I will be super rich without a degree!

Is 'Paragraph A' a good example of an opinion paragraph? Why? Why not? List your reasons and tell if you agree with the writer.

Paragraph B

As far as I am concerned, college education is essential for people to become responsible, conscious, and sophisticated individuals. For one thing, if we don't have college education, we can't be aware of the problems of the world and as a result, we can't help the world become a better place. Another important point is that, with college education, you gain perspective and you also learn about your own identity and your purpose in life. Finally, college education teaches us a wide variety of subjects such as arts, history, literature, politics, math... etc. When you learn these things, your horizons widen and you become sophisticated. As a result, you learn to appreciate or criticize things. In a nutshell, college education helps us become better people and individuals.

Is 'Paragraph B' a good example of an opinion paragraph? Why? Why not? List your reasons and tell if you agree with the writer.

WRITING A PARAGRAPH

Write an opinion paragraph on the following topic.   **"It is good/bad to study abroad."**

Step 1: Brainstorming:

- Write down as many ideas about the topic as you can in 5 minutes.
- Add more items to your list by answering the questions *what, how, when, where, why,* and *who*
- Group similar items on the list together and cross out items that do not belong.

It is good to study abroad

. you can develop your language skills.

. you can learn a new culture

It is bad to study abroad

. you might feel homesick

. you may have communication problems.

Step 2: Outlining:

Use phrases instead of writing sentences except the topic and concluding sentence. Then write your paragraph.

OUTLINE

Topic sentence: _____

    A)   Supporting point: _____

        o Supporting detail: _____

        o Supporting detail: _____

        o Supporting detail: _____

    B) Supporting point: _____

        o Supporting detail: _____

        o Supporting detail: _____

        o Supporting detail: _____

Concluding sentence: _____

Step 3: Paragraph Writing:

Sample:

As far as I am concerned, it is good to study abroad for many reasons. First of all, you can develop your language skills because you have many opportunities to do this. To illustrate, you can make new friends on the campus and talk to them. Or, on the way to school, you can make small talks with people on the bus. You can also attend conferences or seminars on the campus. Secondly, you can develop your social skills. You can join new social clubs such as photography club or dance club. In addition to this, you can attend many concerts and plays. You can try new food. Studying abroad is a good way to learn a new culture. To sum up, as I've mentioned above studying abroad has many advantages.

<div align="center">

PRACTICE

</div>

Choose one of the topics and write an opinion paragraph of about 150 words.

I. *"It is better for people to stay in their own countries rather than to migrate to other ones."*

II. *"Grades are the most important criteria to determine success in our educational system."*

Sample: (ONLY IN TEACHERS' COPY)

In my opinion, it is better for people to stay in their own countries rather than to migrate to other ones for several reasons. First of all, you can face culture shock. That's, you may have difficulty in adapting to the new culture. For example, you might feel sick because of food, or you might get cold due to climatic changes. In addition to this, if you don't know the language of that culture, you will probably have difficulty in communicating with people. It may also cause misunderstandings in social contexts. Secondly, you may get homesick. That is, you might feel lonely in a new country since you don't have close friends and relatives. It will take some time to make new friends, so when you are in trouble, a new friend may not get involved in your personal problems to help you. In the U.S.A, unlike Turkish people, Americans generally keep their personal space in their personal contacts. In conclusion, migrating to another country might not be a good idea because of these reasons.

Düşünce / Fikir Paragrafı Yazımında Kullanılan Yapılar

Sevgili Öğrenciler,
Bu çalışma anadili Türkçe olan öğrencilerin İngilizcede düşünce-fikir paragrafı (opinion paragraph) yazarken kullandıkları yapıları araştırmak amacı ile yapılmaktadır. Katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır ve sizden elde edilen veriler yalnızca bilimsel çalışmalarda kullanılacak olup isminiz gizli tutulacaktır.

Bazı sorular 1-5 arası değerleri gösteren doğrusal ölçek kullanılarak hazırlanmıştır. Bu sorular için rakamlar şu ifadeleri temsil etmektedir:

 1=Çok Kolay
 2=Kolay
 3=Ne Zor Ne Kolay
 4=Zor
 5=Çok Zor

Çalışmanın verimli olabilmesi için soruları dürüstlükle cevaplamanız önemlidir. Katılımınız için çok teşekkürler.
İletişim:
Inst. Diğdem Sancak
e-mail: didemcimicin@cankaya.edu.tr

Name-Surname

BÖLÜM 1

1) *Çalışmada ilk önce, 'üniversite öğrencilerinin yurtdışında eğitim görmesi gerektiği ve/ya gerekmediği' ve sonrasında ise 'lise öğrencilerinin yaşadıkları yerin dışındaki bir bölgede eğitim görmesi gerektiği ve/ya gerekmediği' konusunda iki farklı paragraf yazmanız istendi. Bu konular kendinizi rahatça ifade edebileceğiniz konular mıydı? Niçin?*
(Metni buraya yazınız)

2) *Bu konular ile paragraf yazmayı 'opinion paragraph writing' eğitimi almadan önce nasıl tanımlardınız? Niçin?*

1=Çok Kolay   2= Kolay   3=Ne zor ne kolay   **d**=Zor   **e**=Çok zor

1	2	3	4	5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

(Metni buraya yazınız)

---

3) *Bu konular ile ilgili paragraf yazmayı, eğitim aldıktan sonra nasıl tanımlardınız?*

1=Çok Kolay   2= Kolay   3=Ne zor ne kolay   **d**=Zor   **e**=Çok zor

1	2	3	4	5
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

(Metni buraya yazınız)

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4) *Üniversiteye gelmeden önceki öğretim hayatınızda Türkçe ve/veya İngilizce düşünce-fikir paragraf yazımı (opinion paragraph writing) konusunda aldığınız eğitimi anlatır mısınız? Bu konuyla ilgili olarak, önce Türkçe ile başlayıp sonrasında İngilizce deneyimizi anlatınız.*

(Metni buraya yazınız)

BÖLÜM 2
Paragraf Yapıları
Bu bölümde kullanmakta güçlük çektiğiniz paragraf yapılarını işaretleyiniz.

1) Fikirleri sıralarken ve kapanış yaparken kullanılan yapılar:
Uygun olanların tümünü işaretleyin.

- ☐ First,
- ☐ First(ly),
- ☐ In the first place,
- ☐ First of all,
- ☐ To start with,
- ☐ To begin with,
- ☐ For one thing,
- ☐ Second(ly),
- ☐ Another thing/point is that

☐	A further point is that
☐	Third(ly),
☐	Moreover,
☐	Furthermore,
☐	Besides,
☐	In addition,
☐	Finally,
☐	To conclude,
☐	To sum up,
☐	All in all,
☐	In a nutshell,
☐	In conclusion,
☐	In short
	Diğer:

Fikirler arasındaki bağlantıları sağlarken kullandığınız yapılar:

Uygun olanların tümünü işaretleyin.

☐ and

☐ also

☐ in addition

☐ in addition to

☐ besides

☐ apart from

☐ or

☐ but

☐ however

☐ while

☐ because

☐ as

☐ because of

☐ due to

☐ so

☐ therefore

☐ as a result

☐ result in
Diğer:

Fikirler açıklanırken ve örneklendirilirken kullanılan yapılar:

Uygun olanların tümünü işaretleyin.

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☐ for example
☐ for instance
☐ namely
☐ that is
☐ in other words
☐ or
☐ to illustrate
☐ to exemplify
☐ as an example
☐ as an illustration
☐ such as
☐ like
Diğer:

2) ***Zorluk yaşadığınız yapıları seçtiniz. Bu yapıları öğrenmek ve/veya kullanmak neden zordu?***
(Metni buraya yazınız)

3) ***Opinion paragraph yazmak için kullanılacak yapılar konusunda, size gösterilen kaynakları ve yöntemleri yeterli ve/veya faydalı buldunuz mu?*** *Yalnizca birini işaretleyin.*   ☐ Evet   ☐ Hayır
4) ***Niçin yeterli ve/veya faydalı buldunuz veya bulmadınız?***
(Metni buraya yazınız)

CLOSING and COMMENTS
Eklemek istediğiniz herhangi bir şey var mı?
(Metni buraya yazınız)
Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

F: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

The aim of study conducted by Diğdem Sancak is to collect data about the use of interactive metadiscourse markers used in English opinion paragraphs. Participation in the study must be on a voluntary basis. Be assured that your work will be kept strictly confidential and evaluated only by the researcher. The obtained data will only be used for scientific purposes.

Your questions related to the study will be answered if there are any. I would like to thank you in advance for your participation in this study.

Contact information:

Inst. Diğdem Sancak

e-mail: didemcimicin@cankaya.edu.tr

I am participating in this study totally on my own will and am aware that I can quit participating at any time I want. I give my consent for the use of the information I provide for scientific purposes.

Participant:

_____   _____   _____

Name of the participant   Signature   Date

Researcher:

_____   _____   _____

Name of the researcher   Signature   Date

G: ETHICAL COMMITTEE APPROVAL FORM

Sayı: 28620816 /51

30 OCAK 2019

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Doç. Dr. Çiler HATİPOĞLU

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız Diğdem SANCAK'ın "**The Use of Textual Metadiscourse Devices: Logical Connectives, Frame Markers and Code Glosses in L1 and L2 Opinion Paragraphs**" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve **044-ODTÜ-2019** protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımla bilgilerinize sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Tülin GENÇÖZ

Başkan

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL

Üye

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR (Y.)

Üye

Prof. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI

Üye

Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK

Üye

Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT

Üye

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YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN DÜŞÜNCE/FİKİR PARAGRAFLARINDA KULLANDIKLARI BAĞLAYICILAR, ÇERÇEVE BELİRLEYİCİLER VE KOD ÇÖZÜMLEYİCİLER

Yazma, belirli bir söylem türünün sınırları dahilinde öğrenmenin, bilgiyi düzenlemenin ve düşünmenin bir birleşimidir (McCool, 2009; Hatipoğlu ve Algi, 2017). Yazarların, bilgilerini ve düşüncelerini hedef kitlelerinin ihtiyaç ve beklentilerine göre düzenlemelerinin bir yolu ise 'üstsöylem' kullanımıdır (Hyland, 2004). Üstsöylem, "bir söylemi düzenlemek için kullanılan veya yazarın metnin içeriğine veya okuyucusuna yönelik duruşunu gösteren dilsel ve kişilerarası araçlar" olarak tanımlanmıştır (Hyland, 1998, s. 438). Üstsöylem, yazarların okuyuculara, metin içerisindeki bağlantılara ve bu bağlantıların nasıl değerlendirilip yorumlanması gerektiğine ilişkin önemli ipuçları sunmalarına olanak sağlar (Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore, Markkanen ve Steffensen, 1993).

Hyland (2010)'a göre, üstsöylem anlaşılması kolay olmayan çok işlevli bir olgudur: üstsöylem, metin yapısının nasıl kurgulanacağını gösterir; ikna edici bir argüman geliştirir ve aynı zamanda yazar ve okuyucu arasında bağ kurulmasına olanak sağlar. Üstsöylem belirleyicilerini yeterince ve uygun bir biçimde kullanmak her yazar için zor olabilir. Bognadovic ve Mirovic (2018)'e göre, bazı uzman yazarlar bile bu araçları bilinçli olarak değil de sezgisel olarak kullanmaktadırlar. Üstsöylem belirleyicilerinin kullanımı farklı kültür ve dillerde büyük ölçüde değişiklikler gösterdiğinden ve yazarın anadilinde kullandığı üstsöylem normlarının yabancı dildeki kullanım normlarıyla uyuşmamasından dolayı, anadili İngilizce olmayan yazarlar bu dilde yazarken kendi anadillerinde kullanılan yapıları kullanmaktan kaçınmalı ve öğrendikleri yabancı dildeki üstsöylem kullanımları ile ilgili bilgi donanımına sahip olmaları gerekmektedir

(Bogdanovic ve Mirovic, 2018; Hatipoğlu ve Algi, 2018). Bu yüzden, üstsöylem kullanımı yabancı dilde yazarken daha da zordur (Bognadovic ve Mirovic, 2018)

Alanyazında yapılmış çalışmalar göstermektedir ki, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin üstsöylem belirleyicileri kullanımındaki bilgi dağarcıkları dardır ve bu öğrenciler metinlerini düzenlerken ya da okuyucuyla ilişki kurarken uygun üstsöylem belirleyicilerini kullanmakta zorluk çekmektedirler (Hyland ve Milton, 1997; Chan ve Tan, 2010; Algi, 2012; Ho ve Li, 2018). Üstsöylem belirleyicilerinin işlevlerine uygun olmayan biçimde kullanılması, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin metinlerindeki tutarlılığı bozmakta ve metin içindeki öğelerin anlamsal ilişkilendirilmesinde sorunlara neden olmaktadır (Intaraprawat ve Steffensen, 1996). Önemine rağmen, üstsöylem belirleyicileri okullarda yaygın olarak öğretilmemektedir ve bu konuda yeterince çalışmaya yer verilmemektedir (Steffenson ve Cheng, 1996; Bogdanovic ve Mirovic, 2018).

Her ne kadar yabancı dilde İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin metinlerindeki üstsöylem belirleyicilerinin kullanımı ve işlevlerini araştırmaya çalışan az sayıda ulusal ve uluslararası çalışmalar olsa da (Crismore, vd., 1993; Steffenson ve Cheng, 1996; Ädel, 2006; Bayyurt ve Akbas, 2014; Hatipoğlu ve Algi, 2017; Hatipoğlu ve Algi, 2018; Can, 2006; Yüksel ve Kavanoz, 2018), bu çalışmalar ya etkileşimsel (interactional) üstsöylem kullanımını araştırmakta ya da özellikle etkileşimli (interactive) üstsöylem belirleyicilerine odaklanmamaktadır. Halbuki yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen birçok yazar için etkileşimli üstsöylem belirleyicileri, öğrenmesi ve kullanması zor yapılardır (Ho ve Li, 2018; Yüksel ve Kavanoz, 2018; Qin ve Ucelli, 2019). Alanyazın taramasında, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen üniversite öğrencilerinin etkileşimli üstsöylem belirleyicilerini kullanımları üzerine yapılan çalışmaların sınırlı ve az sayıda yapıldığı gözlemlenmiştir. Alanyazında, Türkiye'de yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen bu yazarların metinlerinde etkileşimli üstsöylem belirleyicilerine ne sıklıkta ve doğrulukta yer verdikleri ve bu araçları kullanırken yaptıkları seçimlerin nedenlerini sorgulayan çalışmaların olmadığı saptanmıştır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı üç yönlüdür. İlk olarak, İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrenciler tarafından İngilizce düşünce/fikir paragrafı yazarken kullanılan etkileşimli üstsöylem

ulamları olan *bağlayıcılar (transitions), çerçeve belirleyiciler (frame markers)* ve *kod çözümleyiciler*in *(code glosses)* sıklığı, çeşitliliği ve içeriğe bağlı uygunluğu araştırılmıştır. Her ne kadar *Metiniçi Belirleyiciler (Evidentials)* ve *Tanıtlayıcılar (Endophoric)* etkileşimli üstsöylem ulamları olsa da, bu iki işlevsel ulam bu çalışmanın dışında tutulmuştur, çünkü *düşünce/ fikir paragrafı* yazma türü bu belirleyicilerin kullanımını gerektirmemektedir ve metinlerin uzunluğu (150 kelime) da bu belirleyicilerin kullanılmamasında etkendir. İkinci olarak, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen Türk yazarların bu belirleyicileri niçin kullandıkları ya da niçin kullanmaktan kaçındıkları keşfedilmeye çalışılmıştır. Çalışmanın bir diğer ve son amacı ise öğretim materyallerinin incelenen etkileşimli üstsöylem belirleyicilerinin kullanımı üzerindeki etkisini ortaya koymaktır. Bu amaçlar doğrultusundan oluşturulmuş araştırma soruları şunlardır:

1. a) İngilizcede B1 düzeyi yeterliliğe sahip Türk öğrencilerin eğitim öncesi ve eğitim sonrası yazmış oldukları İngilizce düşünce/fikir paragraflarında kullandıkları bağlayıcılar, çerçeve belirleyiciler ve kod çözümleyiciler nelerdir?

b) İngilizcede B1 düzeyi yeterliliğe sahip Türk öğrencilerin eğitim öncesi ve eğitim sonrası yazmış oldukları İngilizce düşünce/fikir paragraflarında kullandıkları bağlayıcılar, çerçeve belirleyiciler ve kod çözümleyiciler metin içinde ne sıklıkta kullanılmaktadır?

c) Öğrenciler bu bağlayıcıları, çerçeve belirleyicileri ve kod çözümleyicileri ne ölçüde doğru kullanmaktadır?

2. İngilizce düşünce/fikir paragraflarında, öğretim materyallerinin bağlayıcıların, çerçeve belirleyicilerinin ve kod çözümleyicilerin kullanımı üzerindeki etkisi nedir?

Bu amaçları gerçekleştirmek için, B1 seviyesindeki 50 üniversite hazırlık öğrencisinden elde edilen veriler beş aşamada toplanmıştır: (1) Eğitim öncesinde yazılan İngilizce öğrenci paragrafları; (2) Eğitim sonrasında yazılan İngilizce öğrenci paragrafları; (3) sesli düşünme oturumları; (4) takip görüşmeleri; ve (5) çevrimiçi anket. Bunların dışında, öğrencilerle çalışılmaya başlanmadan önce, öğrenciler hakkında bilgi edinmek amacıyla *öğrenci geçmişi anketi* toplanmıştır. Haftalara göre veri toplama aşamaları şu şekildedir:

Tablo 1. Veri Toplama Aşamaları

1. Hafta	Öğrenci Geçmişi Anketi
2. Hafta	Eğitim öncesinde yazılan İngilizce öğrenci paragrafları (n=50)
3. ve 4. Hafta	İngilizce Düşünce/Fikir Paragrafı Yazımı Üzerine Eğitim
5. Hafta	-Eğitim sonrasında yazılan İngilizce öğrenci paragrafları (n=44) + -Sesli düşünme oturumları (n=6)
6. Hafta	Takip görüşmeleri
7. Hafta	Çevrimiçi anket

İngilizce yazarken öğretim materyallerinin bağlayıcıların, çerçeve belirleyicilerinin ve kod çözümleyicilerin kullanımı üzerindeki etkisini görmek için çalışmada tek gruplu bir ön test - son test modeli tasarlandı (bkz. Tablo 1). Katılımcılardan, düşünce/fikir paragrafı yazımı üzerine eğitim verilmeden öncesinde bir adet ve sonrasında bir adet olmak üzere yaklaşık 150 kelimelik İngilizce düşünce/fikir paragrafları yazmaları istendi. Katılımcıların çevrimiçi kaynakları kullanmalarını veya başkalarından yardım almalarını engellemek için bu öğrenci paragraflarının tümü sınıfta yazdırıldı. Öğrencilerin cep telefonları öğretmen tarafından toplandı ve öğrenciler yazarken sözlük kullanmamaları ve öğretmenlerinden ve arkadaşlarından yardım almamaları konusunda uyarıldı. Bu önlemlerin arkasındaki neden, katılımcıların etkileşimsel üstsöylem belirleyicilerini metin içerisinde nasıl kullandıklarına dair salt bilgisini sınamaktı (Algi, 2012; Ulucay, 2014).

Bu belirli yapıları ve araçları yazarken ve kullanırken katılımcıların düşünce süreçleri hakkında bilgi toplamak için, sesli düşünme ve yazma protokolleri kullanılmış ve amaçlı örnekleme yöntemi kullanılarak seçilen altı katılımcıdan 5. Haftada İngilizce olarak bir fikir/düşünce paragrafı yazmaları istenmiştir. Böylece, ikinci dili İngilizce olan Türk acemi yazarların İngilizce/fikir paragrafı yazarken üstsöylem araçlarını neden kullandıklarına veya neden kullanmaktan kaçındıklarına dair bilgi edinilmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Sesli düşünme oturumlarında katılımcıların düşüncelerini net ortaya koyamayacağı ve/veya bu konuda istekli olmayabilecekleri gerçeği (Mackey ve Gass, 2005) göz önünde bulundurularak bu katılımcıların uyarılmış hatırlama oturumlarına katılmaları istenmiş ve 6. Haftada yaklaşık 10 dakika süren yarı yapılandırılmış takip görüşmeleri gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Görüşmeler, söylem temelli görüşmeler (Odell, Goswami ve Herrington, 1983; Bogdanović ve Mirović, 2018) olarak tasarlanmıştır. Yani, öğrencilerin

paragraflarında kullandıkları üstsöylem araçları görüşme öncesinde tespit edilip işaretlenmiştir ve görüşmelerde katılımcılardan bu araçları niçin kullandıklarına dair açıklama yapmaları istenmiştir. Böylece sesli düşünme oturumlarında elde edilemeyen bazı bilgiler kazanılmış, elde edilen bilgiler ise kesinleştirilmiştir (Macintyre, 2013).

Son olarak, tüm katılımcıların düşünce/fikir paragrafı yazarken kullandıkları üstsöylem belirleyileri hakkında görüşlerini elde etmek ve öğretim materyallerinin bu üstsöylem araçlarının kullanımı üzerine etkinliğini sorgulamak amacıyla 7. Haftada çevrimiçi bir anket toplanmıştır.

Sesli düşünme oturumları, takip görüşmeleri ve çevrimiçi anket, eğitim öncesi ve sonrası öğrenci yazılarından elde edilen verileri doğrulamak için çıkartım araçları olarak kullanılmıştır. Tüm veri toplama araçları, eğitimin verilmesinden önce ve sonra anadili Türkçe olan kişiler tarafından yazılmış İngilizce görüş paragraflarında kullanılan üstsöylem araçlarının türünü, sıklığını, ne ölçüde doğru kullanıldığını ve bu araçlar kullanılırken katılımcıların niçin bu seçimleri yaptıklarını veya yapmaktan kaçındıklarını ortaya koymak amacıyla kullanılmıştır.

Toplanan veri setleri Hyland (2005)'ın üstsöylem modelindeki etkileşimsel boyut sınıflandırması (bkz. Tablo 2) temel alınarak hem nicel hem de nitel olarak analiz edilmiştir.

Tablo 2. Hyland (2005)'ın Üstsöylem Modeli (Etkileşimsel Boyut)

Boyut	İşlev	Örnekler
Etkileşimsel Üstsöylem	Okuru metin içerisinde yönlendirir.	Araçları
Bağlayıcılar (Transitions)	Ana tümceler arasındaki ilişkileri ifade eder.	ayrıca, fakat, bu yüzden
Çerçeve Belirleyicileri (Frame Markers)	Söylem eylemlerine, dizilerine ve aşamalarına gönderimde bulunur.	son olarak, sonuç olarak, amacım
Kod Çözümleyiciler (Code Glosses)	Önermesel anlamları detaylandırır.	şöyle ki, örneğin, … gibi, başka bir deyişle
Metin İçi Belirleyiciler (Endophoric Markers)	Metnin diğer bir diğer bölümünde bulunan bilgiye gönderimde bulunur.	yukarıda belirtildiği üzere, bakınız Şekil X, 2. Bölümde
Tanıtlayıcılar (Evidentials)	Diğer metinlerdeki kaynaklara gönderimde bulunur.	X'e göre, Z … şeklinde açıklar.

Öğrenci paragrafları beş aşamada analiz edilmiştir:

1. Aşama: Bağlayıcıların, çerçeve belirleyicilerin ve kod çözümleyicilerin referans arama listesine alınması
2. Aşama: üstsöylem araçlarının kullanım sıklığını analiz etmek için elde yazılan öğrenci paragrafları dijitalleştirilmiş ve CLAN CHILDES derlem işleme aracına yerleştirilmiştir.
3. Aşama: Kullanılan üstsöylem araçları belirlenip sınıflandırılmıştır.
4. Aşama: Üstsöylem araçlarının doğru kullanımı hususunda bağlam-içi analiz yapılmıştır. Öğrencilerin metinlerinde kullandıkları üstsöylem belirleyicileri Doğru Kullanım , Yanlış Kullanım ve Fazla Kullanım kategorilerine sokulmuştur.
5. Aşama: Fikir paragraflarının ön ve son testlerindeki sayılar karşılaştırılmış, bağımlı örneklem t-testleri yapılmıştır.

Sesli düşünme oturumlarında ve takip görüşmelerinde elde edilen veriler yazıya dönüştürülmüş ve toplanan bilgiler elle kodlanarak değerlendirilmiştir. Çevrimiçi anketin sonuçları ise, Google Dokümanlar'ın çevrimiçi arayüzünde görüntülendikten sonra yanıtların verilerini kodlamak için elektronik bir tabloya aktarılmıştır.

Çalışma için toplanan paragraflardan elde edilen veriler incelendiğinde, etkileşimsel üstsöylem belirleyicilerinin ön test (n=50) ve son testteki (n=50) dağılımları Tablo 3'te görülmektedir:

Tablo 3. Toplam Etkileşimsel Üstsöylem Belirleyicilerinin Ön Test ve Son Testteki Dağılımı

	Ön Test	Son Test
Toplam kelime sayısı	6701	7396
Bağlayıcıların, Çerçeve Belirleyicilerin ve Kod Çözümleyiclerin toplam sayısı	423	563
100 kelime başına düşen belirleyici sayısı	6.3	7.6

Bu çalışma için İngilizce olarak yazılan 50 adet ön test düşünce/fikir paragrafındaki toplam kelime sayısı 6701'dir (paragraf başına ortalama 134 kelime) ve bu

paragraflarda kullanılan etkileşimsel üstsöylem araçların (bağlayıcılar, çerçeve belirleyiciler ve kod çözümleyiciler) sayısı 423'tür. Yani, üstsöylem araçların sıklığı her 100 kelimede 6.3'tür. Öte yandan, son testte toplanan İngilizce paragraflarındaki kelime sayısı 7396'dır (paragraf başına ortalama 148 kelime) ve toplam etkileşimsel üstsöylem araçların sayısı 563'tür. Bu da eğitim sonrasında yazılan paragraflardaki etkileşimsel üstsöylem araçların sıklığının 7.6 olduğu anlamına gelmektedir. Eğitim öncesi ve sonrasındaki yazılan İngilizce paragraflardaki etkileşimsel üstsöylem araçların kullanım sıklığı arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını belirlemek için bir bağımlı örneklem t-testi yapıldı ve analiz, öğrencilerin verilen eğitim sonrasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı derecede daha fazla etkileşimsel üstsöylem araçları kullandıklarını ortaya koydu: t (49) = 4.8, p <.001.

Etkileşimsel üstsöylem belirleyicilerinin eğitim öncesi ve sonrasında yazılan paragraflardaki kategorik dağılımına bakıldığında, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen acemi yazarlar tarafından en sık kullanılan etkileşimsel üstsöylem kategorisi *bağlayıcılardır* (toplam etkileşimsel belirleyicilerin ön testlerde %62'sini; son testlerde ise %54'ünü oluşturmaktadır). *Bağlayıcıları* sırasıyla, *çerçeve belirleyicileri* (ön test: %27; son test: %32) ve *kod çözümleyiciler* (ön test: %11; son test: %14) takip etmektedir. Ön test metinlerde yer alan *bağlayıcıların* yoğun kullanımı verilen eğitim sonrasında azalmıştır. Katılımcılar eğitim sonrasında yazdıkları metinlerde daha fazla çerçeve belirleyici ve kod çözümleyici kullanmıştır.

Öğrenci yazılarındaki etkileşimsel üstsöylem araçlarının çeşitliliği incelendiğinde, öğrencilerin metinlerinde belirli ve sınırlı öğeler kullandığı gözlemlenmiştir. *Bağlayıcılar* kategorisinde, katılımcıların ekleme bildirirken yoğun bir şekilde 'and' (ve), nedensellik bildirirken 'because' (çünkü), karşıtlık bildirirken ise 'but'(ama) kullandığı ortaya konmuştur. En çok tercih edilen bu üç bağlayıcı (ve, çünkü, ama), hem eğitim öncesinde hem de eğitim sonrasında yazılan paragraflarda kullanılan tüm bağlayıcıların %60'ından daha fazlasını oluşturmaktadır. Bu üç belirleyicinin öğretim materyalindeki kullanım oranı ise %50 civarındadır. *Çerçeve Belirleyicileri* kategorisinde en çok kullanılan araçlar ise, 'first of all' (ilk olarak), 'firstly'

(birincisi), 'secondly' (ikincisi) ve 'finally' (son olarak)'tır. En sık kullanılan bu dört sıralama aracı, ön testlerde yer alan toplam çerçeve belirleyicilerin %53'ünü ve son testlerdeki çerçeve belirleyiclerin %49'unu oluşturmaktadır. *Kod çözümleyici*lerine gelince, katılımcılar metinlerinde yoğun bir şekilde 'for example' (örneğin) ifadesine yer vermişlerdir (ön test: %63; son test: %46). Bunun bir sonucu olarak, öğrencilerin metinlerinde aynı üstsöylem araçlarının tekrarına düşüldüğü görülmektedir.

Katılımcılara, belirli üstsöylem belirleyicilerini niçin yüksek sıklıkta kullandığı sorulduğunda, aşina oldukları üstsöylem araçlarını kullanmayı tercih ettiklerini, çünkü yeni öğrenilen üstsöylem öğelerinin kullanımı konusunda kendilerine güvenmediklerini bildirdiler. Bu yüzden, bildikleri ve aşina oldukları bir aracı, aynı kategoride bulunan başka bir araçla değiştirmeye çalışmadıklarını ifade ettiler. Diğer taraftan, bazı katılımcılar üstsöylem araçlarını öğrenirken yeterince alıştırma yapılmadığına dikkat çekti. Bu açıklamalar dikkate alındığında ve öğretim materyallerinde sınırlı sayıda ve çeşitlilikte etkileşimsel üstsöylem aracı bulunduğu gerçeği göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, öğrencilerin sınırlı sayıda ve tekrara düşen üstsöylem araçları kullanımından öğretim materyallerinin sorumlu tutulabileceğini söylemek yanlış olmayacaktır.

Diğer yandan, her ne kadar belirli üstsöylem araçları yüksek sıklıkta kullanılıp tekrara düşülse de katılımcılar eğitim sonrasında yazdıkları metinlerde, çerçeve belirleyicileri ve kod çözümleyici kategorilerinde daha çeşitli öğelere yer vermişlerdir. Öğrenci paragraflarında yer alan öğeler ile öğretim materyallerinde kullanılan öğelerin kullanım sıklığındaki ve çeşitliğindeki benzerlikler, öğrencilerin bu çeşitli öğeleri kullanırken öğretim materyallerinde kullanılan üstsöylem araçlarını taklit ettiklerini ortaya koymaktadır.

Çalışmanın ortaya koyduğu bir diğer bulgu ise, Ädel'in (2006) de belirttiği üzere, akademik yazım türünün, metinlerde ne tip üstsöylem araçları kullanılacağı hususunda belirleyici rol aldığıdır. Gerek öğrenim materyalindeki örnek paragraflarda gerekse öğrenci paragraflarında *konu değişimi bildiren* araçlara (*Shift topic* markers) rastlanmamıştır. Düşünce/fikir paragraf yazımında, konu değişimine

gerek duyulacak bir durum olmadığından dolayı, öğrenciler 'geri dönecek olursak', 'daha detaylı bakacak olursak' gibi konu değişimi bildiren araçları kullanmamışlardır. Bu araçların kullanılmamasının bir diğer sebebi ise paragrafların kısa oluşudur (paragraflar ortalama 150 kelime civarındadır). Öğrenci paragrafları, konu değişimine işaret etmeye ihtiyaç duyulamayacak kadar kısadır. Benzer şekilde, zıtlık bildiren bağlayıcıların diğer bağlayıcılara göre daha az sıklıkta kullanılması yine yazımın türü ve metinlerin kısa oluşu ile açıklanabilir.

İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin kullandığı etkileşimsel üstsöylem araçlarını ne ölçüde doğru kullandığını, yanlış kullandığını veya fazla kullandığını araştırmak için hem eğitim öncesinde hem de sonrasında toplanan paragraflar üzerinde bu araçların içeriğe bağlı analizi (Hinkel, 2001; Asassfeh ve ark., 2012) yapılmıştır. Bağlam-içi (context-bound) analizi sonucunda elde edilen bulgular aşağıda özetlenmiştir:

1. Her ne kadar öğrenciler yazılarında ekleme bildiren araçların kullanımı hususunda çoğunlukla farkındalık gösterseler de 'on the other hand' (öte yandan) gibi karşıtlık bildiren ve 'because' (çünkü), 'so' (bu yüzden), 'therefore' (bu nedenle), ve 'because of' (yüzünden) gibi nedensellik bildiren bağlayıcıları doğru olarak kullanmakta zorluk çekmişlerdir. Öğrenciler çevrimiçi anketlerde bu bağlayıcıları zor buldukları üstsöylem belirleyicileri arasına sokmasalar da paragraflar üzerinde yapılan bağlam-içi analiz sonuçları öğrencilerin bu bağlayıcıları kullanırken sık hata yaptığını ortaya koymaktadır. Liu (2006) ve Povolna (2012) 'ya göre, karşıtlık ve nedensellik ilişkilerinin yabancı dilde yazan acemi yazarlar için kavramsallaştırılması ve anlaşılması güçtür.

2. 'Firstly'(birincisi), 'first of all'(ilk olarak) ve 'first'(ilki) gibi argümanın ilk maddesini ortaya koyarken kullanılan sıralama araçlarının hem eğitim öncesi hem de eğitim sonrası yazılarda yüksek oranda yanlış ve uygunsuz kullanıldığı ortaya konmuştur. Üstelik, bu belirleyicilerin yanlış kullanım yüzdesinin, eğitim sonrası yazılan metinlerde daha da yüksek olduğu görülmektedir (son testlerdeki yanlış kullanım oranı:%83; ön testlerdeki yanlış kullanım oranı: % 67). Bu sıralama araçlarının yanlış kullanılma nedeni, paragrafın giriş cümlesinde söylem amacını belirten araçların eksik olmasıdır:

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Örnek 1:

> Üniversite öğrencileri, üniversite eğitimini yurtdışında almayı tercih etmelidir.
> <u>Birincisi,</u> üniversite öğrencilerinin yabancı dillerini geliştirmeleri gerekir.

Örnekte görüldüğü üzere, yazar giriş cümlesinde, fikirlerin maddeler halinde sunulacağına ilişkin bir ifade belirtmemiştir. Yazar, ilk cümlesinde 'Üniversite öğrencilerinin üniversite eğitimini yurtdışında almayı tercih etmelerinin <u>birçok sebebi vardır</u>' gibi bir madde listesi ilan edeceğini gösteren bir ifadeye yer vermiş olsaydı, takip eden sıralama belirleyicilerindeki (ilki, ikincisi, son olarak, vb.) uygunsuz kullanım ortadan kalkmış olurdu. Öğrencilerin bu sıralama araçlarını yanlış kullanmalarının en büyük sebeplerinden biri yazma dersinde kullanılan öğretim materyalleridir. Öğretim materyalinin bazı örnek paragraflarındaki giriş cümlelerinde de fikirlerin numaralandırılacağına işaret eden bir ifade bulunmadığı tespit edilmiştir. Bu nedenle, öğrenciler öğretim materyallerinde bulunan bu hatayı kendi metinlerine aktarmışlardır.

Öte yandan, 'finally' (son olarak) gibi bazı sıralama araçlarının doğru kullanımında eğitim sonrasında gelişme gözlemlenmiştir. Ön testlerde, bazı öğrenciler 'finally' ifadesini sonuç cümlesinde kullanmışlardır (bkz. Örnek 5.45, Bölüm 5.5.1). Bu, İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin sıkça yaptığı bir yanlışlık olduğundan dolayı, öğretmenler öğrencilerin dikkatini bu tür araçların doğru kullanımına yönlendirmelidir ve bu araçlar üzerinde daha fazla alıştırma yapmalıdır. Bu, bu tarz sorunlu araçların öğrencilerin yazılarında hatalı kullanımını azaltmaya yardımcı olabilir. Bu tür yanlış temsillerden kaçınmak için, öğretim materyalleri uzman materyal geliştiricileri tarafından revize edilmeli ve yazım öğrencilerin hedef dilde daha uygun ve doğal yazılar üretebilmeleri için otantik materyaller kullanılmalıdır.

3. Kod çözümleyiciler, eğitim sonrasında daha sık ve daha çeşitli öğelerle kullanılmasına rağmen, eğitim sonrası yazılarda kod çözümleyicilerinin üçte birinin hala yanlış kullanıldığı ya da aşırı kullanıldığı tespit edilmiştir. Bu, yabancı dilde yazan acemi yazarlar için kod çözümleyici kullanmanın o kadar kolay olmadığı anlamına gelmektedir çünkü bu deneyimsiz yazarlar eğitim aldıktan sonra bile amaçlanan mesajlarını örneklerle detaylandırmakta zorlanmaktadırlar (Asassfeh ve ark. 2013; Anwaarden ve ark. 2013; Yüksel ve Kavanoz, 2018).

4. 'even', 'on the other hand', ve 'shortly' gibi ifadelerin yanlış kullanılmasının sebebi anadildeki kullanımlarının yabancı dile aktarılmasıdır (sırasıyla Bölüm 5.4.1.4; 5.4.2.3; ve 5.5.2'ye bakınız). Bu tarz anadilden yabancı dile aktarılan araçların tespiti esastır. Bu tarz sorunlu ifadeler belirlendiğinde hem öğretmenler hem materyal yazarları / geliştiricileri hem de öğrenciler bu araçların kullanımı

konusunda uyarılabilir ve doğru kullanımına teşvik edilir. Bu durumun tespiti ancak bu tarz çalışmalarla mümkün olabilir.

5. Sesli düşünme oturumları ve takip görüşmesi sonuçları, katılımcıların bazılarının metinlerindeki üstsöylem hatalarını yazma esnasındaki dikkatsizliklerine bağladığını göstermiştir. Bu katılımcıların yazma sırasındaki süreçten ziyade ürün odaklı çalıştıkları görülmüştür ve bu nedenle paragraflarını teslim etmeden önce metinlerini gözden geçirmemiş veya düzenlememişlerdir. Bu öğrenciler yazmanın bir üründen ziyade bir süreç olduğunun farkında değildir. Bu, öğrencilerin süreç odaklı yazmanın temel adımları olan gözden geçirme ve düzenleme konusunda eğitilmesi gerektiğini göstermektedir. Acemi yazarlara, yazmanın bir ürün çıkarmaktan ziyade bir süreç olduğu hatırlatılmalıdır ve bu nedenle yazılmış olan ilk taslak nihai ürün olarak değerlendirilmemelidir. Gözden geçirme sürecinde, öğrenciler hatalarını düzeltebilme fırsatı elde ederler ve iletmeye çalıştıkları fikirlerini amaçlarına uygun bir şekilde yeniden düzenlerler.

Öğrencilerin, öğretim materyallerinde kullanılan üstsöylem araçlarını taklit etmesi, eğitim ve öğretim materyallerinin üstsöylem araçlarının kullanım sıklığı ve başarılı kullanımı konusundaki önemine dikkat çekmektedir. İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği Türkiye'de, öğrenciler sınıf dışında İngilizceye pek maruz kalmamaktadır. Bu nedenle, öğretmenler ve öğretim materyalleri, İngilizce üstsöylem öğretiminde önemli bir rol oynamaktadır (Algi, 2012; Ulucay, 2014; Daşkın ve Hatipoğlu, 2019). Bu, öğretmenler ve materyal yazarları / geliştiricileri için telafi çağrısı olarak yorumlanmalıdır. Öğrencilerin hedef dilde etkili ve özenli yazılar üretmelerine yardımcı olmak için, öğretmenlerin ve materyal yazarlarının / geliştiricilerin yabancı dil öğretim ortamlarında üstsöylem araçlarının nasıl kullanılması gerektiği hususunda bilgi sahibi olmaları gerekmektedir. Materyal geliştiricilerin, uzman dil kullanıcılarının söylem kayıtlarındaki normları ve yeni trendleri görmeleri ve akademik yazım derslerinde kullanılan öğretim materyallerini bu normlara ve trendlere göre uyarlamaları için en son yayımlanan dilbilim çalışmalarını takip etmesi ve analiz etmesi esastır. Ayrıca, dil öğretmenleri üstsöylem araçlarının kullanımında iyi bir örnek sağlamalı ve öğrencilerin bu araçları bütünsel ve tutarlı metinler oluşturmada yetkin bir biçimde kullanabilmeleri için onları gerekli bilgilerle donatmalı ve yazma ürünleri üzerinde geri dönüt sağlamalıdır.

Yalnızca yabancı dil öğretmen adayları değil aynı zamanda hizmet içi yabancı dil öğretmen eğitmenleri de üstsöylem ve üstsöylemin yabancı dil yazım derslerinde kullanımı konusunda eğitilmeli, böylece öğrencilerinin çeşitli üstsöylem araçlarını doğru kullanarak tutarlı ve bütünsel metinler üretmelerine yardımcı olmaları sağlanmalıdır (Ädel, 2006).

Bu çalışma aynı zamanda yabancı dil akademik yazımında ve bağlama özgü üstsöylem kullanımında derlem tabanlı (corpus-based) incelemelerin önemini vurgulamaktadır. Bu çalışma sonuçları, yabancı dil yazımında üstsöylem kullanımındaki bağlama özgü sorunların belirlenmesine ışık tutar ve böylece araştırmacıların, öğretmenlerin ve materyal geliştiricilerin, öğrencilerin yazılarında kullandıkları üstsöylem yapıları konusundaki farkındalıklarını artırmaya yardımcı olur. Bu nedenle, yabancı dil eğitmenleri, öğrencilerinin yazılarında kullandıkları yapıları, eylem araştırması gibi bağlama özgü araştırmalar yoluyla keşfetmeye teşvik edilmelidir (Littlewood, 2014).

Bu çalışmada veri çeşitlemesi yöntemi, etkileşimsel üstsöylem araçlarının kullanım sıklığını, türlerini, özelliklerini, ne ölçüde doğru kullanıldığını ve niçin tercih edildiklerini ya da edilmediklerini ortaya koyabilmek için bir gereklilikti. Öğrencilerin üstsöylem kullanımındaki seçimlerini incelemek, anlayabilmek ve bunların sonuçlarını ortaya koyabilmek, öğrenciler tarafından yazılmış metinler, sesli düşünme oturumları, takip görüşmeleri ve anketler ile mümkün olmuştur. İleride bu konuda veya benzer konularda yapılacak diğer çalışmalar için de veri çeşitlemesi yöntemi tavsiye edilmektedir.

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