T.C. KOCAELİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

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ABSTRACT

As a consequence of internationalization concerns and the notion of English as a lingua franca, the burgeoning implementation of English as the medium of instruction (EMI) is observed, particularly in higher education. Despite the various positive attitudes, substantial research reveals that EMI adoption has become a matter of deep concern for the content teachers regarding the language. Motivated by this fact and the limited research on classroom discourse in EMI, this study primarily aims to analyze the discourse strategies that lecturers in Turkish higher education utilize during the delivery of content area subjects through English. To achieve this goal, a corpus consisting of 13-hour data was constructed through the non-participant observation of the lessons carried out by the seven EMI lecturers from various contexts. Within the scope of this study, the lecturers' strategic language behaviors were identified and categorized based on the taxonomy developed by Dörnyei and Scott (1997) and later elaborated by Sánchez-García (2019). Corpus-based analysis and thematic analysis methods revealed that the lecturers employed a wide array of strategies in different ways to achieve two chief functions: (i) to cope with the linguistic problems and (ii) to further students' comprehension. The results also yielded that the vast majority of the strategies have medium communicative potential. Moreover, it was discerned that the teaching background of the lecturers, the EMI context where they teach, and their teaching traits seem to influence their strategy uses. This study hence highlights the significance of professional development activities to enhance the quality of EMI provision through the employment of discourse strategies with more communicative potential.

Keywords: English-medium instruction, discourse strategies, communicative potential, content lecturers, higher education

ÖZET

Uluslararasılaşma endişeleri ve ortak dil olarak İngilizce kavramının bir sonucu olarak, özellikle yükseköğretimde İngilizceyi öğretim dili olarak uygulayan programların sayısında artış gözlemlenmektedir. Çeşitli olumlu tutumlara rağmen, önemli araştırmalar Öğretim Dili olarak İngilizcenin (ÖDİ) öğretmenler için dil konusunda derin bir endişe konusu haline geldiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu kaygıdan ve ÖDİ sınıf söylemi üzerine sınırlı araştırmalardan yola çıkarak, bu çalışma öncelikle Türkiye'de yükseköğretim elemanlarının alan konularını İngilizce yoluyla öğretirken kullandıkları söylemsel stratejilerini analiz etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaca ulaşmak için, çeşitli bağlamlardan yedi ÖDİ öğretim elemanı tarafından yürütülen derslerin gözlemiyle 13 saatlik veriden oluşan bir derlem oluşturulmuştur. Bu çalışma kapsamında öğretim elemanlarının stratejik dil davranışları Dörnyei ve Scott (1997) ile Sánchez-García (2019) tarafından geliştirilen sınıflandırmaya göre belirlenmiş ve iletişim derecelerine göre sınıflandırılmıştır. Derlem temelli analiz ve tematik analiz yöntemleri, öğretim elemanlarının iki ana amaca hizmet etmek için farklı şekillerde bir dizi strateji kullandığını ortaya koymuştur: (i) dil problemleriyle başa çıkmak ve (ii) öğrencilerin daha iyi anlamalarını sağlamak. Sonuçlar, ayrıca stratejilerin büyük çoğunluğunun orta dereceli iletişim potansiyeline sahip olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, öğretim elemanlarının öğretim deneyiminin, öğretim özelliklerinin ve öğrettikleri ÖDİ bağlamının strateji kullanımlarını etkilediği görülmüştür. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma öğretim görevlilerinin, iletişim potansiyeli yüksek olan söylem stratejilerinin uygulanması yoluyla, ÖDİ uygulamasının kalitesini artırmak için mesleki gelişim faaliyetlerinin önemini vurgulamaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: öğretim dili olarak İngilizce, söylem stratejileri, iletişim potansiyeli, öğretim elemanları, yükseköğretim

ABBREVIATIONS

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

CBI: Content-based Instruction

CL: Corpus linguistics

CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

CS*:* Communication Strategy

DS: Discourse Strategy

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELF: English as a Lingua Franca

EMI: English-medium Instruction

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

HE: Higher Education

LP: Language Policy

MOI: Medium of Instruction

ÖDİ: Öğretim Dili olarak İngilizce

PYP: Preparatory Year Program

TMI: Turkish-medium Instruction

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INTRODUCTION

Implementing English as the medium of instruction (EMI) to teach subject-matter knowledge has become of paramount significance especially in tertiary-level institutions. The comparative studies on the first language medium of instruction and EMI portrayed that teaching through a second language requires higher cognitive effort. Furthermore, since teachers who are involved in an EMI context are not English language teaching practitioners but content specialists, they encounter linguistic troubles during the dissemination of information. Correspondingly, the current thesis was designed to analyze the discourse strategies that teachers in Turkish higher education rely on to compensate for language-related problems during their lectures. Hence, the present research attempted (i) to explore the strategies that EMI lecturers utilize frequently, (ii) to investigate the uses and functions of the strategies employed, and (iii) to examine the degree to which those strategies serve the communicative goal of the lecturers.

Seven lecturers from various EMI contexts constitute the sampling of the current research. To be able to capture the spoken discourse of the lecturers, non-participant observation was utilized as the main data collection tool. The taxonomy suggested by Dörnyei and Scott (1997: p. 188-192) was drawn on to analyze the lecturers' discourse strategy uses. Besides, the strategies were classified in terms of their communicative potential (i.e., less, medium, and more). The data garnered from the lectures were analyzed by utilizing corpus-based analysis and thematic analysis step by step. The findings revealed that a wide range of discourse strategy types was employed in various ways and for several functions, which indicates the indispensability of strategy uses in EMI classroom discourse. The occurrences and frequencies of the strategies vary in the language performance of the lecturers, which can be attributed to the lecturers' teaching background, teaching styles, and the EMI context in which they are involved. Lastly, the lecturers predominantly utilized the strategies with medium communicative potential.

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In today's world, globalization has incorporated the world into one (Gupta, 2015: p. 4), and accordingly it has become an important phenomenon in many fields. The primary motivation that forces countries to be globalized is to be developed economically and politically. Therefore, countries started to give priority to the steps that enable them to catch up with the pace of internationalization. As well as English has gained significance in various domains (e.g., business, media, entertainment) (Crystal, 2003: p. 30) particularly since the 20th century as a result of the notion of English as a *lingua franca* (ELF), it has also become a paramount language in education. In this regard, Walter and Benson (2012: p. 279) built upon by indicating the use of language in education has eminently become more salient than other domains, which possibly the reason why the competition in internationalization initiated global educational market.

As Crystal (2003: p. 2) states, English is seen as the most favored foreign language to be taught in over a hundred countries. Accordingly, the idea of global citizen in the educational policies has gained importance especially in Higher Education (HE) since it encompasses more stakeholders from the national and international market compared to other educational levels (i.e., primary and secondary education). To achieve this goal, outgoing students are in the target of globalization since universities have their concern to prepare their students to be an international member. As well as outgoing students, universities have aimed to appeal to international students for the sake of marketing their institutions (Coleman,

2006: p, 5). Correspondingly, countries have no choice but to embark on using English as the medium of instruction (MOI) to gain an advantage in the global educational market (Collins, 2010: p. 97). Thus, it can be understood that English-medium instruction (hereinafter EMI) has been regarded as a strategic decision to develop international profile by universities (Spolsky, 2004: p. 53). Regarding this language policy, Kirkpatrick (2011: p. 3) hold the idea that internationalization in the tertiary level corresponds to EMI at present. Besides globalization concerns, the Bologna Process, which aims to set standards and harmonization among 47 European countries involving Turkey too in order to further mobility of students and stuff in HE has fostered the provision of EMI. Thereby, the countries accepting the Bologna Declaration strive to foster borderless tertiary education in Europe. In a drive to achieve the goals of the Bologna Process, the implementation of EMI has accelerated (Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2011: p. 347) and it has become a trend throughout not only Europe but also the world so that not only international students can get benefit from the provided education but also the local students.

Just like the rest of the world, Turkey has experienced a similar evolutionary process of EMI. Even though its history dates back to the 19th century when missionary schools were founded to instill the education system of foreign countries into Turkey, EMI gained much significance right after Turkey became a member of the Bologna Declaration. The chief motivation of EMI adoption in Turkey was clarified in the Official Gazette published in 1984 with the explanation "to enable students who are registered at an English-medium department to access scientific and technological information published in English in their related disciplines" (Kırkgöz, 2005: p. 102). As the fierce competition also exists within the country, the HE institutions particularly foundation universities have strengthened their endeavors to launch different versions of EMI (i.e., full, partial, and in parallel with Turkish). Hence, the role of the private sector is an undeniable factor in the burgeoning use of EMI in Turkey. Accordingly, almost all foundation universities offer programs in EMI (Karakaş, 2016a: p. 6), but the increase of EMI implementation in state

universities is not to the same extent. This mirrors the position of EMI in Europe based on the findings of Dearden (2015: p. 8). Concerning this, Coleman (2006: p. 8) addresses the significance of private institutions for EMI by asserting “the private sector HE has stepped into the gap between supply and demand left by under-funded and slow-reacting state institutions”.

1.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Besides the merits of EMI (e.g., globalization, harmonization, easier dissemination of information), there exist some challenges stemming from the swift increase of this language policy in education. The implementation of English which is neither the native language of the instructors nor that of the majority of the students as the medium of instruction to teach content subjects demands a great cognitive and linguistic effort of the lecturers (Hincks, 2010: p. 5). In other words, it requires more time to reflect on the message that is indented to be conveyed and express it in words. Regarding this, Pavón, Hernández, Lorenzo and Hengst (2005 as cited in Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 2) argue that not only a recognized level of linguistic repertoire but also the ability to design methods to teach subjects through a second language are needed for such teachers. Ultimately, it can be understood that the implementation of EMI is neither simply teaching nor translating the content into another language as Hoare (2013: p. 3) states. This matter demonstrates that training for EMI teachers on both language expertise and pedagogical support to EMI teachers is of high necessity. Nevertheless, Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, and Dearden (2018: p. 56) who carried out a systematic review of EMI implementation in HE found that there is a lack of opportunities catering for preparation and professional development programs for EMI lecturers. This shortcoming of EMI provision makes lecturers experience a large number of language-related problems that necessitate strategic behaviors to cope with the rigid cognitive load.

Besides, even though EMI is a relatively new research field (Macaro, 2018: p. 15), different aspects of EMI such as the perceptions of EMI stakeholders (e.g., Kırkgöz, 2009: p. 81; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011: p. 13; Dearden & Macaro, 2016: p. 455), the impacts of EMI on language learning (e.g., Rogier, 2012: p. 51; Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014: p. 1), the impacts of EMI on content learning (e.g., Joe & Lee, 2013: p. 206; Dafouz & Camacho-Miñano, 2016: p. 57), and classroom discourse in EMI setting (e.g., Sánchez-García, 2019: p. 43; Macaro, 2020: p. 263) have been investigated hitherto as a consequence of the swift increase in the implementation of EMI, particularly after 2005. Among these aspects, a considerable amount of studies explored the cognitions of EMI students and teachers about the introduction of EMI. Yet, the number of EMI studies providing data on the actual practice of EMI in classrooms is quite low. Hence, classroom discourse in EMI still needs to be shed light on (Macaro et al., 2018: p. 36).

In educational contexts where academic subjects are taught through a foreign language such as EMI, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Content-based Instruction (CBI) (see Chapter 2 for further details), it is deemed that the language performance of teachers has a great influence on the students' content learning (Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013: p. 217). Accordingly, teachers' spoken discourse seems to be a crucial feature of classroom discourse in EMI too. As Walsh (2006a: p. 3, 2011: p. 7) asserts, teachers procude the language through the employment of strategies for communicative goals and the promotion of information dissemination. Likewise, Johnson (1995: p. 17) believes that the features of classroom discourse should be examined to establish and keep communicative practices. Taken all together, the studies (e.g., Shartiely, 2013: p. 4; Azian et al., 2013: p. 283) investigating teachers' strategic language behaviors can provide insights into the actual status of EMI provision and how such strategies shape students' content comprehension and learning. However, considering the scarcity of EMI studies on classroom discourse, to my knowledge, far too little attention has been paid to teacher discourse strategies (henceforth DSs) in EMI contexts. Even

though one of the strategies (i.e., code-switching) has been explored in many of the studies (e.g., Al Makoshi, 2014: p. 11; Karakaş, 2016b: p. 242; Macaro et al., 2020: p. 388), the rest of the strategies remain relatively unexplored more specifically in the Turkish EMI setting.

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Considering the function of the language performance of EMI teachers (i.e., content specialists) as a mediation tool (Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 5), the contribution of the lecturers' spoken discourse to students' content learning is evident. As Walsh (2006a: p. 104) claims, the strategies employed as part of teacher discourse to promote the dissemination of content subjects are the core feature of classroom discourse. Hence, the present research highlights the importance of EMI teachers' being conscious of their language use and strategic behaviors as discursive features in order to cater for interactional opportunities (Walsh, 2006b: p. 135) and enriched linguistic environment to the learners (Moore, 2007: p. 142). As a consequence, the main purpose of the research is to analyze the discourse strategies (i.e., 33 strategy types) that are employed by seven EMI lecturers with diverse teaching backgrounds while teaching content subjects. To achieve this purpose, the prior definitions of discourse and communication strategies are taken as a basis, and a combined yet more communicative-based perspective on discourse strategies is adopted (see Section 3.5.3. for further rationale). In this way, it is aimed to have a comprehensive exploration of the role of discourse strategies for EMI lecturers and the strategies that are essential in the implementation of EMI.

Secondly, the current research seeks to elucidate substantially the way that the strategies are exhibited and the underlying motivations leading teachers to employ such language tools. By doing so, it is aimed to unravel the circumstances that oblige the lecturers to make use of the discursive strategies. Accordingly, the thesis throws light on the significance of explicit instruction and training programs raising

awareness about when and how these strategies could be exhibited in EMI lectures. Also, through this in-depth analysis, the study attempts to compensate for the lack of stimulated recall interviews with each participant to obtain the rationale of their strategy uses since the participants did not become willing to reflect on their language practices.

Moreover, during the data analysis process, it was observed that not all the strategies enhance communication to the same extent. Consequently, the degree to which the DSs deployed during the lecture allow the instructors to achieve their goal of delivering the knowledge successfully constitutes the last purpose of this study. In this way, the study intends to explain the importance of exhibiting discourse strategies effectively and efficiently for the sake of the enhancement of content learning.

Besides these chief objectives, the scrutiny attempts to gain insights into the linguistic needs of these lecturers and how these needs can be addressed by teaching the discourse strategies explicitly in professional development opportunities which they can benefit from.

1.4. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In light of the abovementioned brief background, the significance of the present thesis can be explained in many respects. To begin with, it contributes to the existing body of EMI literature providing empirical data regarding the classroom discourse. Considering the fact that classroom discourse is one of the aspects of EMI that have been least investigated, the study sheds light on how lecturers from various higher education institutions in Turkey use the language to implement EMI. As Walsh and Li (2013: p. 263) emphasize, analyzing classroom discourse can create opportunities to further not only the quantity but also the quality of learning. Additionally, EMI lecturers are regarded as *implicit language teachers* as well as content teachers (Stein, 1999: p. 1; Moore, 2007: p. 142) as they become a source of

input for their students by using the language as the medium of instruction and a source of feedback by responding the students' output. This highlights the notion that EMI lecturers' spoken discourse is of great importance for students' second language (L2) learning too. The present study hence provides insights into how EMI lecturers create space for language and content learning with the help of their language use.

Second, the literature on EMI reveals that the vast majority of EMI teachers are not provided any training concerning the form of the language and also EMI teaching methods and techniques before the commencement of this educational approach. Hence, it is not surprising that they encounter several linguistic problems during the delivery of content and accordingly they need to cope with such troubles utilizing the employment of strategies. Correspondingly, the inclusion of teacher discourse strategies into EMI research can be worthwhile in that EMI lecturers benefit from DSs to convey the target message successfully. Also, this study makes a distinction regarding the communicative potential of the DSs. The findings of this research thus make a major contribution to the design of potential professional development opportunities for EMI teachers as they can be trained on how to make better use of the strategies to avoid issues arising from teaching through L2.

Finally, the use of DSs is of great importance not only for EMI teachers but also for students. These strategies enhance the communicative environment in class, which results in better content acquisition. In spite of this benefit, there are only a few studies (e.g., Azian et al., 2013: p. 283; Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 99) on discourse in EMI classrooms investigating the employment of discursive strategies. Given that code-switching is a distinct language tool that has been explored most among the discourse strategies, this study yields a broader picture of the strategic behaviors of EMI lecturers through the analysis of taxonomy rather than focusing on some of the DSs only and accordingly it fills the gap in the literature. Moreover, to my knowledge, the study presented here provides one of the first investigations into the teacher DSs in Turkish higher education by exploring the uses, functions and communicative potential of these strategies.

1.5.RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Taken all together, the present research was designed to analyze discourse strategies as part of EMI lecturers' speech at tertiary level, which led the research to be structured around the following research questions:

1. Which discourse strategies are employed by the university lecturers teaching in English-medium instruction setting?
2. What are the uses and functions of the discourse strategies exhibited?
3. To what extent do the discourse strategies serve the lecturers' purpose of communicative goal?

1.6.OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

1.6.1. English-medium Instruction (EMI)

English-medium instruction is defined as "the use of the English language to teach non-linguistic academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English" (adapted from Macaro, 2018: p. 1).

1.6.2. Discourse Strategies (DSs):

In this research, a discourse strategy is operationalized as a verbal strategy produced by individuals to create and sustain communication while teaching subjects in class (adapted from Gumperz, 1982: p. 1).

CHAPTER 2

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RELATED STUDIES

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to throw light into the relevant literature to English-medium instruction and discourse strategies in various contexts. First, it presents the global status of English. Following this, a general overview of EMI in the world and specifically in Turkey are demonstrated. Then, the bulk of existing research on EMI is reviewed based on the aims set. Finally, the EMI studies on classroom discourse and communication strategies are presented.

2.2. ENGLISH AS A *LINGUA FRANCA*

English has been being utilized in various domains by the vast majority of people. It hence has been the primary contact language for people who do not share the same mother tongue or culture (Firth, 1996: p. 240). In history, different languages (e.g., Russian and Spanish) gained such importance as well, yet English is the one succeeding in this on the global spectrum (Van Parijs, 2011: p. 10). The reason why English, no other language, is regarded as the global language reflects history. English first gained its global status in the 19th century when Britain and speakers of English stood out in trade, which eventuated in the emergence of English colonies. The fact that the US became the superpower of the world as a consequence of its strong economy, military, and industry fostered the advantageous position of English. Besides the political reasons, the necessity to transfer knowledge around the

world especially in the 20th century obliged a language as a medium of communication (Graddol, 1997: p. 14). With the advent of technology, globalization became an undeniable notion since interconnections among countries in numerous domains such as trade, business, tourism, education, and such developed, and the notion of spatial barriers disappeared. This led to the increased mobility of people which can be regarded as a hallmark of globalization. As a result of global issues, intergovernmental organizations (e.g., European Union) were founded (Ferguson, 2012: p. 476). Hence, a boom in the demand of a mutual language emerged. Since the presence, use, and dominance of English have notably and constantly increased all over the world, it has met the needs of globalization. As a consequence, the notion of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) has been embraced. This being the case, English as a lingua franca is associated with globalization. In this regard, Tsui and Tollefson (2007: p. 1) defined English as one of the primary tools affecting globalization. ELF is defined as "... any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" by Seidlhofer (2011: p. 7). Even though ELF interaction mostly occurs among non-native speakers, this does not mean that native speakers are excluded from ELF interaction (Seidlhofer, 2005: p. 339).

Regarding the increased number of people speaking English, Kachru (1985 as cited in Björkman, 2013: p. 4) makes a distinction among the speakers of English by three categories: *Inner Circle* (e.g., The UK, the USA, Australia, and such countries where English is the first language), *Outer Circle* (e.g. India, Nigeria, and countries in which English is spoken as a second language), and *Expanding Circle* (e.g., China, Greece, Poland, etc. where English is a foreign language). It is however worth noting that currently the terms *foreign* and *second* are used interchangeably since the distinction between these two has been diminished. Besides, in today's globalized world the Inner Circle countries are not homogenous any more with the presence of ethnic groups and international students, which is robust evidence of multilingualism as a consequence of globalization (Doiz et al., 2011: p. 346). Therefore, the

Kachruvian model has been exposed to criticisms by some scholars (e.g., Jenkins, 2003: p. 18; Bruthiaux, 2003: p. 160; Park & Wee, 2009: p. 390; Pung, 2009: p. 85). Still, when Kachru's division is taken into account, it can be concluded that non-native speakers of English are estimated to outnumber native-speakers by three to one (Crystal, 2012: p. 69).

2.3. LANGUAGE POLICY

Shohamy (2006: p. 45) defines language policy (LP) as "the primary mechanism for organizing, managing and manipulating language behaviors as it consists of decisions made about languages and their uses in society". According to the language policy framework proposed by Spolsky (2004: p. 5) which is the most well-known model as Macaro (2018: p. 45) perceives, the language policy of a community consists of three components: its language practices, its language ideology, and language management. The first one is concerned with how the language is utilized by individuals. The second component, language ideology, includes beliefs, ideas, and perceptions of the extent of the appropriateness of language practices in the community. Language management corresponds to the explicit plan or policy formulated by authorities to regulate the language beliefs. It can be deduced that language ideologies (e.g., political, economic, and socio-cultural) constitute the basis of language management. Therefore, one can have an insight into the ideology of a community through the examination of language efforts. When the fact that language ideology emanates from the language practices is taken into account, language practices, in the meantime, become the target of language policy. The abovementioned relations among these three components show that there is a dynamic and complex interaction among the elements of language policy.

Throughout history, several language policies have been put forward depending on different ideologies and needs. So as to meet the requirements of

globalization such as enhancing the position of the country in the world, keep being in contact with international countries, and so on, adopting a foreign language policy is seen in several domains. Among them, as Spolsky (2004: p. 2) perceives, education is the most prominent field that countries embark on the implementation of language policies. The notion of ELF forces non-Anglophone countries to embark on the policy of English as a foreign language (EFL). Such countries have endeavored to strengthen their foreign language education system to ease international communication with other countries. In this way, basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) are indented to be developed based on Cummin's (2013: p. 65) distinction of second language acquisition.

The ubiquity of English has created different demands and needs of language learning since the use of language shows important differences depending on the context (Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018: p. 1). Thus, English for specific purposes (ESP) approach which focuses on only discipline-specific needs, skills, and learning methodologies (Anthony, 2015: p. 2) has become prevalent specifically for adult language learners. ESP has undergone several changes over time and attempts to make English language learning more specialized have been made. Consequently, English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) approaches have been suggested as well (Paltridge & Starfield, 2013: p. 2).

Besides being the lingua franca of the world, English is also regarded as academic lingua franca. In other words, English has become the common language to acquire and disseminate knowledge in various fields. Hence, the vast majority of the books and research studies are written in the English language even by non-English native speakers. In this way, a pool of resources is generated, which makes it plausible to reach any source of information without crossing countries or oceans. Consequently, cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) is taught through English for academic purposes (EAP) courses. The primary aim of these courses is to enable students to gain the required skills in academic context conveyed in English.

Especially through the late 20th century, EAP gained significance in the field of English as a second language learning (Hyland & Shaw, 2016: p. 1).

As a result of migratory actions, language diversity brought about the need for the implementation of bilingual education which has been offered in different approaches. Since in Canada there have been two major communities (i.e., French-speaking and English-speaking), bilingual education has become inevitable there. Intending to enhance unity and encouraging bilingualism, Canada began to implement the French immersion program in the early 1970s, which is considered as the origin of immersion programs (Murphy, 2014: p. 270). These programs have been implemented in various ways (i.e., total and dual immersion programs). The research on the immersion programs where children are taught at least half of the content area subjects in the second language portrayed the efficiency of the integration of content and second language instruction in the required language skills for educational purposes (Genesee, 1987: p. 176). To illustrate, immersion students gained equivalent academic achievement compared to non-immersion students (Lyster, 2008: p. 6). Also, this pedagogical approach furthered the receptive skills (i.e., reading and listening comprehension) of the students. Despite the advantages of immersion programs, some drawbacks were observed too. The productive skills (i.e., writing and speaking) of the immersion students remained non-targetlike compared to the native speakers of French at the same age (Ranta & Lyster, 2007: p. 142). This was found to be due to the limited opportunities provided for immersion students to produce the target language (Allen, Swain, Harley, & Cummins, 1990: p. 74).

The United States is one of the territories where bilingual education is regarded as a must as a consequence of overseas immigration. Therefore, another approach, content-based instruction (CBI) or content-based language teaching (CBLT), has been suggested to integrate language and content learning. Later the establishment of the European Union accelerated bilingualism and bilingual education to be acknowledged in Europe as well. Since the primary aim here is to serve Europe's policy of multilingualism, it started to be implemented under a different name,

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), in 1994 (Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 39) with a dual focus on both language and content learning. Exchange and studying abroad programs launched by European Commission over the last two decades (e.g., Erasmus+) which aim to foster mobility at tertiary level by the allowance of studying and completing an internship in the different parts of Europe were also the main drives behind CLIL (Tsou & Kao, 2017: p. 6). Besides, the Bologna Process which has its roots in the *Magna Charta Universitatum* in 1988 and Bologna Declaration in 1999 (Reinalda & Kulesza, 2006: p. 107) aims harmonization and mobility among countries in Europe. Thereby, the countries accepting the Bologna Declaration regardless of being an EU member or non-EU member have endeavored for the establishment of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). Ensuring actions attempting to foster borderless tertiary education in Europe is called the Bologna Process.

Although CBI and CLIL seem to be the same approaches in practice since both of them focus on teaching the second language and content together, some scholars believe there are some differences. For instance, Coyle, Hood, and Marsh (2010: p. 86) state that CLIL is an attempt to create a European concept of CBI developed in North America. Moreover, Macaro (2018: p. 23) is of the idea that CBI differs from CLIL in terms of the geographical area where it is conducted, the USA, which implies that CBI students are constantly exposed to English out of school as well. It is not the same case where CLIL is conveyed as the inner-circle countries in Europe are quite a few.

In a drive to achieve the goals of the Bologna Process, international students have started to be seen as an advantage in the process of internationalization and the global educational market. To illustrate, Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) World Universities Ranking, one of the top annual publications assessing the impact of universities, adopts the methodology which includes the ratio of international students and faculties into assessment (Tsou & Kao, 2017: p. 4). Since student mobility causes linguistic diversity in HE (Björkman, 2013: p. 18), it spurred

universities to teach through an international language, English, besides the local language(s) to avoid the challenges of the medium of instruction. Thus, the implementation of different language policies was needed so that not only local but also international students can get benefit from the provided education. Consequently, there has been a noticeable shift from the EFL approach to implementing English as a/the medium of instruction especially in HE institutions of non-English speaking countries (Dearden, 2015: p. 4; Fujimoto-Adamson & Adamson, 2018: p. 201). In other words, the purpose of teaching English is abandoned in this language policy. All in together, EMI can be portrayed as a cluster of numerous processes: globalization, ELF, the Bologna process, student and staff mobility. Bilingual education, CBI, and CLIL can be considered as ancestors of EMI.

Since content is taught through English, CLIL and EMI can be seen as of late immersion programs. They hence are the two terms being often used interchangeably despite the dissimilar approaches they adopt to the language. By Dafouz, Camacho, and Urquia (2014: p. 224), CLIL is described as paying dual attention to both language and content whereas the same scholars defined English-medium instruction "teaching and learning of content through another language (English) (Dafouz, Camacho, & Urquia, 2014: p. 224). This demonstrates that teaching the language is not a matter in the EMI context. Besides, EMI is conveyed in non-English speaking countries or jurisdictions according to Macaro (2018: p. 23) whilst CLIL encompasses the UK as well where English is spoken as a first language. Another distinction between CLIL and EMI is that CLIL involves a bilingual program in specific subjects whereas the latter encompasses the whole curriculum (Duran, Kurhila, & Sert, 2019: p. 14).

2.4. ENGLISH-MEDIUM INSTRUCTION (EMI)

Along with the adaptation of this new language policy, EMI, the necessity to provide language support to EMI students has emerged (Pavón & Rubio, 2010: p. 48;

Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 1). As a result, different models of English-medium instruction have been suggested, namely preparatory year model, institutional support model, pre-institutional support and bury your head into the sand model (Macaro, 2015 as cited in Tsou & Kao, 2017: p. 4). In the preparatory year model, students who are enrolled in the EMI program are required to pass an English test after an intense one-year English preparatory year program (PYP). This model is mostly seen in countries such as Turkey, the Netherlands, and Middle East countries. The institutional model provides English for academic and specific purposes through a language center along with the major. The third model is the pre-institutional model where the students are allowed to enroll in an EMI program based on their English proficiency level, which shows that English language entry is a requirement only for this model. As the name implies, the last model does not take students' needs for learning English into the EMI process. In other words, neither are EMI students provided language training nor they are supposed to certify their language qualification before admission. It should be also noted that contrary to EMI students, content teachers are not provided such support in any of these models.

In addition to the different language support types, how much use of English is used in EMI contexts is a matter of issue. Concerning this, different models of EMI are being implemented in countries such as China and Turkey (Poon, Lau, & Chu, 2013; p. 1037; Başıbek et al., 2014: p. 1824). These models are partial EMI which means about 30% of the curriculum is taught in English-medium instruction, full (100%) EMI, and mixed MOI (Karakaş, 2019: p. 212).

2.4.1. EMI in the World

According to Macaro (2018: p. 3), the swift increase of EMI implementation is a consequence of growing interest into research in EMI because the number of the schools adopting EMI has burgeoned after the first global-scale research of Dearden (2015: p. 2). The study aimed to draw a map of EMI around the world by asking British council staff from 54 countries to report what the status quo regarding EMI is

in their locations. The findings revealed that two instruments are shaping EMI: HE vertically and the private education sector horizontally. In other words, HE forces secondary education to adapt EMI so as to provide a smooth transition from secondary to higher education. In addition, there is a kind of competition between private institutions and state universities in terms of catching up with one another. This suggests that HE and private institutions outnumber secondary and state institutions and these forces bring about the rapid increase of EMI around the world. Ever since this study, there have been attempts to research with the sample size which is large and international. To exemplify, Maiworm and Wächter (2002: p. 24) and Wächter and Maiworm (2008: p. 19, 2014: p. 30) conducted systematical analyses with 19, 27 and 28 European countries respectively, which enables us to gain understanding about the position and the growth of English taught programs (ETP) in whole Europe over time. Since EMI was a scarce notion back then, ETP was used instead of EMI in these analyses. The results of the studies revealed that 725 courses in 2001 increased to 8089 courses in 2018 which dramatically developed by 239% until 20014 in ETPs was observed in seven-year time (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014: p. 33). This provides solid empirical evidence for the fact that Europe has been fertile soil for EMI (Tsou & Kao, 2017: p. 7). It can be deduced that EMI showed growth in terms of not only quantity but also quality since language was seen as an issue in the previous studies, yet the participants in the last study found both students' and lecturers' language proficiency good. In other words, EMI got mature along with a rapid increase in the number. These studies also displayed that the highest amount of ETPs was offered in the Netherlands. Following it, Germany, Sweden, France, and Denmark had a variety of programs provided through the English-medium among European countries contributed to the studies. European Higher Education Area also has had contributions to the spread of EMI since it promotes mobility across Europe. In a similar vein, the Erasmus (European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) program was launched in 1987 as an exchange program with financial support for students in HE in Europe, which brings about the implementation of EMI in Europe.

In the Middle East, EMI has become dominant in the United Kingdom of Saudi Arabia especially in the field of nursing to increase the inflow of international nurses at hospitals (Suliman & Tadros, 2011: p. 403). Motivated by the health industry, other disciplines started to provide EMI programs at universities over the country. Thus, English language proficiency gained importance by being described as one of the goals of the country by the Ministry of National Education. In a similar vein, The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is one of the countries where EMI has a crucial position; indeed, its history in UAE predates other countries in the Middle East. As the country embarked on the policy of prevailing EMI in order to appeal to the international, Arab teachers were substituted with English native speaker teachers to enhance the regulation (Belhiah & Elhami, 2014: p. 4).

In Asia, the implementation of EMI mirrors the history of some of the Asian countries which were formerly colonized. In postcolonial Asian countries such as Singapore, Hong Kong, Malaysia, etc., bilingual education has been valued since they had been ruled once by the British for a long stretch of time. Hence, it can be concluded that colonial history has had a good impact on the promotion of EMI in these countries. To illustrate, Singapore has proved its success in EMI by being ranked highly in the QS University ranking (Soh & Ho, 2014: p. 777). Also, the fact that students in Hong Kong colleges managed to cope with the challenges arising from EMI provides evidence of positive results of colonial background (Evans & Morrison, 2011: p. 206). Malaysia is another exemplary country ruled by the British as it cultivated multiculturalism by providing education in English in several contexts (i.e., secondary, high school, tertiary level; state, and private institutions) for the sake of international student market. Getting inspired by such countries, non-colonized ones started to adopt EMI as well (Hou, Morse, Chiang & Chen, 2013: p. 362). Not only colonized countries but also the drive to develop economic power encouraged China to go through educational reforms to launch more programs offered in English and accordingly appeal to more international students. Consequently, it has become the foremost target for foreigners. Similarly, Japan has had many attempts to boost

the use of EMI such as Global 30 Project, Project Atlas, and Top Global University Project in furtherance of international students and international compatibility in the country (Macaro et al., 2018: p. 49). As a part of the Top Global University Project, partial EMI programs in which less or around 50% of the curriculum is taught through English were introduced beside full EMI programs.

2.4.2. EMI in Turkey

Even though English is not an official language in Turkey, it has been privileged in educational settings along with the private sector. In Turkey, English as a foreign language (EFL) dates back to the *Tanzimat Period* (1839-1876) which is regarded as the beginning of Westernization in education (Kirkgoz, 2007: p. 217). Since then, Turkey has prioritized English in education in order to develop international trade, gain economic power and follow the technological advance (Kiliçkaya, 2006: p. 1). Thus, the number of schools teaching English has burgeoned particularly in private institutions. Not only is English taught as a foreign language but also it started to be the medium of instruction as it did in the rest of the world. As Karakaş and Bayyurt (2019: p. 96) note, EMI in Turkey can be examined in two phases: the first generation EMI and the new generation. The first generation corresponds to the time period before the 21st century. The first attempt of EMI in Turkey was made with missionary schools such as Robert College founded as an American enterprise in 1863 in Istanbul. The school aimed to provide American style education. This school later underpinned Boğaziçi University after the Turkish government took over it in 1971. Before EMI became prevalent in Higher Education, teaching content through English was put into practice in state-funded Anatolian high schools which had the roots in Maarif Schools in six cities in Turkey emphasizing the importance of education through a foreign language in the 1950s. In these schools, the students were exposed to intense foreign language program (the language depended on the high school yet English was quite widespread) during the first year of secondary education, and they used to learn the mathematics and science through the foreign language in the following three years. In 2005, the foreign

language preparatory year was abolished, and the duration of secondary education increased by four years. This suggests that EMI was replaced with Turkish medium instruction. There are, nevertheless, high schools still requiring the foreign language preparatory year to name a few Galatasaray High School, Kadıköy Anatolian High School, Vefa High School, etc.

At the tertiary level, Middle East Technical University (METU) in the capital of Turkey is the first state institution having embraced EMI in 1956. As the name suggests and König (1990 as cited in Karakaş & Bayyurt, 2019: p. 96) states, the primary goal of this university was to be the central university of the Middle East and welcome international students as well as local students. Besides, Boğaziçi University furthered to provide EMI after Robert College. These universities later initiated the provision of EMI in private institutions, too. In that sense, Bilkent University founded in Ankara in 1984 is the pioneer offering full EMI programs among other foundation universities (Karakaş, 2016a: p. 5). Turkey's educational system went through crucial changes regarding foreign language policy in accordance with the Education Reform in 1997 (Saricoban, 2012: p. 2643). As a result of this regulation, the private sector obtained authorization to implement EMI. Hence, an upsurge in the number of private institutions especially at the tertiary level offering EMI was observed. Nevertheless, this does not mean that the universities were globalized since they primarily aimed to be modernized and serve the needs of Turkish students; hence the ratio of the international students was pretty low.

EMI universities of the second generation differ from the former EMI universities in terms of the propelling force behind the adoption of EMI and the target student profile they appeal to. Turkey has changed the direction of the motivation behind EMI programs from giving priority to the domestic students to following the policy of internationalization and globalization. Hence, it can be averred that the second generation era started with the membership of the Bologna Process in 2001. Further steps such as launching sole EMI universities and offering the different versions of EMI (Arik & Arik, 2014: p. 7) in existing Turkish-medium

universities were taken in order to achieve the purpose of globalization. Furthermore, strategies so as to build a reputation within and outside the country, as a result, appeal to more students were developed. Attending educational fairs and conferences, appearing on media, lowering the tuition for international students, and being in collaboration with student recruitment agencies are some exemplary efforts that newly established universities have made (Karakaş, 2016a: p. 6). As a consequence of such endeavors, the primary flourish was noticed in 2014 with around 190 EMI universities (Selvi, 2014: p. 139; Karakaş & Bayyurt, 2019: p. 97). In spite of this increase, EMI did not stop being a matter of discussion. British Council/TEPAV (2015: p. 67) published a report on the issue MOI in Turkish HE, and they suggested that there must be more emphasis on Turkish medium instruction (TMI) and mixed MOI. It was also recommended that EMI be offered at the graduate level only. Besides, Wächter and Maiworm's study (2014: p. 41) revealed that there was a huge gap between EMI in the rest of Europe and EMI in Turkey in terms of quantity. Moreover, even though state universities outnumber foundation universities regarding the provision of EMI in Turkey, almost all foundation universities introduce EMI whereas the majority of state universities offer only TMI (Karakaş, 2016a: p. 6). This suggests that the concept of EMI exists in larger numbers in the private sector as Dearden (2015: p. 8) observed. Unfortunately, the current exact number of EMI universities in Turkey is not known owing to the absence of empirical studies. However, when the accelerated increase of EMI is taken into consideration, it can be deduced that more than 20% of universities offer EMI in the different forms at the undergraduate level, as reported by Arik and Arik (2014: p. 7).

In order to enroll in an EMI program at the undergraduate level in Turkey, students do not have to certify their proficiency level prior to admission. They need to sit for a two-stage process of the national university entrance exam which does not include an English section for test-takers who do not wish to study at language-related departments (e.g., English language teaching, English language literature, translation studies). According to the guideline of the Turkish Republic Student

Selection Centre (ÖSYM), the students need to obtain the minimum pass score from the first stage in order to take the second stage. The university entrance process is completed by test-takers' filling a form with the universities (either state or foundation) and programs they wish to pursue. Therefore, achieving a sufficient score for the university and undergraduate program is the only precondition for EMI program admission. Nevertheless, students are required to attend the intensive English PYP during an academic year so that they can reach the needed English skills to pursue disciplinary EMI classes. As long as they receive a minimum acceptable score from the proficiency exam constructed in-house at the end of the program, they can start their education at the EMI department. On the issue of failure, it is mandatory for such students to repeat the preparatory year. The students who can certify that they already possess the required English proficiency level through international high stake exams (e.g., TOEFL and IELTS) are directly admitted to the major program. As for the graduate EMI programs, the proof of the proficiency level through either standardized language exams accepted by the Council of Higher Education or international exams is a requirement for admission.

As to EMI lecturers in Turkey, there is also a prerequisite to certifying the language proficiency level. The lecturers are supposed to score at least 80 from the foreign language exams accepted by the Council of Higher Education as it is stated in the Official Gazette in 2016. However, it is worth noting that these foreign language exams do not include a section assessing any productive skills but reading comprehension, vocabulary knowledge and grammatical competence only. These exams are all designed in multiple-choice questions to test mostly grammar and vocabulary knowledge of the candidates. Besides, it consists of completion of dialogues, choosing the response to a given situation, translation from English to Turkish and vice versa question types. Hence, it is open to discussion that whether there is a real benchmark for lecturers in Turkey.

2.4.3. EMI as an Area of Research

Teaching content through English in an educational environment in which English is not spoken as an L1 by the vast of the population is not a new phenomenon, yet it is relatively a new research field. Therefore, there is a plethora of terms constructed by numerous scholars, which indicates that the definition of EMI appears to be ambiguous among researchers. Of these terms, CLIL is notably the most frequent one. As it is already explained in Section 2.3., EMI and CLIL do not refer to the same teaching and learning context, yet out of 320 research studies which were mostly conducted in 2008-2013 was labeled CLIL (e.g., Hüttner, Dalton-Puffer, & Smit, 2013: p. 267; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009: p. 367) even though they are included under the EMI setting (Macaro, 2018: p. 16). Therefore, the studies labeled as CLIL are included in the following sections because of the fact that they provide crucial implications of the status quo of EMI in the different parts of the world. Since some researchers (e.g., Met, 1999: p. 3; Zarobe & Catalan, 2009: p. 82) hold the idea that CLIL resembles content-based instruction, CBI is the other often used term in relation to EMI (e.g., Canbay, 2006). Immersion is the other educational setting that may be mistaken with EMI since teaching content through a second language is crucial for this education type, too. Correspondingly, Murphy (2014: p. 104) defines immersion as "curriculum is content-driven but language attentive", which points out the main distinction between immersion and EMI since EMI does not involve a purpose to pay attention to the language.

Taken all together, the differences among the aforementioned terms concerning the pedagogical practices are presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Terms refer to English L2 classrooms (Macaro, 2018: p. 29)

Even though some scholars labeled their studies EMI, they wished to use different wordings within the text such as *English medium of instruction* (e.g., Khan, 2013: p. 1; Chu, 2005), *English as the medium of instruction* (e.g., Ellili-Cherif & Alkhateeb, 2015: p. 207; British Council/TEPAV, 2015: p. 9), *English as a medium of instruction* (e.g., Sultana, 2014; Belhiah & Elhami, 2014: p. 3), *English-medium higher educatio*n (Hellekjær, 2010: p. 11), *English medium courses* (e.g., Yeh, 2014: p. 305), *English as the lingua franca medium of instruction* (e.g., Björkman, 2010: p. 77) without giving reasons of different word choices (Macaro, 2018: p. 17). Most of them actually refer to the same phenomenon, but some wordings can cause distinctions such as English as *a* medium of instruction and English as *the* medium of instruction. The former one refers to the educational setting where a different language is also a medium of instruction besides English whereas the latter corresponds to English being the only medium of instruction.

The literature on EMI consists of a wide range of contexts, namely stakeholders' perceptions of EMI, the impact of EMI on language learning and content learning, and classroom discourse in EMI, which are presented in the following sections. The EMI studies on classroom discourse are reviewed in Section 2.6. (EMI and classroom discourse).

2.4.3.1. Perceptions of Stakeholders

There is a wealth of research on the beliefs of people who are involved in the EMI setting. Previous research reveals that there is a range of positive drives for the implementation of EMI in Higher Education both at the macro (e.g., globalization, national outlook, intercultural understanding, etc.) and the micro level (institutional, career prospects, improving English, etc.).

Regarding the macro-level motivations, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011: p. 13) who explored the attitudes of Danish instructors (n=1131) towards the increasing EMI provision found that many instructors, especially the younger ones, were of the idea that EMI contributes to the internationalization of the country; hence the number

of EMI programs should be increased. In a similar vein, 25 EMI lecturers from Austria, Italy, and Poland in the study of Dearden & Macaro (2016: p. 466) acknowledge the globalization and internationalization as the benefits of EMI regardless of the country they are from. In Asia, Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf Jr. (2013: p. 1) explored the underlying motivation of EMI in 10 polities including countries such as India, Japan, and Malaysia by bringing 10 studies together for a broad-based framework. It was observed that the Asian, in general, regards EMI as a solution to the complex process of globalization since it serves as a gate-keeper to develop politically and economically. Similarly, in the Chinese context, the stakeholders of EMI in the study by Hu, Li and Lei (2014: p. 28) stated that the motivation behind EMI adoption in parallel with Chinese-medium program was that English serves many benefits among which internationalization and economic development are the most cited ones for the contributions of EMI. Also, EMI is highly associated with high socioeconomic status in Pakistan because both the students and teachers hold the belief that the provision of EMI helps the country gain a modernized national outlook (Khan, 2013: p. 194).

Concerning the micro level, more drives seem to exist compared to macro-level motivations. To start with the beliefs of EMI students, all of Turkish EMI students (n=15) in a study conducted by Bozdoğan and Karlıdağ (2013: p. 98) were convinced that EMI boosted their English proficiency in general, which may help them be recruited in a well-paid occupation. This notion was similarly held by 295 students from four colleges in Ellili-Cherif and Alkhateeb's (2015: p. 212) study. The students felt the contribution of EMI to a better career prospect and being able to complete postgraduate studies as they regarded English as superior to Arabic. In addition to this drive, the majority of Japanese students favor EMI programs because they feel learning the subject through English inevitably contributes to learning the language, too (Chapple, 2015: p, 4). These in short demonstrate that the driving force behind EMI is instrumental from the point of students.

There are also studies revealing teachers' positive attitudes towards EMI at micro level. For instance, lecturers in Germany expressed the view that EMI raised

the awareness of intercultural understanding by contacting with international stakeholders (Earl, 2016). Hence, they developed the skill of adjusting different perspectives. By the same token, the content teachers in Kahvecioğlu's (2019) attitudinal study mentioned gaining the interest in the world as an advantage of EMI provision. Again in Turkish context, the study of Başıbek, Dolmacı, Cengiz, Bür, Dilek and Kara (2014: p. 1823) revealed that the lecturers at two state universities support getting an education in EMI because it fosters the success of students in academic life, language proficiency upgrade and social environment.

Despite the various positive attitudes towards the increased use of EMI, the same literature shows that EMI has become a matter of deep concern according to the statement of the stakeholders. The biggest worldwide challenge seems to be regarding the proficiency level of students. To illustrate, Doiz et al. (2011: p. 354) recognized that linguistic strains were inevitable at a multilingual EMI university in Spain. In this manner, content learning is hindered owing to inadequate language proficiency. In France, the same concern was noted by Napoli and Sourisseau (2013 as cited in Macaro et al., 2018: p. 53). The lecturers considered the English level of the students as a kind of obstruction in the admission of EMI programs. In Turkey, the literature implies that the biggest threat to the merits of EMI is students' insufficient level of English (Kırkgöz, 2009: p. 88; Başıbek et al., 2014: p. 1823; Macaro, Akincioglu & Dearden, 2016: p. 65; Ekoç, 2020). The respondents of Macaro et al. (2016: p. 59) stated that linguistic deficiencies manifested themselves even though EMI students in Turkey are required to pass the proficiency exam before starting their EMI education. Only a few of these students could express themselves without struggling. Such results are aligned with Bozdoğan and Karlıdağ's study (2013: p. 99) which examined students' perception of their own proficiency. The students in their study were not satisfied with their proficiency in English. They asserted that they felt feeling of inadequacy when productive skills (i.e., writing and speaking) were needed. In a similar token, Evans and Morrison (2011: p. 203) revealed that freshman students at EMI programs experienced difficulties in meeting the requirements of EMI skills. Nevertheless, the author also stated that the students

learn how to cope with such difficulties with the help of their lecturers as they progress, which is in line with the findings of Yeh (2014, p. 311). This suggests that Taiwan and Hong Kong do not face many struggles in regard to language proficiency.

Not only is the insufficiency of students' language proficiency but also that of the teachers regarded as a constraint even by the lecturers themselves. In this regard, Macaro et al., (2018: p. 54) point out the lack of specified language proficiency needed to teach through EMI, as a natural consequence, there is no alignment among lecturers in terms of proficiency level. For instance, Campagna (2016: p. 163) and Guarda and Helm (2016: p. 14) reported that Italian lecturers admitted linguistic problems they encountered. They also indicated that their lack of English sufficient proficiency resulted in student language learning improperly. Besides, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011: p. 27) found a negative correlation between the age of lecturers and confidence in their level of English. However, in some studies (e.g., Francomacaro, 2011: p. 53; Dearden & Macaro, 2016: p. 471), the EMI teachers from positive sciences departments such as mathematics, physics, and engineering did not cite any language-related problems as they can survive with minimal language and formulae. Additionally, it should be noted that the lecturers in the studies carried out by Karakaş (2014: p. 114; 2016a: p. 213) perceived their proficiency level as native-like, which indicates that the language proficiency is not a matter of issue for all EMI teachers.

Apart from the English level of the stakeholders, even though EMI is considered more prestigious than the native language (e.g., Hu et al., 2014: p. 33; Ellili-Cherif & Alkhateeb, 2015: p. 212), it is also seen as a threat to the native language. Jensen and Thøgersen (2011: p. 29) observed three negative attitudes towards EMI one of which is regarding the threatening effect of *Englishization* of education (Hultgren, 2018: p. 91) to the Danish language. Especially older lecturers and the ones with fewer years of EMI teaching experience stated that EMI could cause *domain loss* of their native language. Likewise, the respondents in Kiliçkaya's

(2006: p. 3) study with 100 Turkish lecturers expressed the idea that education through the native language must be maintained. The sustenance of Turkish MOI is also supported TEPAV/British Council (2015: p. 66). Owing to this stance embraced in the United Arab Emirates, EMI was withdrawn at Qatar University (Belhiah & Elhami, 2014: p. 4).

Of negative attitudes towards EMI, socio-economic inequality within the country is another finding gathered in EMI research. Hu et al.'s study (2014: p. 32) concluded that EMI accentuates inequalities in China since EMI programs require twice the tuition fee of the Chinese medium of instruction. One respondent in the study asserted that EMI was provided to the students only whose parents can afford higher tuition fees. Similarly, Sultana (2014: p. 31) revealed that Bangladeshi students who entered an EMI university from public schools had academic and social challenges since they were easily marginalized as a result of inadequate proficiency in English, accordingly, not being able to participate in class discussions.

2.4.3. 2. EMI and Language Learning

The abovementioned reasons why the different stakeholders (e.g., countries, universities, students, etc.) support the phenomenon of EMI implementation suggest that EMI has contributions to learning the language even though it is not aimed to teach the language itself. Hence, some scholars intended to conduct empirical studies on the effects of EMI on English learning. To exemplify, Rogier (2012: p. 8) carried out a longitudinal study, the primary aim of which is to explore whether four-year EMI undergraduate students in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) improved their general English proficiency throughout their EMI education; if yes, which language skills (i.e., speaking, listening, reading and writing) they showed progress in. The findings of the study reveal that the students improved all four skills; however, speaking is the skill in which a significant score gain is seen by half a band in IELTS. In light of qualitative data, the study shows that students perceive their proficiency level from good to excellent whereas the lecturers do not consider the students meet the requirement of studying at an EMI program in terms of language

skills, particularly in writing and listening, which is supported by the findings of Napoli and Sourisseau (2013), Macaro et al. (2016: p. 59), Doiz et al. (2011: p. 356), etc. Likewise, Yang (2015: p. 361) investigated the impact of EMI in Taiwan on learning through a pre and post-national general English proficiency test rather than an international high-stakes exam (e.g., TOEFL iBT, IELTS, etc.) as Rogier (2012: p. 8) did. The results indicate that the students significantly developed their receptive skills for two years. In terms of productive skills, no significant statistical gain was observed between the pre and post-test. Nevertheless, EMI students outperformed non-EMI students who sat for the same general English proficiency test regarding writing and speaking.

As well as general English proficiency, specific skills and areas of the language have been an interest in EMI research. In Spain, Aguilar and Muñoz (2014: p. 1) examined the postgraduate engineering students' development in listening proficiency and linguistic knowledge. Similar to what Yang (2015: p. 375) found, the study resulted in the way that EMI students made significant improvements with regard to listening skills during 60 hours of EMI, yet no significant gain was found concerning grammatical knowledge. Furthermore, students with advanced initial proficiency levels showed a decrease in grammar part whereas elementary students gained more from EMI regarding the command of language.

Unlike the aforementioned studies, some studies investigated the impact of EMI on learning the English language with the instrumentation of questionnaires and interviews with students rather than international or national tests. For example, Yeh (2014: p. 305) implemented a survey of 476 Taiwanese students having registered in EMI programs. It was found out that the majority of the students felt growth particularly in listening skills, which is in line with the previous studies. Half of the participants agreed on the development of other skills except writing. Similarly, Byun, Chu, Kim, Park, Kim, and Jung (2011: p. 445) revealed that Korean students perceived their language proficiency to be developed thanks to EMI. Additionally, in the Turkish context, EMI students acknowledged the contributions of EMI to the

development of several skills but speaking (Sert, 2008: p. 165). In contrast to the vast majority of the positive relationship between EMI and language, negative impacts were noticed in Bozdoğan and Karlıdağ's research (2013: p. 99). The students experienced a regression in productive skills during their education in EMI programs, which may be resulted from the lack of student participation in the Turkish tertiary level.

2.4.3.3. EMI and Content Learning

As to the relationship between EMI and content learning, Macaro et al. (2018: p. 60) note that empirical studies are surprisingly scarce. The first example of this type of research can be seen in a study of Vinke's (1995: p. 43) doctoral dissertation. Dissimilar to the studies conducted on the correlation between EMI and language learning, Vinke (1995: 46) included a non-EMI comparison group. During a one-hour lecture, half of the participants were taught a new subject in English while the others learned the same topic in Dutch, their native language. The findings of pre and post-tests showed that the performance of the students who were taught through the native language was significantly higher than EMI students, which implies that EMI hampers content comprehension and learning. However, the study of Joe and Lee (2013: p. 206) resulted in a way that Korean students displayed better performance to the questions assessing both in English and Korean. This suggests that EMI does not hinder but fosters the students' comprehension, which contradicts the finding of Vinke (1995: 152). Notwithstanding, the students indicated that they would prefer Korean MOI than EMI because they felt excessive anxiety about courses in EMI. By the same token, Dafouz and Camacho-Miñano (2016: p. 57) carried out a comparative study through the observation of the lectures delivered in Spanish and English by the same teacher to teach the same content and followed by the same assessment format. There were no statistical differences across the groups of Spanish and English regarding content achievement. This indicates that MOI is not a factor in content comprehension unlike the findings of Vinke (1995: p. 152) and Joe and Lee (2013: p. 206).

Akin to the literature on the effectiveness of EMI on learning the language, several studies investigated the relationship between EMI and content learning based on students' statements rather than adopting an experimental research design. To exemplify, Hellekjær (2010: p. 11) implemented a student questionnaire to assess to what extent MOI affects the listening comprehension of 400 students from Norway and Germany. It was concluded in the study that EMI students had lower lecture comprehension according to students' own self-assessment because of the reasons such as unfamiliar words used in the lecture, the difficulty of multitasking in English (i.e., listening and taking notes simultaneously), etc. Similarly, Airey and Linder (2006: p. 558) found out that EMI affects the way the students acquire the subject knowledge. In their study, the participants reported that they faced challenges of lecture comprehension through EMI. In addition, Sert (2008: p. 156) explored the students' perceptions of lecturer and content comprehension. The students shared the feeling that their subject knowledge acquisition was hindered by EMI. These findings are not in line with those of Joe and Lee (2013: p. 206) yet support Vinke (1995: p. 152).

2.5. CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

In today's internationalized world, plenty of people from different linguistic backgrounds come together in a classroom, which brings about multilingualism as an issue (Smit, 2010: p. 20). For Dalton- Puffer (2007: p. 15), classroom discourse is so dynamic that one can gain insight into this real-world event by observing, watching, listening, and even by studying its transcripts. Hence, spoken language in a classroom setting has become significant for all the participants of a class. Among them, teachers are regarded as an important object of detailed examination by researchers because different roles are assigned to teachers based on different theories of language learning (e.g., input providers, interaction promoters, promoters of output). Besides, they are the ones who control several events during a lesson such

as the topic of discussion, the content, the management of the classroom, etc. (Cazden, 1986: p. 443). That is why they are expected to shoulder the burden, and they are the ones who hold the floor for a very long time in the classroom. From the perspective of teachers, Walsh (2006a: p. 3) demonstrates four main features of L2 classroom: (i) control of patterns of communication, (ii) elicitation techniques, (iii) repair, and (iv) modification of the speech. To carry out these features of classroom discourse, teachers make use of several strategies. Hence, analyzing such strategies sheds light on the nature of a classroom environment. In the following section, an in-depth presentation of discourse strategies is provided.

2.5.1. Discourse Strategies

The literature on discourse strategies shows that this notion is addressed in several ways. For some scholars, it is referred as communicative strategies (e.g., Tarone, 1980: p. 417; Villaume & Cegala, 1988: p. 23; Taylor, 2002: p. 173; Shartiely, 2013: p. 37; Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 7, 2019: p. 44) while some researchers described this concept as teaching strategies (e.g., Butcher, 2006: p. 195; Smith, 2008: p. 395). Since several research studies (e.g., Campagna, 2016 p. 163; Guarda & Helm, 2006: p. 14) established that lecturers in EMI programs struggle to convey the message to teach an academic subject through English due to linguistic problems, the present study attributes discourse strategies as communication strategies rather than teaching.

The term *communication strategy* (CS) was first defined by Selinker (1972: p. 214), yet the nature of this notion was not elaborated in his explanation. Tarone (1977: p. 199) was the first scholar who gave its detailed description by suggesting taxonomy. Over time different definitions of CS were presented. The initial understanding of CS was that it occurs only when there is a problem or language-oriented insufficiencies. Hence, the first research studies of this phenomenon were conducted under error analysis (Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 75). However, this notion faced with the criticism of Dörnyei and Scott (1995: p. 155) because the nature and

type of the problem were not identified, which led the several researchers to specify the CSs by three problems: (i) own-performance problems which refer to the speaker's realization of their own mistake (e.g., self-repair, self-rephrasing), (ii) other-performance problems corresponding to the lack of understanding caused by interlocutor's linguistic performance, (iii) processing time procedure which is associated with the need to have extra time to have production (e.g. use of fillers, self-repetition).

The second keyword having been used to define communication strategies is *consciousness* because it was believed that the speaker must be aware of the problem in order to use a strategy. Since consciousness may refer to being conscious of many issues such as the problem, the alternative way to make it up, the attempt, etc., this term was considered as a vague tenet; hence it was also challenged by researchers. To exemplify, Færch and Kasper (1983: p. 36) argue that consciousness has to do with the level of degree rather than being conscious or not. Besides, Gass and Selinker (1994) hold the idea that some strategies can be automatized after frequent use, so consciousness may not be the case all the time. Drawing on these discussions, Dörnyei and Scott (1995: p. 156) put forward three aspects of consciousness: (i) as awareness of the problem referring to the speaker's identification of the problem, (ii) as intentionality meaning an intention to use verbal behaviors as strategy excluding umming erring, (iii) Consciousness as awareness of strategic language use in which the speaker is aware that their language use is not flawless. Regarding the issue of automatization, the scholars claim the fourth aspect which is consciousness as control, but they did not include this aspect in the components of communication strategies as they believe that routinization is one of the aims of using CSs.

Deriving from different approaches to CS, various taxonomies were suggested following Tarone (1977: p. 199). Two main perspectives were embraced for the proposal of taxonomies: (i) interactional and (ii) psychological. With regard to the former (e.g., Tarone, 1980: p. 429; Willems, 1987: p. 355), the interactional patterns and negotiation for meaning between the interlocutors are addressed whereas the

latter (e.g., Færch and Kasper, 1983: p. 37; The Nijmegen Group; Bialystok, 1990) concerns with the cognitive processes of the speakers. In spite of taking the concept into account from different approaches, some of the typologies show great similarities even though terminologies used in the taxonomy vary. For example, taxonomies presented by Færch and Kasper (1983: p. 37) and Willems (1987: p. 355) involve two classifications: reduction and achievement strategies. That is, speakers either avoid the original message by reducing and abandoning the content or they make attempts to give the indented message with an alternative plan. In a similar vein, The Nijmegen Group applied the duality in their classification: conceptual and linguistic/code strategies. Drawing on this taxonomy, Bialystok (1990) proposed another model with two categories: analysis-based and control-based strategies. The first category deals with the adjustment of the concept whereas the other implies the modification of the form.

The taxonomies from psycholinguistic perspectives were criticized by some scholars (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997: p. 203; Nakatani & Goh, 2007: p. 208; Doqaruni & Najjari, 2015: p.66) because of the fact that this approach fails to deal with the CSs with a comprehensive view. They argue that such taxonomies are concerned with compensatory strategies only but neglect the other aspects. Correspondingly, a more advanced model of CSs was later suggested by Dörnyei and Scott (1995: p. 159-160) under three divisions: direct (e.g., word coinage and self-repair), indirect (e.g., use of fillers and verbal strategy markers) and interactional strategies (e.g., appeals for help, asking for repetition, etc.) to obtain the integration of two approaches. This taxonomy comprises of 33 strategies, which makes this taxonomy the most comprehensive one compared to the previous taxonomies. In 1997, Dörnyei and Scott present a general picture of communication strategies by indicating whether the strategies in their taxonomy are included in the existing taxonomies, if yes, under which category and in which taxonomy they are introduced.

Concerning the approach to the CSs, Nakatani and Goh (2007: p. 208) and Doqaruni and Najjari (2015: p. 67) emphasize the necessary perspectives that go

beyond simply psycholinguistic and interactional in the analysis of the CSs. Accordingly, Doqaruni and Najjari (2015: p. 67) criticize the duality in CS views by stating that "As the theoretical pendulum swung from one extreme to the other, each approach was followed by its opposite". Hence, they suggest new approaches, that is, teacher talk dimension and discourse-based dimension. They hold the idea that CSs in non-native teachers' talk are disregarded in spite of their illuminating features to the SLA research. Besides, Nakatani and Goh (2007, p. 208) build upon by indicating that "CSs are regarded not only as problem-solving phenomena to compensate for communication disruptions but also as devices with pragmatic discourse functions for message enhancement". This clearly explicates the significance of adopting a discourse-based dimension.

2.5.2. Empirical Studies

The literature suggests that communication strategies in L2 research became increasingly important after the 1980s. The reason is that Canale and Swain (1980: p. 30) included *strategic competence* in their communicative competence model. The following years were spent on serious discussions and empirical analyses and teachability of these strategies. Since L2 teachers are deemed as the experts of the language, the research on CSs predominantly focuses on L2 learners' use of strategies to compensate for the linguistic problems. Yet the studies of Sarab (2003: p. 240, 2004: p. 1) and Cullen (2002: p. 123) revealed that CSs are a crucial feature of teacher talk too. On this issue, Doqaruni and Najjari (2015: p. 75) highlight the scarce of CSs from the teachers' dimension.

The impact of L2 learners' proficiency level in the use of communication strategies is one of the aspects that have been investigated frequently. Nakatani (2006: p. 151) examined the correlation between the employment of CSs and the language proficiency of 400 students. The study resulted in a way that higher oral proficient speakers made use of the strategies relatively more, and they relied on the strategies to enhance the fluency and to negotiate the meaning compared to the

speakers of lower proficiency by whom reduction strategies were preferred more. Similarly but from a different perspective (Hosseini, Sarfallah, & Bakhshipour, 2015: p. 6) explored the relationship between critical thinking and oral CSs use in the Iranian context. Their study revealed that the strategies took place more prevalently in the language performance of the students with more critical thinking and speaking ability. Ting, Soekarno, and Lee (2017) also supported evidence for the higher frequency of CS use in more proficient groups. On the contrary, Ugla, Abidin, and Abdullah (2019: p. 127) found that the uses of CSs manifested more in the group of low proficient students, yet it still shows that a significant correlation exists. Besides, there are studies yielding contradicting results concerning this relationship. For instance, Rosas Maldonado's (2016: p. 71) research concluded that the linguistic competence of L2 learners did not have an effect on the frequency of CS use but the use of CS type. Also, the findings of the studies (e.g., Clement, 2007: p. 203; Uztosun & Erten, 2014: p. 169; Yaman & Özcan, 2014: p. 143) showed that language proficiency does not play a significant role in the deployment of CSs, which shows that consensus is not gained on this issue.

The teachability of communication strategies has also been a controversial debate. Dörnyei (1995: p. 55) supports that these strategies can be taught explicitly as separate categories. Yet, this view was debated by scholars who give significance to cognitive processes. They hold the view that it is pointless to teach strategies to language learners who struggle in language processing (Bialystok, 1990). In order to gain empirical data on this debate, Dörnyei (1995: p. 68) conducted training sessions with experimental and control groups to teach three of CSs. When compared to the control group, the post-training results of the treatment group show that the training improved the quality and quantity of the CSs. In addition, the increased frequency of the gap fillers furthered the speech rate of the learners. Regarding the pedagogical effectiveness of explicit strategy instruction, similar findings were obtained from the study by Maleki (2007: p. 583) after the four-month training on CSs with 60 Iranian students. Particularly, the training fostered the interactional strategies which were

exhibited in a more effective and extensive way. A similar study was carried out by Nakatani (2005: p. 76), and it was also evidenced in this study that the 3-month training on oral CS raised the awareness of EFL learners. As a consequence, the experimental group significantly gained development in the post-oral proficiency test. Additionally, this notion is confirmed by the results of statistical analyses carried out by Teng (2012: p. 3566), Bataineh, Al-Bzour, and Baniabdelrahman (2017: p. 213), which demonstrates that the majority of the literature confirms the assets of teaching CSs. These findings also raised the question of how such strategies should be taught. To address this issue, Maleki (2010: p. 642-644) proposed ways to teach each strategy, and most of them are pinned down on the bottom-up approach.

2.6. EMI AND CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

The recent research interest in EMI has gradually been process-based investigation (e.g., classroom interaction) rather than product-oriented (e.g., perceptions of stakeholders, the evaluation of language and content learning in EMI courses) in order to achieve a better understanding about the nature of EMI pedagogy. Since it has been relatively a new research interest, the research on classroom discourse in EMI contexts is very thin.

The distinct discursive practices in EMI have become the focus of some classroom discourse studies. To give an example, Yip, Coyle, and Tsang (2007) investigated the effects of MOI (e.g., Chinese and English) on the instructional activities. The findings of this study yield that it took more time for EMI teachers to lecture. Compared to Chinese MOI, the teachers created fewer opportunities to foster interaction in the class and further students' higher-cognitive skills. Likewise, Lo and Macaro (2012: p. 29) compared the teacher-student interaction in Chinese MOI and EMI courses in secondary schools. The study results indicate that EMI makes the classroom environment less student-centered, and it does not involve negotiation of meaning and scaffolding as Chinese MOI does, which is aligned with Yip et al.'s

(2007) research study. Similar results were found in another study that the researchers conducted. Lo and Macaro (2015: p. 239) this time compared the classroom interaction in two settings where the EMI experience of teachers and students differ due to the commencement of EMI adoption at different stages of secondary school. Both the students and teachers who had just started EMI education displayed difficulties arising from EMI, that is, expressing themselves in L2 for students and adjusting the language in an interactional way for the teachers. Yet, it was also noticed that the stakeholders developed strategies to cope with these challenges by time, which points out the importance of early switch to EMI.

Moreover, Thøgersen and Airey (2011: p. 209) investigated the differences in Danish MOI and EMI regarding the speech rate and rhetorical style of the same lecturer. It was found that the lecturer spoke 23% more slowly while teaching the same content through L2, and thus the EMI lectures took longer compared to those of Danish MOI. Additionally, the lecturer employed the repetition strategy more frequently in the EMI lessons. Sánchez-García (2016: p. 8) carried out a similar study by analyzing the lessons of two lecturers who taught two different subjects both through Spanish, the native language, and English in different classes. In this study as well, the EMI lectures were slightly longer than the lectures carried out through Spanish, yet the lecturers uttered more words during the delivery of the same content in Spanish.

Another comparative study was carried out Jiang, Zhang, and May (2019: p. 1), yet they compared the implementation of EMI with the policy rather than comparing different mediums of instruction like the abovementioned studies. Their study revealed that there was an inconsistency between subject teachers' actual practices and their perceptions gathered through interviews, which stemmed from the low language proficiency of the students. This suggests that classroom practices are largely shaped by the profile of the learners.

In the Turkish context, Duran et al. (2019: p. 1) study was addressed to students' vocal and visual practices regarding word search in an EMI university in Turkey. The results of conversation analysis suggest that the students tend to conduct word search activities through visible resources such as gestures, gaze, etc. and formulaic expressions. It was also seen that the students constructed explicit formulaic expressions as an appeal for help to the class and the lecturer to finish the incomplete sentence. The instances that the lecturer took the turn to orient to the students' word choices reveal that content is prioritized over language in this EMI setting.

2.6.1. EMI and Discourse Strategies

The comprehensive review of literature has yielded that the studies carried out hitherto on the analysis of discourse strategies in EMI setting are very few. Besides, since some studies are not labeled as EMI even though the description of the setting demonstrates that the study corresponds to the EMI environment, which also makes the availability of such studies difficult. Also, the vast majority of studies on discourse strategy aimed to investigate one of the strategies (i.e., code-switching). Hence, it can be argued that the rest of the DSs are under-explored.

Regarding code-switching, there is a large number of studies that describe the functions of L1 in EMI context. To exemplify, Al Makoshi (2014: p. 274) observed that the switch to Arabic in a medical college took place to offer many goals such as elaboration, elicitation, comprehension, classroom management, etc. These findings suggest that code-switching is not always the indicator of the language barrier but also the goal of effective communication. By the same token, Macaro, Tian, and Chu (2020: p. 388) examined the L1 use by five EMI lecturers in Chinese tertiary context along with the students' ideas about the lecturers' language use. The findings of the study yielded the rare use of Chinese because of the sufficient proficiency level of the students the majority of whom prefer lessons to be predominantly in L2. Unlike these EMI students, data from the study by Raman and Yigitoglu (2015: p. 18)

suggest that EMI studens in Turkish context favor switching to L1 as this strategy takes place not only for the sake of content learning but also to establish rapport. As well as the students, the EMI lecturers in Karakaş's (2016b: p. 253) study regarded code-switching instances as an opportunity to better students' content knowledge acquisition. Similar to Macaro et al. (2020: p. 388), the scarcity of language alternation by the teacher was observed in the study of Duran et al. (2019: p. 9) despite the fact that the students switched to Turkish to compensate for the lack of lexical items in English. Furthermore, in a study carried out by Macaro (2020: p. 273) to explore the language use in EMI classes from different disciplines, it was found that the way the EMI teachers talk differs depending on the context. Concerning the L1 use, the teachers switched to Chinese to cater for greater clarity of the terms related to the field by labeling them. In addition to these, Ishamina and Deterding (2017: p. 281) explored whether the instances of code-switching resulted in a misunderstanding in a university where the overwhelming majority of the instruction is in English, yet Malay MOI is also widely used. The researcher identified 12 misunderstanding tokens stemming from the use of L1. However, only some of these instances resulted in communication breakdown, which implies that code-switching does not cause a severe breakdown in communication in that university setting.

Besides the investigation of one strategy individually, there exist studies exploring several strategies at a time mostly through the adoption of taxonomy. For instance, Azian, Abdul Raof, Ismail, and Hamzah (2013: p. 283) explored communication strategies used by non-native teachers in the L2 science classroom in Malaysia. Even though the setting was not labeled as EMI in this study, the context indicates that the study was carried out in the EMI environment. The analysis of findings through Dörnyei and Scott's (1997: p. 188-192) taxonomy revealed that prosody, code-mixing, and checking were the most frequent strategies displayed by science teachers. The fourth most common strategy was self-repair which was considered as resulting from the lack of teaching experience. Furthermore, in the

light of the data collected from group interviews both with the teachers and students, it was found out that teachers were aware of the strategies used and their purposes, and unfilled pauses had a negative impact on students' comprehension. Likewise, it is not specified as EMI in Shartiely's (2013: p. 76) research on discourse strategies of eight lectures where English is embraced as the only mode of language policy. This shows that this research is included in the EMI setting too. The researcher investigated the discourse strategies with two categories: propositional and structural. The results of the study indicate that the lecturers used repetition, questions, and code-switching most in the category of propositional strategies. Regarding question types, open, closed, tag, and rhetorical were displayed for several purposes such as comprehension check, classroom management, and encouraging participation. *So* and *now* were the discourse markers having been used most regarding structural strategies so as to indicate consequential relationships. Lastly, it was observed that pronouns *I, you,* and *we* were utilized not only to give their literal meaning but also as an explanatory device.

Unlike the abovementioned studies, it is clearly stated that Sudiatmika, Nitiasih, and Suarnajaya (2013: p. 1) conducted their study in the EMI setting. They aimed to investigate communication strategies used by biology, physics, and mathematics teachers in Bali. The researchers adapted the taxonomies proposed by several scholars for the classification of CSs in this study. They found out that five out of fourteen strategy types were displayed by the three teachers. In total 36 strategy uses were identified, and the most frequent one was code-switching, which derived from the fact that two of the teachers barely spoke in English. Likewise, Zubaidi (2014: p. 1) explored the use of CSs in Indonesia by using the taxonomy of Tarone (1980: p. 429). This study also resulted in the prevalence of L1 effect on the teachers' talk during the delivery of content through English as literal translation and language switch were found to be the most frequently used strategies in the lecturer's oral performance. The frequency of language alternation is in line with Azian et al.

(2013: p. 289), Shartiely (2013: p. 139), yet is not aligned with Duran et al. (2019: p. 9) and Macaro et al. (2020: p. 397).

Just like the studies on the effectiveness of EMI on content learning (e.g., Vinke, 1995: p. 43; Joe & Lee, 2013: p. 201), some comparative studies of L1 MOI and EMI were implemented on the issue of discourse strategies. To give an example, Sánchez-García (2016: p. 99) completed a doctoral dissertation aiming to analyze the correlation between the medium of instruction and the use of discourse strategies. The results of the research yielded that MOI plays a significant role in the use of the type of discourse strategies. The strategies mainly diverged on the frequency of use and slightly on the type of DS. A wide range of strategy types, 14 in total, were utilized but questions, filler words, and retrieval occurrences were the ones exhibited most in this study. The same author (Sánchez-García, 2019: p. 43) published another research article on this comparison with a similar design. In this research, she aimed to investigate the achievement of the lecturers' communicative goals by classifying the DSs into three distinctions: less, medium, and more communicative potential. In this study, the lecturers displayed 12 types of strategies in sum. The most frequently used ones were retrieval, restructuring, and repetition, which shows that the lectures were potentially communicative. However, the frequency of the less communicative strategies was relatively high. Therefore, the author points out the necessity of professional development programs for EMI lecturers to raise their awareness in terms of classroom language use.

2.7. CONCLUSION

The literature suggests that teaching content through English is not a new phenomenon. Throughout the world, it has been implemented in different ways in many levels of education as a consequence of various needs and policies (i.e., EMI, CLIL, CBI, immersion programs). Among the others, EMI is the pedagogy that has burgeoned all around the world rapidly. Therefore, it is a relatively new research area

for scholars. It has been investigated from different aspects, yet the majority of existing studies (including the Turkish context) comes from attitudinal research exploring the beliefs of stakeholders. Both positive and negative motives were observed in such studies, that is, individual and national developments are the positive drives behind EMI implementation while inadequate English proficiency levels of both lecturers and students are the most oft-mentioned negative attitudes. Following perspectives, the contributions of EMI to language and particularly content learning have been a controversial research subject since language is regarded as a barrier in EMI programs, which may keep the students' comprehension and accordingly content learning low. Besides, classroom discourse in the EMI context is the area that is cast light on the least. Considering the fact that teachers are the main agents of EMI classroom discourse, and they encounter language-related problems as a consequence of high cognitive load, the distinct strategies they make use of during the delivery of content area subjects are of great importance for EMI classroom discourse. Yet, to my knowledge, it is one of the under-explored features of EMI discourse, particularly in the Turkish EMI setting. Hence, in order to gain insight into the nature of the EMI classroom, there is a need for empirical studies revealing more about the discursive strategies used by teachers through the analysis of EMI classroom discourse.

CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the research design is first presented along with the research questions which guide the study presented here. Following this, the settings where the research was conducted and the profile of the research participants are elaborated. Moreover, the steps of the data collection and data analysis processes are demonstrated in great detail. Finally, the issues of validity and reliability are discussed.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

As it is indicated in the previous chapters, there is a growing body of research on EMI, yet the vast majority of the EMI research is attitudinal. Hence, there is a need for studies investigating classroom discourse in EMI to gain better insighs into the actual status of EMI. Additionally, substantial research has evinced that English is a matter of deep concern for EMI teachers (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2020: p. 1). However, less attention has been paid to how content teachers confront linguistic problems. Correspondingly, the primary aim of the current research is to explore and describe the strategies that EMI lecturers utilize during the delivery of content subjects in English. Therefore, the study is designed to examine the following questions:

1. Which discourse strategies are employed by the university lecturers teaching in English-medium instruction setting?
2. What are the uses and functions of the discourse strategies exhibited?
3. To what extent do the discourse strategies serve the lecturers' purpose of communicative goal?

By addressing the abovementioned research questions, the study aims to provide a thick description of a complex aspect of teacher discourse (i.e., discourse strategies). Accordingly, the thesis follows a qualitative descriptive research design. As Welman, Kruger, and Mitchell (2005: p. 193) suggest, this examination was held under natural circumstances for the sake of ecological validity with the help of observation during a regular lesson of the seven university lecturers. As the sample of the current research does not have a representative nature, no generalizability is claimed. Instead, the primary goal is to shed light on how EMI lecturers use the language to reinforce the communication and compensate for any language-related problems as well as to investigate the theoretical significance of this phenomenon. A more detailed description of how the present study was carried out is presented in the following sections.

3.3. SETTINGS AND PARTICIPANTS

3.3.1. Settings

EMI is a more prevalent phenomenon in Turkish HE and rapid increase of EMI provision is observed more in universities (Başıbek et al., 2014: p. 1820; Kırkgöz, 2005: p. 102). Hence, the data of the research were gathered from tertiary level institutions in Turkey. As for case selection, several steps were followed. Initially, the university selection guidebook published in 2019 by the Turkish Republic Student Selection Centre (ÖSYM) was checked in order to access the list of universities and faculties where EMI is provided. Then the list was narrowed down based on geographical proximity and easy accessibility, which shows that case

selection was on the basis of convenience sampling (Mackey & Gass, 2012: p. 81). The final list of universities was made when the lecturers who were requested to participate in the research permitted to be observed. Correspondingly, five universities constitute the locus of data collection in the current research. Three of these institutions are state universities while the others are foundation universities. The universities are located in two regions of Turkey; Marmara and the Central Anatolia Region. The details of the universities are provided below to have a better standing of why EMI is offered in these contexts.

University 1 (hereinafter U1) is a state university located in Central Anatolia Region. It offers over 150 undergraduate programs and more than 200 programs for postgraduate degrees. As of 2019-2020 academic year, around 70 programs from various fields are taught through full EMI. Among 50.000 students, approximately 1.500 international students attend this university. Based on QS World University Rankings, the university was ranked as the 801-1000th in 2020. Likewise, University 2 (U2) is a state university placed in this region. It offers around 50 undergraduate, more than 150 post-graduate programs, and it hosts more than 30.000 students. Of them, over 1.700 students come from various countries. All degree programs are offered in full EMI in this university, which may be the reason why this university was ranked as 591-600th according to QS World University Ranking.

University 3 (U3) is a foundation university in the Marmara region. It accommodates approximately 35.000 local and more than 5.000 international students. The university offers around 300 programs from the associate degree to the doctorate. Around 40 programs are taught through 100% English. The university also provides some of these programs in Turkish MOI, which provides an opportunity for students to choose which MOI they prefer based on the score they gained from the university entrance exam. Similarly, University 4 (U4) is a foundation university located in this region. This university offers around 10 associate degrees, 30 undergraduate and 40 postgraduate programs. Of them, more than 20 programs are conducted in full EMI. Including 1000 international students, in total 8.000 people

get an education from this university. University 5 (U5) is a state university in Marmara region again. It accommodates more than 80.000 students. Of them, around 2.000 international students come to Turkey to study at this university. Overall 90 undergraduate programs are offered. The university does not provide any full EMI programs, yet it is one of the places where partial EMI is a must. 30% of the courses are taught through English in these partial EMI programs.

Macaro (2018) points out the significance of the description of the EMI setting since not all studies labeled as EMI may not indeed refer to EMI context just like some studies which do not have this label are categorized under EMI research (see section 2.4.3. for more information). He defines EMI as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English" (p. 35). When this definition is taken into account, the abovementioned university settings can be identified as an EMI context since English is taught as a foreign language in Turkey, and the academic subjects of the courses in which the data were gathered were non-linguistic curricular contexts.

3.3.2. Participants

Various roles in classroom discourse are attributed to teachers such as taking control of the communication patterns (Johnson, 1995: p. 44), controlling the content (Slimani, 1989: p. 224), promoting or restraining the learning opportunities (Walsh, 2002: p. 5). The roles assigned to teachers suggest that the vast majority of classroom discourse is generated by them. Hence, lecturers are the stakeholders who provide much insight into classroom discourse of EMI context. Keeping this in mind, lecturers who teach academic subjects through English were chosen as the focus of the current research.

When the universities which comprise the setting of the study were determined based on the convenient sampling procedure, I took several concerns into consideration before sending the lecturers a request to be observed. First of all, in

order to have a better understanding of EMI provision in different contexts, I got in contact with the lecturers working at either a state university or a foundation university via e-mail. Besides, more than one lecturer from the same or similar department was requested to be a participant to gain insights into discipline-specific differences if there are any. On the other hand, I tried to collect data from different disciplines too (i.e., positive sciences, social sciences, and educational sciences) for the purpose of diversity in fields. Also, both undergraduate and graduate programs were included to have an idea of EMI in different education levels. Lastly, the lecturers who have different teaching background were asked to participate. However, it is worth noting that this research does not primarily aim to investigate the role of the type of university, discipline, level of education, and teacher experience in the employment of discourse strategies. By selecting the participants from various contexts, it was aimed to obtain a more comprehensive perspective of EMI provision. Thereby, the members of the population to participate in this research were also selected by means of purposive sampling (Mackey & Gass, 2012: p. 185).

The lecturers were reached through their university email addresses or through acquaintances. Out of 15 lecturers who received the request, nine content lecturers became willing to participate in the research. However, because of the data reduction process, the data gathered from seven lecturers (4 male and 3 female) could be used in the study. The background information of the participants reveals that the target population of the research includes diverse participants. To illustrate, the years of teaching experience of the instructors range from 6 years to 30 years while their EMI teaching experience differs from 2 years to 20 years. Besides, three of the lecturers are full professors in their fields, and among the others, one is associate professor, and three lecturers have the title of assistant professor. Furthermore, four of the participants work at a state university whereas three lecturers teach at a foundation university. Also, two of the lecturers teach subject-area courses through English at a partial EMI program while the rest teach in an environment where full EMI is implemented. Finally, five lecturers completed their doctoral studies abroad whereas

two of the participants received both Master and PhD degrees abroad. The background information of the lecturers is presented in Table 1.

Table 1.

Participant's background information

Name	Title	Teaching experience	EMI experience	University	Earning a degree abroad	Receiving EMI training
T1	Full Prof.	19 years	18 years	U4 (Found.)	PhD	No
T2	Full Prof.	30 years	20 years	U4 (Found.)	PhD	No
T3	Full Prof.	19 years	12 years	U5 (State)	PhD	No
T4	Assoc. Prof.	12 years	5 years	U5 (State)	Master and PhD	No
T5	Asst. Prof.	9 years	9 years	U2 (State)	PhD	No
T6	Asst. Prof.	23 years	2 years	U1 (State)	Master and PhD	No
T7	Asst. Prof.	6 years	6 years	U3 (Found.)	PhD	No

On the issue of my relationship with the participants, we did not know each other before conducting this research. However, during the data collection process, I believe we could develop a good professional rapport. This shows that our relationship was not too close or far away which is important for the main aim of the current research in terms of the researcher's role because both situations may have an influence on the objectivity of the data analysis.

3.4. INSTRUMENTATION

According to Silverman (2015: p. 54), four data collection instruments are commonly utilized in qualitative research, namely (i) observation, (ii) the analysis of texts and documents, (iii) conducting interviews, and (iv) transcribing the recorded data. In my research, I tried to make use of these methods either as a primary or secondary data collection tool.

In order to gain insight into the nature of EMI courses and the strategies employed by EMI lecturers, non-participant observation was preferred as the main data collection procedure in this research since the researcher observed natural environment of the classroom without interacting with the participants or controlling the session (Long, 1983: p. 24). Regarding this, Mackey and Gass (2005: p. 170) draw the attention of researchers to the threat of the alteration of the environment's nature by the participation of the research. In addition to field notes taken during the observation, a smartphone was used to audio-record the lectures with the permission of the participants. As Mackey and Gass (2005: p. 175) indicate, audio recordings helped me capture almost all of the used discourse strategies and analyze them in greater depth later.

As stated above, nine lecturers participated in this study and the data were collected from their regular lectures. However, seven of them were taken into account for the analysis process (see Section 3.5.1. for the rationale). Regarding the number of lessons to be observed, as Seedhouse (2004: p. 87) asserts "classroom research […] has considered between five and ten lessons a reasonable database", which indicates that seven is an optimal number to carry out this classroom research. Through the audio recordings of seven EMI lectures, a small corpus was compiled for the study presented here. The corpus of EMI lecturers' spoken texts consists of 774 minutes and 85.363 words in total. Walsh (2011: p. 93) specifies the number of words uttered in smaller corpora with around 50.000-100.000. As he also explains,

smaller corpora are more common in corpus linguistics as they shed light on a particular real-world problem whereas larger corpora are "lexically rich but contextually poor" (Walsh et al. 2011: p. 328)

Once the lecturers accepted the request to be the participant of the research, the day when the observation would take place was arranged. The observation sessions were carried out in the middle of the fall semester in the 2019-2020 academic year so that the instructors and students could familiarize themselves by that time. Before the lesson started, the research design was introduced to the lecturers through a consent form (see Appendix A). However, the details of the aspect that the present research aims to investigate (i.e., teacher discourse strategies) were not shared with them in case the lecturers would modify their actual classroom performances accordingly. By doing so, I strived to avoid the threat of social desirability bias (Dörnyei, 2007: p. 9) and Hawthorne effect (Macky & Gass, 2005: p. 187) by which the participants tend to please the researcher by performing what is expected from them.

As the participants specified that they volunteered to be observed only once, the data could be gathered during the lecture of one week. The maximum length of the lecture carried out once a week is 150 minutes. Yet, the lesson duration of each participant was noticed to be different because many variables (e.g., the lecturers' speech rate, the students' participation, the difficulty of the subject, etc.) may play an essential role in the required duration of the lecture. Therefore, the lectures recorded to gather data range from 81 minutes to 157 minutes, which is presented in Table 2. However, it should be noted that the sum of the words used per lecture is more significant than the lecture period in this research since the primary aim is to analyze the strategic behaviours of the lecturers by collecting their spoken discourse; thus, the frequencies of discourse strategy use were counted based on the utterances rather than the minutes.

Table 2.

Corpus collected

Name	Course and educational level taught	Minutes	Words	Words per minute	Number of DS type	Number of DS uses
T1	Ideology and Discourse Analysis (Graduate)	102	12.027	117	17	1.138
T2	Sociology of Everyday life (Graduate)	104	14.104	135	21	1.592
T3	Differential Equations and Applications (Undergraduate)	132	11.220	85	21	921
T4	Scientific Research Methods (Graduate)	81	9.459	116	19	783
T5	Research Methods in Education (Graduate)	157	17.602	112	20	948
T6	Introduction to Geomatics Engineering (Undergraduate)	88	9.253	105	21	387
T7	History of Political Thought (Undergraduate)	110	11.698	106	22	548
Total		774	85.363	110 (avg.)	24	6.321

In addition to non-participant observation, a 5-minute structured interview (see Appendix B) was conducted with the lecturers after the observation sessions in order to inquire their background information. Even though, these pieces of information do not directly affect the findings of the present study, I hold the idea that they provide a better understanding of why particular discourse strategies are displayed. Also, visiting the website of the universities and departments was the other secondary

source used in this research. By doing so, some insights regarding why EMI adoption is required in those settings were obtained.

3.5. DATA ANALYSIS

A corpus-based analysis and thematic analysis are the main methods utilized to identify, analyze, organize, and describe DSs exhibited by the EMI lecturers. These methods allowed me to identify the key features of 24 different discursive strategies in the large data gathered. Corpus-based analysis, which is a type of Corpus Linguistics (CL), was applied through frequency counts since the focus of this descriptive research is the language use of seven EMI teachers. Accordingly, quantification was included by means of frequencies and percentages. Mackey and Gass (2005: p. 182) list the benefits of quantification in qualitative studies one of which is that numerical descriptions help the researcher to detect the occurrences and make inferences. As they indicate, more insights were achieved and better conclusions were reached. Moreover, CL provides "rapid and reliable profiles of classroom discourse", which is regarded as the primary benefit of CL for classroom discourse research by Walsh (2011: p. 109). Likewise, Mackiewicz and Thompson (2016: p. 189) highlights the significance of CL analysis in discourse studies because it illuminates the aboutness of the linguistic feature analyzed in the corpus. Nevertheless, Walsh (2011: p. 109) mentions the disadvantage of CL which is that it does not offer finer details of classroom discourse. Thereby, for this purpose, thematic analysis was employed to explore the uses and functions of discourse strategy occurrences. Regarding its merits, Nowell, Norris, White, and Moules (2017: p. 1) hold the idea that thematic analysis is a key to trustworthiness in qualitative research. Therefore, to achieve trustworthiness in the research, I endeavored to follow six phases of thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006: p. 87): (a) familiarizing with data, (b) generating initial codes, (c) searching

for themes, (d) reviewing themes, (e) defining and naming themes, (f) producing the report.

To follow the abovementioned steps, I first listened to the audio recordings of the seven lectures and I read the field notes that I took during the observation sessions in order to familiarize myself with the characteristics of each participant's spoken discourse. During this process, I realized that some pieces of data indeed do not serve the purpose of the current research, so I did not include them in the data analysis procedure. After the data reduction, I transcribed the rest of the data on the computer to store them in well-organized achieves. The steps of thematic analysis are elaborated in the sessions below.

3.5.1. Data Reduction

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: p. 26) acknowledge that data reduction is an essential process of qualitative research. As Miles and Huberman (1994: p. 11) indicate, this process may occur in different steps of data collection procedure (i.e., before, during, and after). In my research, it took place after data collection because of two main reasons, namely student presentation and overuse of the native language. Regarding the former, one of the lecturers' lessons was conducted mostly with students' presentations. Since the focus of this research is discourse strategy use of EMI instructors and this lecture lacked the opportunity to provide me sufficient spoken discourse of the lecturers, it had to be taken out of the corpus. Besides, I also eliminated one lecture carried out by the instructor who is teaching in a partial EMI program. As there were no international students in the classroom and the students were exposed to Turkish MOI in the majority of the courses, they kept asking questions in their native language. Accordingly, the lecturer continued the instruction in Turkish as well. Hence, it could be stated that Turkish was utilized as a medium of instruction besides English by this lecturer rather than a code-switching strategy. Consequently, the data gathered from this lecturer were not included in the corpus. In addition to these, it is worth noting that since the present study aims to investigate

teacher DSs, the strategic behaviors of the students were not taken into account during the process of data analysis. However, student utterances and turns were transcribed to have a better understanding of the discursive strategies of the lecturers.

3.5.2. Data Transcription

When the data reduction process was completed, I transcribed the rest of the data manually on Microsoft Word Document. Since the transcription is a long and exhausting process, in case the communication strategies in teacher discourse were not identified at once, I listened to each lecture's recording again after finishing transcribing for double-checking. Since the research does not aim to analyze the non-verbal aspects (e.g., facial expressions and gestures) or prosodic features (e.g., pitch, accent, etc.) except intonation in the lecturers' language use, a basic convention is adopted to transcribe the data. The transcription convention is presented in Table 3.

Table 3.

Transcription convention

Symbol	Meaning
T1, T2, T3, T4, …	Lecturer turns
S1, S2, S3, S4, …	Student turns
Ss	Several students/the whole class at once
[	Overlapping speech
]	
[ ]	Non-verbal extra information
(?)	Indecipherable utterance
(.)	Pause (the number of dots indicates the second)

3.5.3. Data Coding

The present research aims to analyze teacher discourse strategies in EMI courses and the extent to which they meet the communicative purpose of EMI lecturers. Since it requires an in-depth analysis, the data transcribed were uploaded to Nvivo 12, the software used for the analysis of qualitative data, to start the process of coding. As Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005, p. 253) assert, coding allows researchers to interpret the data and reach conclusions by categorizing the "thick, rich, and deep qualitative data" into themes.

After the data familiarization period, the second phase in thematic analysis commenced with coding the discursive strategies displayed by the EMI lecturers based on a widely recognized taxonomy Dörnyei and Scott (1997: p. 188-192) which was later elaborated by Sánchez-García (2019: p. 47). The review of the literature reveals that discourse strategies are regarded as either communicative or teaching strategies. In this research, it is acknowledged that the lecturers are experts in their field, so how they teach their field is not questioned. Instead, I strive to have an insight into how they use the language while disseminating academic rhetoric and facilitating communication between them and the students. That is why this research considers DSs as communication strategies like Villaume and Cegala (1988: p. 23) and Sánchez-García (2016: p. 7) did.

It has been observed that a great deal of taxonomies for communication strategies has been proposed so far. After careful consideration, Dörnyei and Scott's (1997: p. 188-192) list of inventory of strategic language devices consisting of 33 strategy types was found to be the most appropriate one since it is quite comprehensive with 33 strategy types and their sub-types. The taxonomy had to be adapted, though because some strategies can be identified only through video recordings (e.g., mime) or stimulated recall interviews with the lecturers (e.g., message reduction and message replacement). As the current research lacks these data collection tools, such strategies could not be included in the taxonomy. Besides,

as Sánchez-García (2019: p. 47) points out and Dörnyei and Scott (1997: p. 192) indicate in their taxonomy as well, some strategies can refer to the same episode such as other-repetition and response- repeat. Hence, some categories from the original taxonomy were narrowed. Also, some strategy types that these scholars suggested were not displayed by the participants of the current research. Ultimately, the taxonomy used for this research, presented in Table 4, involves 24 strategy types. For the sake of researcher triangulation, the initial codes generated were presented to the thesis advisor, and some ground rules were determined to gain a consistent approach in the data coding process.

Table 4.

The taxonomy used for the research, adapted from Dörnyei and Scott (1997: p. 188-192)

Discourse Strategies	Definition	Example from the corpus
A. Less Communicative Potential		
1. Message Abandonment	Leaving a message unfinished	**But the reality is**. (..) Look, look at that.
2. Omission	Leaving a sentence unfinished when not knowing a word	I mean, **let's take a look at also**. None of the other answer is actually make sense because it says that time of the day.
3a. Response- reject	Rejecting what the interlocutor has said	S: It's written in capital, right? T: **No, it's lowercase**.
B. Medium Communicative Potential		
4. Use of fillers	Using gambits to fill pauses	But that's OK. **You know**, you can take, **you know**, a week off.
5. Use of all purpose-words	Extending the context when specific words are lacking	Any identity becomes possible at the moment when we sort of prevent **things** or negate **things.**

Table 4. (continued)

6. Code-switching	Including L1 words with L1 pronunciation in L2 speech	So that's a very good survey research, **nüfus sayımı**, the census.
7. Use of similar-sounding words	Compensating for a lack of lexical item with a word sounding more or less like the target item	After it turned into a **simplified** sorry symbolized items, that it can be called map.
8. Foreignizing	Using an L1/L2 word by adjusting it to L2/L1 phonology	There is a kind of attempt a kind of work (.) trying to to just to be **normal** [L1 pronunciation] to not to suffer all the time.
9. Literal translation (transfer)	Translating a lexical item or a phrase from L1 to L2 word by word	Sorry about this because (.) I'm I'm **giving** also dynamics this semester.
10. Word coinage	Creating a non-existing word based on a supposed rule	These activities in our everyday life is also a kind of err **performation** of the freedom.
11a. Indirect appeal for help	Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly	And I am just trying to remember the name of this anthropologist no linguist Schroeder **but I don't remember his first name**.
C. More Communicative potential		
3b. Response-confirm	Confirming what the interlocutor has said	S: It turns into a conversation and really no suffering are similar. T: **Yeah exactly.**
3c. Response-expand	Putting the problem word/issue into a larger context	T: Have you noticed six digits on American films in war films? S: Digits? T: **The numbers I mean. In American films soldiers on the front in a war field, they give out coordinates. Have you seen them?**

Table 4. (continued)

11b. Direct appeal for help	Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question	If you can get some information, for example, using the very very (…) **what kind of (..) video cam**?
12. Comprehension check	Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you	There are not big cities in Europe in this period. The big cities, the real urban places, **where do they exist in this period**?
13. Self-rephrasing	Repeating a term by adding something or using paraphrase	It can be **reinterpreted, redefined, reconstructed** always over time.
14. Restructuring	Leaving the utterance unfinished to continue with an alternative plan or modify it to provide further elaboration	**You will be once you're done with your courses**, you'll be presenting your research proposals here you know in 4th semester.
15. Approximation	Using an alternative term which shares semantic features with the target word	These are the purposes of map. You can (.) **enlarge** and add as much as possible.
16. Circumlocution	Describing the target object or action	Sarıkamış, thousands of Turkish soldiers **were killed because of the cold.**
17. Retrieval	Saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms to retrieve a lexical item	If this is constant is just **goes out the err goes out of the integral**.
18a. Self- repair	Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech	**There were there was** a kind of development of the rules, but they change.
18b. Other-repair	Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech	T: In order to rule efficiently, you need? (…) S: Treasure T: Yes including **treasury**, yes.

Table 4. (continued)

19. Own accuracy check	Checking that what you said was correct	V1 final is 3 meters per second. **Is it three?** No it's four, OK.
20a. Self-repetition	Repeating a word or a string of words	Both two dimensional, right? **Two dimensional**.
20b. Other-repetition	Repeating something the interlocutor said	S: We're experiencing catharsis. T: **Catharsis**, right.
21. Asking for repetition	Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding properly	S: One point fifteen T: **I'm sorry?** S: One point fifteen
22. Asking for clarification	Requesting further explanation	S: So how can it is differentiate from structuralism? L: **From what?** S: From structuralism?
23. Asking for confirmation	Requesting confirmation that one understood correctly	T: **You mean you'll talk about your topic first with me?** S: Yes.
24. Interpretive summary	Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message	S: But you are not aware of it. This is fossilization. T: Oh, OK. **You're not aware of it. Then you keep using it**. OK.

When I completed coding the data according to Dörnyei and Scott's (1997: p. 188-192) taxonomy, as Braun and Clarke (2006: p. 89) suggest, I sorted and collated the coded data into themes based on their potential relevance as some strategies have similar objectives. For the third phase of thematic analysis, Boyatzis (1998: p. 6) asserts that themes are generated either inductively from the raw data collected or deductively from prior research. In the research, I conducted both deductive and inductive thematic analysis. To address the second research question, each DS type

was categorized in itself according to the way they were utilized and the reasons leading the lecturers to make use of the corresponding strategy. As such themes were developed from the data collected, the thematic analysis was employed inductively. Additionally, to answer the 3rd research question, I classified the DSs on the basis of the extent to which the strategies contribute to the communicative goal of the lecturers, motivated from the study conducted by Sánchez-García (2019: p. 48). This shows that deductive analysis was also driven in the current research. The DS types that emerged in this present research yet did not take place in her study were categorized based on the continuum that she developed for this classification.

Figure 2. Continuum of discourse strategies according to their communicative potential (Sánchez-García, 2019: p.48)

In the 4th phase of thematic analysis, I reviewed the main themes generated and data extracts categorized in those themes to check whether they cohere together in a meaningful way. The validity of the classification and themes was ensured with the help of the thesis advisor. Assoc. Prof. Yüksel crosschecked the categorization of the strategies in accordance with their communicativeness. Besides, the uses and functions of DSs were reviewed by him through sample extracts from each. Based on the expert opinions, necessary adjustments such as theme development and recategorization of the strategy were made.

After the verification of the themes was gained, the themes were named and described individually. To be able to name the uses and functions, I benefited from the previously conducted research studies on each discourse strategy type. Concerning the categorization based on the communicativeness of DSs, three themes emerged and they were named as (i) less communicative potential, (ii) medium communicative potential, and (iii) more communicative potential as Sánchez-García

(2019: p. 48) did. In the 5th phase, the process of thematic analysis was finalized since all the themes developed were found to be relevant to the research questions of this study. The final form of the strategy type categorization is presented in the taxonomy shown in Table 4.

The last phase, producing the report, basically corresponds to the findings section, thus the themes arising from the uses and functions identified are discussed in detail in the 4th chapter.

3.6. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Validity and reliability as quality standards are conceptualized in different manners by various scholars. Among them, one of the widely accepted criteria of validity and reliability was introduced by Lincoln and Guba (1985). They regard the issues of validity and reliability as credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Lincoln and Guba (1985: p. 301-327) proposed several techniques to ensure these quality standards such as persistent observation, peer debriefing, triangulation, and audit trail. In order to fulfill the trustworthiness in this qualitative research, as Nowell et al., (2017: p. 4) suggest, iterative and reflective data analysis was conducted through six phases. In each phase, different means of establishing trustworthiness were addressed (see Section 3.5.). The examination of raw data, data reduction products, and process notes (Campbell, 1996: p. 130) was the first step to achieve the consistency of the data.

Concerning credibility, the persistent observation by which the issue that the researcher aims to investigate is pursed in detail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985: p. 304) was the other activity to meet the criteria of internal validity. In the research of classroom discourse, the average audio-recorded observation is 10 hours (Martin-Jones, 2015: p. 102). In the present study, the persistent observation was tried to be achieved through the collection of approximately 13-hour corpus which is above the average.

With this regard, the data collected from five to ten lessons in classroom research are considered reasonable by Seedhouse (2004: p. 87). Thus, seven lectures were observed to gather data for this research, and the lecturers uttered 85.363 words in total during the lectures, which is also considered as optimal word number for small corpora by Walsh (2011: p. 93).

Regarding dependability which is the consistency of the findings, peer debriefing was fulfilled thanks to the feedback of the thesis advisor in each phase of thematic analysis to fulfill the collection of valid information. He assessed the categories that emerged from the transcripts of seven EMI lectures and the reports of the preliminary findings. Based on his reviews, points that were over or underemphasized in the first place were gone through changes in terms of the way they were reported. Also, researcher triangulation is another technique used to enhance the credibility of coding and to obtain reliability. I asked a colleague of mine who completed her bachelor's and Master's degree in the field of English language teaching to code the chosen occurrences as an external reviewer. 24 strategy types and 6.321 episodes of discourse strategies were identified in total based on the taxonomy used for the current research 10% of the instances regarding each DS type were chosen randomly online, and assigned to the external reviewer. Before she started coding, I provided her a manual involving definitions of each strategy and their examples provided by Dörnyei and Scott (1997: p. 188-192) and Sánchez-García (2019: p. 47), and we went over the strategies together as well. When she coded the episodes assigned based on these constructs, we compared and contrasted the way we coded the instances of DSs. In the event of a discrepancy, either she or I revised the coding through discussion. Nevertheless, it should be noted that there were times when we both were sure about our coding and wanted to keep the coding as it is. As a result, the final consistency percentage was 94%, 98%, and 97% for the strategies that have less, medium, and more communicative potential, respectively.

Transferability concerns the generalizability of the findings unfolded from the inquiry. Concerning the data examined under naturalistic scrutiny like the present

study, Lincoln and Guba (1985: p. 110) claim that “the only generalization is: There is no generalization”. Also, as Patton (2001: p. 193) claims, the generalizability of the qualitative studies depends on the case selected and investigated. In this research, I strived to collect data from various contexts to gain insights into the status quo of EMI in different settings (See Section 3.2. for detailed description), yet I do not assert that the findings of this research are representative of other contexts where English is conveyed as a medium of instruction. Nevertheless, thick descriptions were presented for the researchers who seek to transfer the findings I reached into their own context.

Confirmability refers to the clear documentation of the investigation process and providing reasons for the methodological and analytical choices (Nowell et al., 2017: p. 3). To meet the needs of these issues, an audit trail technique throughout the entire study was utilized. In other words, all the steps of the implementation and data analysis process of the research were recorded in a precise and exhaustive manner. Besides, in order to achieve objectivity, the findings and interpretations were supported by the representative data pieces from the corpus. Thereby, enabling other researchers to follow the process of the research with ease was aimed.

3.7. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the methodological issues of the current research are introduced in detail. First, the research questions which this study was designed to answer are recalled. Then, the tertiary institutions in which the data were garnered are presented. Following it, the participants of the study are detailed by means of the information related to their teaching background and the courses they teach. Furthermore, the steps of data collection and analysis processes are demonstrated. The chapter is concluded by explaining how the present research ensured validity, reliability, and trustworthiness.

CHAPTER 4

4. FINDINGS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the findings of the data analysis employed to explore the discourse strategies as a part of teacher spoken corpus in EMI in HE programs. The findings emerged from the data coding, based on the Dörnyei and Scott's (1997: p. 188-192) taxonomy adapted for this research, and corpus-based and thematic analysis are reported in three sections in order to answer each research question respectively. First, quantification is presented through frequencies and percentages to find out the most common discursive strategies displayed by seven EMI lecturers. It is followed by the thematic analysis of the uses and functions of each discourse strategy. Finally, the degree to which the DSs exhibited by each lecturer have communicative potential is introduced individually.

4.2. THE MOST COMMON DISCOURSE STRATEGIES

The corpus collected from seven lectures which vary from 81 minutes to 157 minutes comprises 774 minutes in total. The average length of EMI lectures is 110.10 minutes. The transcription of the data includes 85.363 words. The results of the codification reveal that a wide range of discourse strategies related to the lecturers' linguistic repertoire is utilized in the delivery of distinct academic disciplines. In total, 24 strategy types and 6.321 strategy uses were identified in the spoken discourse of the lecturers. The occurrence and frequency of discourse

strategy use differ in each of the lecturers' spoken discourse, yet particularly one of them (i.e., fillers) is favored by almost all of the lecturers. That is why the uses of fillers constitute more than one-third of the DSs identified in the corpus. In Figure 3, the number of discourse strategy uses is represented ranking from the most to the least frequent ones, that is, *use of fillers* (n = 2.654), *self-rephrasing* (n = 646), *code-switching* (n = 602), *repetition* (n = 579), *use of all-purpose words* (n = 460), *retrieval* (n = 324), *repair* (n = 267), *response* (n = 220), *restructuring* (n = 119), *comprehension check* (n = 109), *omission* (n = 70), *approximation* (n = 38), *message abandonment* (n = 37), *asking for repetition* (n = 35), *appeal for help* (n = 32), *asking for clarification* (n = 25), *foreignizing* (n = 22), *circumlocution* (n = 21), *similar-sounding words* (n = 16) *asking for confirmation* (n = 13), *literal translation* (n = 12), *word coinage* (n = 12), *interpretive summary* (n = 4), *own accuracy check* (n = 4).

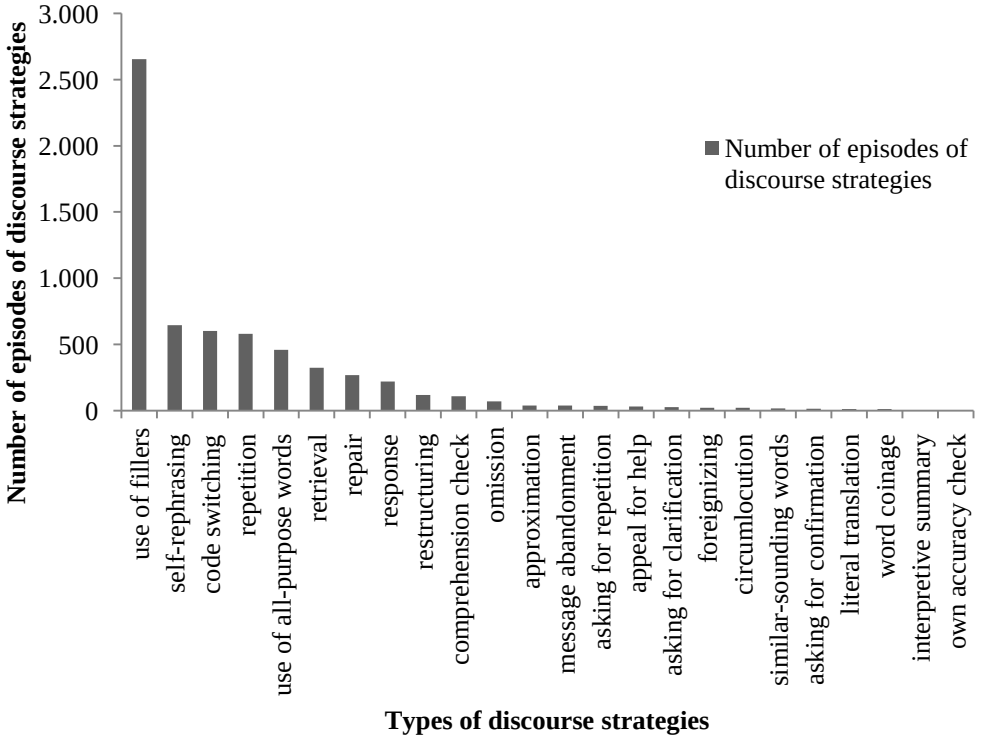

Figure 3. Types and number of discourse strategy use

Since the different strategies require various formulations of language use (i.e., word-level, phrase-level, and clause-level), the number of words to utter the strategies also vary. For this reason, the frequency of each strategy within the corpus is also calculated. As the corpus consists of 85.363 words in sum, the percentages of the DSs are calculated based on the strategy occurrences per 1.000 words (Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 133, 2019: p. 48), which is demonstrated in Table 5. The table is quite revealing in numerous ways. Firstly, it clearly demonstrates that the use of fillers constitutes the highest percent in comparison with the other DSs within the corpus too. Self-rephrasing is ranked as the second strategy in the list below as well. That means these two strategies are of great importance in EMI lectures. What stands out in this table is that code-switching takes place in the sixth line in terms of the frequency per 1.000 words while it is ranked as the third frequent Ds within the DS uses. This reveals that the occurrences of code-switching are prevalent in word or phrase level but sparse in clause-level. In place of code-switching, repetition is the strategy that has the third-highest percent within the corpus, which indicates that repetition is predominantly constructed with clause level utterances. Also, the use of all-purpose words is not listed in the same position. Its rank in Table 5 is far lower than its frequency with respect to the number of occurrences. The underlying reason is that the vast majority of the all-purpose words are exhibited in word-level as the name implies. As for the strategies with the lowest percentages, no major changes were identified. That is to say, the position of such strategies according to their prevalence per 1.000 words and the number of words uttered to display these instances is more or less the same. Finally, it is disclosed that the EMI lecturers in this research form approximately 255 words in every 1.000 words of their spoken discourse to facilitate the communicative environment in the class or to employ alternative linguistic plans to deliver the intended message.

Table 5.

Frequency of discourse strategy types within the corpus

Discourse strategy type	Frequency within the corpus (per 1000 words)
Use of fillers	‰ 64,97
Self-rephrasing	‰ 56,11
Repetition	‰ 28,78
Retrieval	‰ 22,39
Repair	‰ 16,85
Code-switching	‰ 14,93
Restructuring	‰ 9,85
Response	‰ 8,35
Comprehension check	‰ 8,23
Use of all-purpose words	‰ 5,95
Omission	‰ 3,59
Message Abandonment	‰ 3,10
Appeal for help	‰ 2,40
Approximation	‰ 1,51
Circumlocution	‰ 1,51
Asking for clarification	‰ 1,05
Asking for repetition	‰ 1,01
Literal translation	‰ 0,67
Asking for confirmation	‰ 0,57
Interpretive summary	‰ 0,50
Foreignizing	‰ 0,43
Similar-sounding words	‰ 0,41
Own accuracy check	‰ 0,16
Word coinage	‰ 0,14

Total	‰ 254,13

4.3. THE USES AND FUNCTIONS OF THE STRATEGIES USED

In this section, the in-depth analysis of discourse strategy uses and their functions in the EMI lecturers' spoken discourse is discussed with the data extracts from each DS. The scrutiny of how and why the DSs are employed are presented based on the frequency order shown in Figure 3.

4.2.1. Use of Fillers

The use of fillers is the most frequently employed strategy type in the spoken discourse of the lecturers as it is shown in Table 5 and Figure 3. It was observed 2.654 times in the corpus collected, and as the prevalence of the strategy implies, the participants of the research produced 70 words per 1.000 utterances for the use of fillers.

In the current research, e*rr* and *uhm* are not counted as fillers because of Dörnyei and Scott's (1997: p. 185) claim that one of the essential aspects of communication strategies is consciousness as intentionally. Since discourse strategy is operationalized as an intentional attempt in the study presented here and these non-lexicalized pause fillers are not uttered as a result of a conscious decision, they were not coded as an instance of the use of fillers. Therefore, the pieces of speech that were uttered purposely to fill the pauses the in oral performance of the lecturers are taken into account. Such fillers were identified to be constructed in different structures, namely word-level, phrase-level, and clause-level. As for the word-level fillers which comprise the vast majority of this strategy type, *OK* and *well* are the discourse markers used the most to stall for time. *You know* and *I mean* were observed quite often when it comes to phrase-level fillers. The event that one utterance was repeated several times by the same lecturer to avoid undesired pauses

demonstrates that various phrases had become a kind of filler for that speaker. Accordingly, these repetitive phrases were coded as the use of fillers. Since the lecturers have different characteristics of speech, the fillers they displayed vary too. In terms of these long utterances, *how should I say* and *I don't know* were the only fillers displayed frequently. This indicates that pause fillers predominantly occur in short structures.

It should be pointed out that the strategic behavior of one lecturer concerning the filler words is quite dissimilar to the others. As shown in Excerpt 1, T2 transferred the L1 fillers to the target language directly by uttering *nasıl diyeyim*. The excerpt illuminates the function of L1 use which is to recall a certain lexical item in this language practice. When he could not retrieve the word he was seeking, he continued with the reproduction of the already uttered word. The switch to L1 to exhibit the use of fillers was not a one-time instance. In other words, the lecturer showed excessive use of filler words in the native language to name a few *işte* for *you see* and *yani* for *I mean*. By using such words, the lecturer stalled for some time regardless of the language spoken. This reveals that L1 word fillers as well as the ones in English allow speakers to keep the speech ongoing.

Excerpt 1

First example of the use of fillers

49	T2	So, for example, there can be a very interesting, very **nasıl diyeyim** (*how should I say*), very interesting hypothesis or hypotheses more than one.

Regarding the functions of the use of fillers, the strategy offers various goals, among which stalling for time seems to be favored most. That is to say, the lecturers made use of filler words to gain time during the process of the word recognition. As happens in Excerpt 2, *you know* allowed the lecturer to have time to retrieve the particular lexical items or expressions without any undesired pauses. Hence, it is

possible to regard filler words as retrieving devices. The high recurrence of this phrase indicates that it was implemented beyond its literal meaning.

Excerpt 2

Second example of the use of fillers

3	T5	Your level that you are being exposed to, too many **you know like** ideas and concepts, **you know** too much information.

Likewise, in Excerpt 3, the lecturer wanted to make a conclusion based on the previous utterance but needed some time to think about how to form the sentence to reach the conclusion. Therefore, he employed word fillers in both phrase level (i.e., *I don't know*) and word level (i.e., *yeah*) to gain seconds before forming any stretches of language. This indicates that fillers are deemed to be convenient when gathering thoughts as well.

Excerpt 3

Third example of the use of fillers

50	T1	So the the idea that capitalism may not be understood by means of class difference, class struggles, this and that, was already there, was already available, huh, to many scholars of the time. So, **I don't know**, **yeah**, to a certain extent, we may say that well capitalism of early 20th century was not as sort of diverse.

Besides, the fillers offered the goal of signposting the speech and lesson of the lecturers. For instance, the lecturer in Excerpt 4 started the lesson with some announcements. When she completed informing the students related to the flow of that week's lecture, she changed the direction of the speech by introducing the topic of the day. Therefore, it is understood from the language behavior below, the discourse markers (e.g., OK, well, so) serve the purpose of bridging the sequential units of discourse. Not only did the lecturer switch to one section from another

during the lesson but also she guided the students through the use of such pause fillers.

Excerpt 4

Fourth example of the use of fillers

13	T5	Yaşar Hoca said that he didn't finish the survey research design. So I decided to maybe just do a quick review from the beginning and then finish up. **OK. So** from now on, we will be talking about the research designs on qualitative research.

Furthermore, the use of fillers was identified when the lecturers wanted to maintain the communication channel open even when they were not conveying any message at that instance. For example, the lecturer was seeking the definition of cartography in the book in Excerpt 5. While doing so, he exploited filler words to avoid the undesired silence in the class. In this way, he achieved the ongoing attention of the students on himself.

Excerpt 5

Fifth example of the use of fillers

39	T6	What about cartography? What is cartography? Cartography has a quite long definition. (.) **OK**. (.) Yeah (.) I'll read out the long definition first.

As well as the abovementioned uses, it was noticed that fillers (e.g., *yeah, kind of, like*) implies some degree of uncertainty. For example, the lecturer could not recognize the word he was seeking in Excerpt 6. When he realized the trouble, he continued with an alternative lexical item because of not being able to retrieve the target word. This suggests that the target meaning may have been narrowed or

extended through the use of alternative words. With the help of *kind of*, the lecturer implied the shift in the meaning. For this reason, these filler items can be regarded as hesitation discourse markers.

Excerpt 6

Sixth example of the use of fillers

70	T2	So but it means also that there is **a kind of** err react **kind of** resistance dimi from that type of micro level of everyday life.

It was noticed that fillers also indicate the correctness of a piece of information shared by the lecturer. To illustrate, the teacher did not feel certain about the accuracy of the information for a couple of seconds after uttering it in Excerpt 7. That is why she drew on the filler word, *yeah,* while reflecting on whether the exam observers who check the proctors are paid or not. In order to give the sign that the students can depend on the accuracy of the information, she repeated her utterance afterwards.

Excerpt 7

Seventh example of the use of fillers

222	T4	So they checked what the proctors are doing. So that's a good, good example of participant observer. And they get money. They get money. **Yeah, yeah**, they get money.

4.2.2. Self-rephrasing

Self-rephrasing is positioned in the second place concerning the number of occurrences in the corpus with 646 occurrences, and the lecturers rephrased themselves in around 55 of every 1.000 words. It was discovered that the lecturers made use of self-rephrasing strategy through either synonyms (for the world-level occurrences) or changing the structure by using different words (for both phrase and

clause level uses) so as to make the meaning clearer. The analysis of the data reveals that self-rephrasing is a prolific strategy because it was constructed many times with various purposes. To begin with, in most of the cases, it was exhibited to highlight the important points of the content. In Excerpt 8, there was a loud classroom environment. Thus, the lecturer provided a second chance for the ones who could not give their attention in the first place. Besides, it could be argued that the lecturer aimed to make sure that the students reached the target information.

Excerpt 8

First example of the use of self-rephrasing

60	T6	There are many types of maps but we can summarize the types of maps into three categories. You could add. (.) When I say three, you could put fourth, fifth, sixth. **There is no limit**, OK. **But I say three times doesn't mean the only three types exist in the world**, OK. You can maybe ten years time, you can (.) use a map for something else. Fourth reason. Fourth type. Fifth type. **So there is no end**. These are the summary of types of maps. **It's not constrained to three types**, but for the time being, we can summarize it into three categories.

Likewise, self-rephrasing occurred to make the newly introduced key points grasped by the students. In Excerpt 9, the lecturer must have felt that the abstract concept, essentialism, was not understood in the first explanation. Hence, the lecturer restated the definition of essentialism even after uttering a few sentences so that the term could be more comprehensible to the students. In this way, the strategy serves the purpose of giving the students another opportunity to be exposed to the content.

Excerpt 9

Second example of the use of self-rephrasing

4	T1	Let's see. If we explain anything which is related to our, let's say, **contemporary society, OK, on the basis of the way we start to carry out the business of production**, then this would be an essentialist explanation, OK. That's to say, err, if you believe that

		anything that we live in, again, **contemporary societies might be transformed, OK, by means of changing again the mode of production** that we are subject to, again, that would be an essentialist explanation.

It should be pointed out that self-rephrasing was also employed to cater for more time to the students before they were called upon to respond a question. To illustrate, in Excerpt 10, the lecturer paraphrased her question with simpler words when she observed that there was no response. Through self-rephrasing, she provided additional time so that the students could consolidate their ideas and accordingly she could elicit answer.

Excerpt 10

Third example of the use of self-rephrasing

170	T5	What is longitudinal research? Longitudinal. (.) It's still a survey. I'm still doing that survey. Not one time [but
171	S6	different]
172	T5	Yeah, different, different times. **And what would be the goal?** (.) **Why would I do that?** (.) Am I crazy?
173	S6	We want to see the changes over time.

4.2.3. Code-switching

Regarding the frequency of DSs in the corpus, code-switching is listed as the third most commonly used strategy with 602 occurrences. Considering the high recurrence rate of this strategy, it could be assumed that switching to the native language is unavoidably employed by the seven EMI lecturers. However, it should be stressed that 519 of 602 switching codes were produced by solely Prof. Serhat particularly for the use of fillers. This indicates that code changes are an indispensable linguistic pattern of the spoken discourse of this lecturer. For the other instructors, the uses of the strategy differ from 1 to 48 times during the lecture. In

spite of the low-prevalence employment in the other lectures, these uses occurred in assorted scenarios, so they disclose numerous purposes of code-switching.

The types of code-switching in the corpus unfolded provide an overview of the implementation of EMI in these lectures. All three types of code-switching proposed by Poplack (1980: p. 615) (i.e. intra-sentential, extra-sentential and tag switching), but the vast majority of switching from English to Turkish involves tag switching (also known as extra-sentential switching) which is defined as inserting tag statements or fixed expressions from one language to another. The fact that T2 makes use of Turkish fillers to a great extent is the reason of the prevalence of this code-switching type. The rest of the lecturers mostly performed intra-sentential code-switching which occurs when speakers switch to another language at clause, phrase or word level within in the middle of a sentence boundary. The use of inter-sentential code-switching involving a switch at isolated phrasal or sentence boundaries is scant. For this reason, code-switching is formed with approximately 15 utterances per 1.000 words. The types of code-switching uses and their functions are discussed next.

With regard to extra-sentential switching which was exhibited by only T2, it seems that the lecturer had two main motivations to make use of Turkish tag utterances (e.g., *tamam*, *yani*, *nasıl diyeyim*), viz., to fill the pauses in the speech and to compensate lacking L2 item by using all-purpose words. A classroom practice of this usage is given and discussed under the use of fillers, Section 4.2.1.

In terms of the intra-sentential code-switching, numerous main uses were scrutinized. To begin with, the lecturers uttered Turkish phrases while talking about concepts which are distinct in the corresponding culture. An example of this purpose was provided in Excerpt 11 in which the lecturer introduced the educational institutions founded in rural areas in Turkey. So as to clarify the notion of oral history, she provided an example about these institutes. She must have thought that the example could be better grasped, so she employed code-switching. In addition, the aim of drawing the attention of the students was fulfilled through intra-sentential

code-switching. The same lecturer favors calling the students by *arkadaşlar* meaning *guys* before highlighting a point in order to attract their attention.

Excerpt 11

First example of intra-sentential code-switching

275	T5	And also arkadaşlar, it could be oral history as well if you've heard of before, **sözlü tarih** (*oral history*). You just talked to someone from **Köy Enstitüleri mezunu** (*the graduates of village institutes*), right. And you collect data about villages institutes from that person and their experience.

Also, providing the Turkish equivalent of a key term besides the English form is observed through intra-sentential code-switching. In Excerpt 12, the lecturer introduced the topic of map projection. He asked for the Turkish equivalent of this word to check whether the students comprehended the subject. If they hadn't, code-switching allowed them to conceptualize this idea in their mother tongue as well. This shows that intra-sentential code-switching mostly occurs for the sake of comprehensibility.

Excerpt 12

Second example of intra-sentential code-switching

133	T6	I'm protecting my ideas to classroom. That's also called protection. OK. What about in Turkish? What is protection in Turkish? Does anyone know?
133	S1	Yansıtma (*reflection*)
134	T6	Hmm reflection but quite close. What else? You're not far from the truth. But still there is exact definition of projection in Turkish.
135	S6	İzdişüm (*projection*)
136	T6	Exactly. In Turkish it's called **izdüşüm** (*projection*).

Finally, this code-switching type happened to occur only twice as a result of lexical insufficiency. To exemplify, in Excerpt 13, it is eminent that the lecturer had trouble to retrieve the word *reference book* in the target language. In order to avoid communication breakdown stemming from lack of the corresponding L2 word, she found the L1 word a convenient recourse to convey the indented message.

Excerpt 13

Third example of intra-sentential code-switching

290	T4	Are we good? Things are getting complicated, right, as we hear more new research. That's why you should always have, you know like, err, **başucu kitabı** (*reference book*).

As for the inter-sentential code-switching, it is striking that non-instructional conversation in classroom discourse was mostly carried out in the native language. Such conversation entails chats about the arrangement of the length of the break, background noise, the distribution of the material, etc. To exemplify, in Excerpt 14, the lecturer was not sure if he exceeded the duration limit of the lecture; hence, he switched to Turkish to ask the time. Since he addressed the question in the native language, his question was replied back in Turkish as well. When the lecturer was informed that he still had time, he switched back to English right away.

Excerpt 14

First example of the inter-sentential code-switching

94	T2	Yani, and of course, the explanation is according to Jeffrey Alexander because at that time the nationalist Chinese by the existing regime's army and the fighting army of communist, işte, the Maoist army, they were fighting with each other and they couldn't protect. **Saat kaç oldu bu arada** (*What time is it by the way*)?
95	S3	Tam beş (*Five o'clock*).
96	T2	**Tam beş** (*Five o'clock*). They err. **Bizim dersimiz kaçta bitiyor**

		(*What time does our lesson finish*)?
97	Ss	Altıda (*at six*).
98	T2	**Altıda, değil mi?** (*at six, right?*). **Bir an bitti mi acaba diye düşündüm de** (*I thought the lesson was over for a moment*). So they couldn't protect their own population where while they were fighting with each other.

In Excerpt 15, the lecturer noticed that the students lost their attention span through the end of the lecture. In case they missed the piece of information he had just given, he simply translated the whole message. Therefore, the use of native language offered him the goal of gaining the students' focus back to the lesson. As it can be seen in the excerpts below, the switch to the native language was formed at sentence boundary dependently, so inter-sentential code-switching type was also utilized to make the subject more comprehensible similar to intra-sentential type.

Excerpt 15

Second example of the inter-sentential code-switching

290	T1	But this itness is something that you may not reach, that you may not think of, that you might let that you may not even contemplate about it about it. **Üzerine konuşamayacağımız, tahayyül edemeyeceğimiz haliyle deprem, evet orada bir şekil ve düşünce dışındadır. Tamam.** (*The earthquake, as we cannot talk about and think of, is out of shape and thought there. OK.*) OK. So then this is the distinction that they make.

4.2.4. Repetition

Repetition is the other mostly used strategy in the corpus collected since it was exploited 579 times by the lecturers. Additionally, the number of utterances to repeat what was said before reveals that it was constructed in every around 30 of 1.000 words. Its prevalence suggests that repetition is considered as a highly functional strategy. In other words, it serves many purposes. As repetition arises as self-initiated

and other-initiated in a communication, the functions of their uses are presented separately.

Of 579 repetitions, 470 occurrences resulted from the lecturers' reproducing their own utterances. The high frequency of self-repetition is not surprising as teachers are the ones holding the floor for the longest time in university lectures, which means a vast majority of classroom discourse is produced by them. It was noticed that self-repetition was transpired mainly in word or phrase boundary in the current research. Regarding the functions of self-repetition, several prime objectives were found to be achieved. To begin with, the lecturers seem to repeat themselves when they have just introduced factual knowledge of the discipline. By doing so, they made sure that the audience received the target message and followed the lecture. Furthermore, the lecturers tend to make use of self-repetition when their speech is interrupted by the unforeseen events. To illustrate, the lecturer got disturbed when the door was knocked by a latecomer in Excerpt 16. In order to remind the students and himself where they stopped, he repeated his previous sentence before developing the content further.

Excerpt 16

First example of the use self-repetition

140	T3	This collusion is called completely inelastic collusion, **inelastic collusion**, or plastic collusion. OK. **Plastic collusion**. Don't [a student comes in] Yes. (..) OK. **It is called completely inelastic collusion or plastic collusion**. All right.

Moreover, it has been explored that the use of self-repetition benefits the lecturers to silence the students. As it is noticeable in Excerpt 17, the students were discussing their preference in terms of the way the lecture is constructed. However, when the class became too loud for the lecturer to manage, she repeated the discourse marker *all right* three times to give the message that chitchatting among students had become distracting for her.

Excerpt 17

Second example of the use self-repetition

59	T7	Then who wants two parts two hour course with without breaks? **All right. All right. All right**, fine. But let's do like this. Let's do this majority's will. Then if it is not very effective we'll change OK. Tell me when you want to change. OK.

In addition, self-repetition seems to be the lecturers' way of checking their own accuracy. In Excerpt 18, the lecturer did not feel certain about the accuracy of the way she pronounced *Vygotsky*. Thus, she repeated the certain word with different pronunciations in order to identify the proper way. When she opted for the pronunciation as /vɪgɒtskɪ/, she rearticulated the word in same manner to give the sign of accuracy confirmation.

Excerpt 18

Third example of the use self-repetition

59	T4	So when I when I talk about play, I must mention **Vygotsky** [pronounced as /vaɪgɒtskɪ/], right. **Vygotsky** [pronounced as /vɪgɒtskɪ/], **Vygotsky** [the latter pronunciation], **Vygotsky** [the latter pronunciation]. So he's a he's a big, strong supporter of, err, plays.

It is also worth stressing that self-repetition can be regarded as thinking processes of the lecturers. In Excerpt 19, the lecturer gained time to think about the upcoming speech by reproducing a small unit of the discourse, *just*. As it can be understood by the use of *maybe* as gap filler, replaying *just* goes beyond a mere use of repetition. Instead, she uttered it twice to stall for time and to recall a specific lexical item.

Excerpt 19

Fourth example of the use self-repetition

74	T1	One day the young person from the village, he decides to go just after the hill. He sees the there's no monsters. There's **just just** normal maybe other people.

With regard to other-repetition, the functions surfaced were mainly related to two classroom practices, namely teacher echoing which happens when teachers repeat what a student has just uttered (Cullen, 1998: p. 182) and confirmation device. In the former instance, like in Excerpt 20, the lecturer echoed the student response because of the noise in the classroom. By doing so, he allowed the whole class to hear what was said. Also, the lecturer furthered the answer of the student by presenting similar examples, which is a sign that other-repetition was fulfilled to confirm the student response. Therefore, the latter is operated as implicit positive feedback.

Excerpt 20

First example of the use of other-repetition

158	T2	There are also a lot of writers now, not a lot, but err the negate negationists, for example, dimi. Yani the negation of the Holocaust, no it didn't happen. There are a lot of people who are saying that.
159	S3	Holocaust deniers.
160	T2	**Holocaust deniers**. Armenian deniers or whatever. Everybody can find the subject.

In Excerpt 21, the lecturer accepted the student's utterance through other-repetition, which is followed by immediate praise. Accordingly, it can be stated that the positive feedback was explicitly provided as a result of the use of other-repetition. The abovementioned functions suggest that other-repetition can be assumed as the promotion of classroom interaction because it creates the communicative environment.

Excerpt 21

Second example of the use of other-repetition

156	T6	Here as I said before, a cartographer, what was it? Who was a cartographer?
157	S10	Map maker.
158	T6	**Map maker.** Yeah, exactly. Map maker.

4.2.5. Use of All-purpose Words

Using a general lexical item in the case of a specific word lacking is one of the most exhibited strategies. In sum, 460 occurrences of all-purpose words use were recognized in the corpus. Unlike the previously mentioned strategies, the reasons leading the lecturers to use this strategy are centered on two main incidents. First and slightly more common purpose is to compensate for the missing alternative terms to convey similar meanings with the words suited for many cases such as *whatever, this and that, so on,* etc. Excerpt 22 provides an example of this function exhibited both in English and native language of the speaker. In these utterances, the lecturer had already carried the message with two or three words, and utilized an all-purpose word when he could not retrieve further related lexical items.

Excerpt 22

First example of the use of all-purpose words

76	T2	He had he made a lot of documentaries, especially on the oceans, seas, under seas, **falan**, lots of documents documentaries, and he discovered during one of his discoveries or journeys or **whatever**. He discovered that Gibraltar, Cebelitarık Boğazı.

The second usage occurred when the lecturers relied solely on the all-purpose word (e.g., thing, make and do) to deliver the message. For instance, a specific and accurate word was not recalled in Excerpt 23; hence, the lecturer made use of an all-purpose word, and clarified the concept in the following utterance to avoid

ambiguity. In this way, she furthered the flow of communication without any inconvenience. The two motivations for the use of all-purpose words indicate that this strategy predominantly takes place as a consequence of lexical deficiency.

Excerpt 23

Second example of the use of all-purpose words

60	T7	When they left, many political forms that they brought remained there. Because some **things** are irreversible. Of course, independence have been gained but, err, how the society and state were organized remained as Europeans.

4.2.6. Retrieval

The process of retrieving a concept to a spoken word appears as the sixth exhibited strategy with 324 instances and it constitutes more than ‰ 20 of each 1.000 words of the corpus. Two main reasons of retrieval instances seem to exist in the spoken discourse of the participants. Firstly, the lecturers were aware of tackling the retrieval of a certain word, so they utilized the reproduction of the incomplete clause as time-gaining strategy. In Excerpt 24, the lecturer encountered the trouble recalling the word *equation* due to divided attention, and thus he uttered the same incomplete sentence to gain extra seconds in the process of retrieval. Hence, it can be stated that the retrieval occurrences derive from the recognition of L2 item in this instance.

Excerpt 24

First example of the use of retrieval

285	T3	If there's one external force on this system, of course, initial momentum vector equals to final momentum vector. Now **I can write down the (.) I can write down this equation** in scalar form, OK, so I can get two scalar equations.

In addition to word recognition, it is evinced in Excerpt 25 that the use of retrieval was inevitable because of the event that the lecturer had difficulty in gathering words to form the rest of the sentence. To retrieve the clause structure transmitting the intended message, he employed retrieval through the repetition of incomplete utterances.

Excerpt 25

Second example of the use of retrieval

82	T1	But suppose that this party is gone. And another hegemonic is built. Then again, **we we we** turn to a moment of stability in which people again become sort of content with what they have, with what they're exposed to, huh. **The the the true term that (.) that they (.) that they use** the subject positions, and identification or subject to as identification.

Additionally, as Excerpt 26 suggests, the lecturers made use of retrieval to identify the appropriate form of a word. In this classroom practice, he displayed the wrong forms of the specific L2 word to achieve the word recognition. The analysis of such uses acts as a springboard to gain insights into the cognitive process of language speakers as they illuminate the mental steps

Excerpt 26

Third example of the use of retrieval

107	T2	Today it has become a kind of religious, **sacred sacre kind of sacred thing, kind of sacrificing** all these soldiers, belief in God.

4.2.7. Repair

Repair was applied 267 times in the total corpus, and positioned as the sixth most frequent strategy employed. Just like repetition, repair instances stem from the lecturers' own discourse and students' utterances. However, it is noteworthy that more than 98% of the occurrences are recognized under self-repair.

Self-repair strategy performances reveal that the lecturers tend to correct the errors related to the accuracy of the form, vocabulary choice, pronunciation and content of their spoken language an example of which is respectively provided below. In Excerpt 27, the lecturer explicitly repaired his utterance when he noticed that he retrieved the wrong lexical item by saying *sorry*. This suggests that the initial word does not convey the message he indented to deliver. Self-repair was therefore inevitable in this instance.

Excerpt 27

First example of the use of self-repair

11	T1	That's to say they are in the final analysis say that political identities are sort of **more radical, sorry, are more precarious** than they are usually taught by the Althusserians for instance. OK.

A similar situation occurred in the classroom practice in Excerpt 28. The lecturer was about to provide an incorrect piece of information related to the content without a conscious decision. He immediately corrected himself by abandoning the incorrect word. Such instances are indicators of the fact that self-repair occurrences regarding the wrong wording and content information were constructed with the utterances of *sorry* and *no* in order to express the mistake made. This is because such errors can alter the target message.

Excerpt 28

Second example of the use of self-repair

202	T3	This equals one point b one final plus two point b two final. Now, right now I have one equation two unknowns. What is the second one? Because this is an **inelas, no, elastic elastic** collusion. That's why initial kinetic equals final kinetic.

When it comes to errors in terms of the form and pronunciation, the lecturers corrected their utterances without the need of an apology because the message was conveyed in either way. In Excerpt 29, the lecturer made a mistake in the use of singularity of the noun. Immediately after the utterance, he repaired the form.

Excerpt 29

Third example of the use of self-repair

109	T6	But if you do it, it will show your (..) degree of curiosity. I will see how curious you are. If we if nobody answers **that questions question,** next week, then I will lose hope for this class. Do you want me to lose my hope

Concerning pronunciation, the lecturer in the excerpt below was under the influence of L1 phonology at first because –th sound does not exist in Turkish. Yet, he repeated the word with proper L2 pronunciation to exhibit self-repair. However, it is worth noting that there have been many errors related to linguistic forms and pronunciation in English in the corpus collected but only small number of them were repaired. This suggests that the language was just a vehicle in these EMI courses rather than a focus.

Excerpt 30

Fourth example of the use of self-repair

293	T3	Now, the other one is moving to the **north** [pronounced as /nɔːrt/] **north** [pronounced as /nɔːrθ/] before the collusion. That is
294	S1	20
295	T3	20 meters per second.

Other-repair episodes were employed five times only in the lecture of one participant, which supports once again that teaching the language is not the focus of attention in EMI implementation. Corrections initiated by the students' response

were provided as a recast by implicitly reformulating the student's utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: p. 46). Similar to self-repair, the lecturer made corrections related to mainly wording and pronunciation. As it can be understood from Excerpt 31, the student uttered a similar-sounding word which does not convey a similar meaning to the target word, thus, the lecturer felt the necessity of employing other-repair strategy.

Excerpt 31

First example of the use of other-repair

195	T7	So you are started to collect taxes and you eliminate the local authorities. How to collect taxes then? (..) So at this point, in order to rule efficiently, you need (..)
196	S2	**Treasure**?
197	T7	Yes including **treasury**, you need larger term. I'm looking for (.)
198	S4	An economy
199	T7	Economy, great. So the according to Whether, of course, mostly the core, the backbone of the modern state apparatus is democracy.

Concerning Excerpt 32, the event that the lecturer repeated the student answer hints that the information the student provided was correct in terms of accuracy. Nevertheless, while reproducing the response, the lecturer altered the pronunciation, which can be seen as an episode of other-repair. Yet, it should be noted that the actual reason leading the lecturer to this linguistic behavior is not discernible. Besides corrective feedback, another logical reason could be teacher echoing, which suggests that it was an unconscious classroom discourse practice rather an intentional strategic performance.

Excerpt 32

First example of the use of other-repair

60	T7	This will be that what will define the modern state. This is the

		difference err with empires. And the thing that empires (?) [to
61	S5	Conquer] [pronounced as /koŋku:ər/]
62	T7	**Conquer** [pronounced as /kɒŋkər/] of course, so there is this war.

4.2.8. Response

Responding the students' utterances as a communication strategy was displayed 220 times in the data collected. The instances of this strategy provide an understanding of to what degree the class is communicative, yet it should be noted that the lectures audio-recorded involved more turn-taking activities than the occurrences coded under this strategy. This is due to the fact that such activities are examined under other strategies (e.g., asking for clarification, appeal for help). In this section, the responses including confirming, rejecting and expanding are analyzed respectively based on their frequency.

To express the appropriateness of the student response, explicit positive feedback was primarily offered with the help of *definitely*, *exactly*, *yeah*, etc. As another way of confirmation, the lecturers echoed the utterances of the students with rising intonation pattern, which is also presented in 4.1.2.4. Besides, it was noticed that the lecturers demonstrated different degrees of acceptance of the student's statement in terms of the accuracy of the information given as it is shown in the following excerpt. The lecturer did not reject the answer directly, nor did he confirm it fully. Hence, it can be stated that partial confirmation was the case in some instances of response-confirm.

Excerpt 33

Example of the use of response-confirm

60	T1	The very being of objects is always social is always. And we, the miserable, let's say, how should I say, individuals may already experience the being of objects. It's not the existence of objects, [huh.
61	S8	So] we return into the cave of the Plato. That sounds OK. The

		reality exists but out there we just have interpreted explanations according to our dis, discourse, right?
62	T1	**In a sense, yes. But I mean**, if you, how should I say, remain on the planet of Plato, then it's rather easy, huh, to get rid of these shadows.

Rejecting the previous utterance of the students was employed in a similar way to the strategy of response-confirm excluding repeating what the student has just said. That is, the uses of response-reject were shown through explicit negative feedback. 34 references of response-reject were recognized in the corpus delved into, which shows that the times where the lecturers refused the accuracy of student answer are much fewer than the instances of confirmation. This may stem from the fact that the students particularly in undergraduate courses tend to avoid participating because they find speaking English intimidating. Consequently, they mostly presented the ideas, the accuracy of which they were sure about. Another plausible explanation is that the lecturers confirmed the student responses partially rather than directly refusing, which is discussed above. Besides, the episodes vary in terms of the level of rejection. For example, based on the feedback the lecturer provided in the 60th and 62nd turns in Excerpt 34, it can be deduced that the acceptability level of S5's and S10's responses differ.

Excerpt 34

Example of the use of response-reject

158	T6	Cartographer is map maker, map drawer, map maker. OK. Besides which map projection to use? Depending on what? You can do (.)
159	S5	What we need like scale
160	T6	**Not scale**. Depending what on what is required, what is required.
161	S10	Location
162	T6	**No no no**. Depending on who is paying for the map. And he wants I want all the distances equal, OK.

As well as rejection and confirmation, the lecturers made use of expanding their utterances based on the responses of the students, yet the number of this other-initiated strategy' occurrences is relatively small (i.e., 13). To exemplify, the lecturer in Excerpt 35 asked the contributions of Roman Empire, but she did not specify what it contributed to, and accordingly communication gap occurred. Hence, she put the issue into a wider context by elaborating on what she meant in the first place. Also, this strategy may have taken place as a consequence of lacking of a lexical item in the students' repertoire, which resulted in misunderstanding about what they were supposed to reflect on. Consequently, the lecturer felt the need to expand her previous question.

Excerpt 35

Example of the use response-expand

114	T7	So let's start with the empire. The Roman empire. What did the Roman Empire in err Europe in European peninsula was. What the Roman Empire contributed to?
115	S1	They rule the world.
116	T7	I'm not talking about that**, the original Roman empire, what did do in the of course, not very generally, but in sense of states?**
117	S1	They started modern states.
118	T7	Exactly. Exactly.

4.2.9. Restructuring

The quantification data analysis yields that modifying the structure of the intended message occurred 119 times in the corpus at hand, which indicates that the strategy constitutes approximately 10 words in each 1.000 utterances. Similar to retrieval, this strategy offers as an indicator of the speakers' thought translations for the reason that it is mostly held as a consequence of a change of mind. The episodes of restructuring use in the present corpus demonstrate that the modification results from a conscious decision by the lecturers. In Excerpt 36, the lecturer prominently

faced obstacles to the retrieval of a word or phrase that she can deliver the message through. Thus, she displayed the use of filler to gain time for her thinking process. When she noticed that she would not compensate for the linguistic trouble in her discourse, she abandoned the initial linguistic pattern to design an alternative plan by restructuring the sentence.

Excerpt 36

First example of the use of restructuring

275	T5	You can be a positivist and you can be a qualitative researcher, which means you have a very systematic way of designing your research. **You have a very, you know like, you can use** numbers to describe your particular, you know like, phenomena.

Another reason of leaving the initial structure out is seen in the instances where the lecturers changed the subject of the clause with a different pronoun. The abandoned pronouns are observed mostly to be *I, we* and *it*, which is exemplified in Excerpt 37. The prevalence of such pronouns in the classroom discourse of the lecturer suggests that she might have uttered one of them unconsciously as a result of automatization, and on the go she became aware of the fact that it did not fulfill the meaning she planned to establish. Accordingly, she benefited from the restructuring strategy through the modification of the utterances.

Excerpt 37

Second example of the use of restructuring

192	T7	But because of the old situation and because of this normative thinking that he wants to bring to the society, but because **we have he has** a concern about the aristocracy.

Besides the abandonment of the initial linguistic structure, it was observed that the lecturers adjusted their utterances by adding extra meaning nuances. In this plan,

the previous structure is reproduced through the minimal modifications, which performs varied functions. Among them, elaboration on the original message seems to be the most favored one in the discourse of the participants. As shown in Excerpt 38, the instructor made an already uttered message more explicit by way of reorganizing the statement. By doing so, he intended to avoid ambiguity and foster student comprehension.

Excerpt 38

Third example of the use of restructuring

62	T1	Well, for Laclau and Mouffe, OK, there will always be a mismatch between thought and reality simply because **these are these two are** made of different substances and they have different histories, huh. You see what I mean?

Furthermore, minor changes meet the objective of providing further information to enhance the delivery of the message. In the excerpt below, the lecturer changed the way he formed the sentence with the help of a conjunction since he aimed to provide reason and result relationship so that the notions of fixity and non-fixity can be internalized in a better way.

Excerpt 39

Fourth example of the use of restructuring

84	T2	That's to say without a relative fixity, meaning may not take place, but **it as soon as it takes place**, it sort of (.) implies other meanings so that it becomes something non-fixed.

4.2.10. Comprehension Check

Comprehension check can be regarded as a common strategy with 109 references, and it was employed by all of the participants in the various parts of the lecture. However, more than half of the occurrences took place in engineering courses. The primary motivation to utilize this strategy through questions is to

confirm the students had grasped the subject. It was also noticed that the lecturers got benefit from comprehension check uses to verify that the students were following the oral performance of the lecturer particularly in the crowded undergraduate courses.

An interesting piece of data concerned comprehension check is that these strategic performances seem to recur in three different uses. The most prevalent one is basically addressing a question as it is displayed in Excerpt 40. The lecturer addressed the questions that the students had already known the answers. The questions were formed to review the previous topic and enhance comprehension. However, it is worth noting that in some cases the lecturers formed questions without the expectation of a student response. In other words, they gave the answer immediately after the question. This implies that these questions are utilized as signposting; hence these instances were not coded as comprehension check.

Excerpt 40

First example of the use of comprehension check

174	T5	So that's a longitudinal study that more than one time at a point that I collect data, OK. Then here we have (..) trend study, cohort study. **What was the other one**?
175	Ss	Panel
176	T5	**What are those?** Let's talk about trend first of all. **What is trend study**?
177	S11	In the classroom we give the example of a shopping mall and the researchers is applying the questionnaire for that but the members can change.
178	T5	Very good. But the shopping mall is the same shopping mall.

The second way of checking comprehension is performed with the help of *right* and *OK* with rising intonation. Providing wait-time after the use of this utterance to elicit answers in Excerpt 41 indicates that the lecturer performed this linguistic behavior not as gap filler but comprehension check.

Excerpt 41

Second example of the use of comprehension check

142	T3	The heavier car is just moving to the right. Let's say V1 initial, what is. No, no, no, no, no. This is not heavier. The lighter one. OK. So V1 initial is twenty meters per second, **right**?
143	S1	Yes.
144	T3	**Am I right**?
145	Ss	Yes.
146	T3	OK. M1 is 900 kilograms. And there's a traffic light here.

The last but not the least way to check understanding is through designedly incomplete utterances with rising intonation. Excerpt 42 involves an example of this use. The lecturer started the sentence but kept it unfinished as he expected the clause to be completed by the students. In this manner, incomplete turn-constructional component was fulfilled as the purpose of comprehension check. Elicitation of the answer shows that the lecturer achieved his main goal behind the use of designedly incomplete utterances.

Excerpt 42

Third example of the use of comprehension check

136	T6	So (..) there are (.) some facts about projections. There is distortions. Every map projection distorts at least three or sometimes four properties. **Distort means …** (.)
137	S4	Deformation
138	T6	Deformation, yes, leaving from the true self.

4.2.11. Omission

Leaving the sentence or a gap incomplete and carrying on is the eleventh strategy employed in the lectures of the participants. Even though the sentence fails

to be finished when this strategy occurs, message is successfully transferred to the recipient. The recurrences of omission coded in the data gathered reveal that there are various circumstances where the lecturers find this strategy necessary. Of them, lexical insufficiency seems to be the major cause. To exemplify, the lecturer decided on not completing the sentence when being aware of having difficulty to explain the concept with a single word or phrase in Except 43. That is why he left the sentence unfinished and continued with a different alternative plan. However, it should be pointed out that the lecturer did not indeed abandon the message at all but just started over to pass it on the students better as the rest of the excerpt suggests.

Excerpt 43

First example of the use of omission

78	T5	In a research study, **deception refers to.** Deception. So sometimes when you do particularly experimental research, we tell or not tell (.) the purpose of the research in order not to impact their feelings, their ideas, their opinions, right. To convey the true nature of research study participants have consented, we sometimes use deception in the research. So that's deception.

The oral performance of the instructor in Excerpt 44 provides a similar context of situation, but this time the meaning had already been conveyed before the event of omission. That is to say, when more examples related to the subject could not come to her mind, she assumed that enumerating all possible cases was not needed to comprehend the meaning and left the sentence unfinished.

Excerpt 44

Second example of the use of omission

136	T7	We will talk about this a little bit, capitalism in the modern states. The ruler needs this because the ruler does not take its authority from its military force **and the ruler doesn't take its authority from god or from err**.

Apart from lexis, the context of the situation led the lecturers to employ omission. In other words, although the message is not explicitly uttered, the setting

allows the audience to understand the rest of the sentence. As Excerpt 45 illustrates, the lecturer was seeking to find the material on the classroom computer. When she thought about the possibility of keeping the material on a different platform, she abandoned the utterance without finishing it. The context of the classroom practice indicates that, despite any linguistic reference to it, the lecturer meant *personal computer*.

Excerpt 45

Third example of the use of omission

131	T4	Since we were going to start talking about action research, I wanted to show a simple article about action research. Ops not here. Where is it? **Is it on my personal?** No, please don't be, please. (.) Maybe. No here. Here you go. Ethnographic, action research.

4.2.12. Approximation

Approximation was identified 38 times in sum in the data gathered. It was employed by all the participants with minimum three and maximum nine occurrences. When the lecturer encountered challenges related to the retrieval of lexis while disseminating information, they relied on alternative vocabulary items to compensate the gap. Such alternative plans entail words which have similar semantic features to the non-retrievable target term. To exemplify, the lecturer uttered *shrink* to convey the message that the Roman Empire lost territories in Excerpt 46. The oral performance of the lecturer suggests that the use of approximation in this instance stems from priming. In other words, the use of *expand* provoked the utterance of *shrink* as they are used as antonyms in many contexts but not for the meaning of acquiring and losing territories. In addition to non-retrieval, this strategy may take place when the target vocabulary does not exist in linguistic repertoire of the speakers. Narrowing or broadening the meaning through approximation has not been identified in the corpus of the present research.

Excerpt 46

First example of the use of approximation

60	T7	For example, the Roman Empire changed all the time. Have you seen these maps that shows how Roman Empire expanded and then how it **shrinked**? (*lost its territories*)

It is striking that the approximation strategy was predominantly displayed as a replacement for one part of speech, namely verbs. The possible speculation is that the lecturers make use of other strategies (i.e., all purpose words, circumlocution) in the event that they could not recall a precise noun or adjective, and approximation is more appropriate in terms of the retrieval of verbal lexical items. Besides, some lecturers attributed a human characteristic to something non-human by employing this strategy. Excerpt 47 is an illuminating description of this classroom practice.

Excerpt 47

Second example of the use of approximation

56	T5	I mean it is you're right. I agree. But still, it's kind of obvious that we're talking about the environment. And since **the question talks about** (*the question states*) sitting in lecture and cluster, you know like it is kind of obvious.

4.2.13. Message Abandonment

Message abandonment is positioned as the thirteenth strategy in terms of frequency within the corpus collected with 37 occurrences. This strategy resembles omission in terms of leaving the sentence unfinished. However, it is worth noting that message abandonment involves instances where the lecturers left not only the utterance but also the intended message incomplete. Besides, the message was dropped permanently and thus delivering of the target message is not achieved as a result of several grounds. Firstly, message abandonment took place when the lecturers got disrupted largely by the students, which is exemplified in Excerpt 48. The lecturer could not complete the sentence as a student came late to the class, and

she felt the urge to warn the students about absenteeism. Thus, she could not convey what the kings were breaking.

Excerpt 48

First example of the use of message abandonment

49	T7	We may say, of course, in reality it was not acting like this, that the kings were fighting against the decisions of pope. **Sometimes they were kidnapping the popes and breaking the.** Yes. [a student comes]. If you come later than 08:20, come in silently. Don't knock the door.

What interrupted the lecturer's oral performance was also related to their own behaviors. Excerpt 49 illustrates that the lecturer planned to provide examples, yet being phoned caused him to abandon the message. Such instances reveal that message abandonment primarily happens as a forced event rather than a volunteer strategy to enhance communication, which is another distinction between omission and message abandonment.

Excerpt 49

Second example of the use of message abandonment

86	T6	It's is that rule of thumb. It can change. It can vary in different countries. It can change ins institutions. **There is no definite boundaries for scale amounts like.** [His phone rings]. Ops sorry. But general consideration says that one over 70 thousand and bigger than that amount is considered large scale.

Furthermore, there are episodes where the motivation behind the message abandonment is not clearly recognizable trough the language behavior. For instance, it is not eminent why the lecturer left his utterance unfinished while explaining the significance of interviews in that discipline in the excerpt below. Nevertheless, it can be inferred that language-related difficulties such as lexical retrieval may be the

underlying cause to drop the message. Or, the lecturer may have assumed that it had already been emphasized that the interviews were required without providing an explanation.

Excerpt 50

Third example of the use of message abandonment

177	S8	I have a question. Do I have to interview people?
178	T1	Yes. Yani try to interview, to try to bring the, err, discourses, the languages of other people. **Then how we will.** Let's try to handle, let's try to interview other people.

4.2.14. Asking for Repetition

Requests for repetition were employed 35 times by five lecturers out of seven participated in the current research. This strategy occurred when the lecturers were not able to hear or understand the students' utterance properly due to background noise or speaking in low voice. Therefore, asking for repetition serves the purpose of clarification of what they heard. To achieve this goal, they utilized the strategy in three main ways: (i) open class initiators, (ii) partial repetition (iii) partial repetition with wh- interrogatives. Open class initiators entail words such *huh*, *pardon*, *sorry*, etc., and they are in fact utilized to initiate repair (Drew, 1977: p. 73). However, they were solely uttered for the aim of requests for repetition as shown in the 47th line of the example below. As the classroom practice in Excerpt 51 indicates, suchlike initiators did not specify which part of the utterance the lecturer could not hear. Therefore, it resulted in repetition or paraphrase of the whole utterance by the student.

Excerpt 51

First example of the use of asking for repetition

45	T6	Why do we need maps? Anything else? [one student raises hand] Yes.

46	S5	For specific information
47	T6	**Sorry?**
48	S5	As I say, for the information for the specific area.
49	T6	Yeah and I think you said the same. Yeah. Right. Anything else? (…) Those you said and more. There are many more reasons.
50	S6	Maybe find he treasure.
51	T6	**Find?**
52	S6	Treasure.
53	T6	Treasure. Yeah. Why not? (..) Actually, life is a treasure. If you find if you want to find the life, you need a map.

On the contrary, partial repetition with rising intonation implies the exact lexical item needed for repetition, thus the speaker reproduced the corresponding word only as the turn-taking in the T6-S6 conversation in the excerpt above illustrates. Likewise, partial repetition with wh- questions shows overt signs of the point which is requested to be repeated. Besides, wh- interrogatives make it evident that a request for repetition is addressed to the speaker. That is why the use in Excerpt 52 can be regarded as the strongest initiator. Accordingly, the lecturer received what he specifically requested to hear once more.

Excerpt 52

Second example of the use of asking for repetition

124	S7	Hocam I think even today (.) but being few examination (.) as Durkheim says to be the emotions of Holocaust. Few examination (.) that any question about (.) Holocaust Durkheim do any research [about
125	T1	**Any] what any?**
126	S7	Research about Holocaust.

4.2.15. Appeal for Help

Request for the interlocutor's assistance when speakers encounter difficulties in filling the gap in conversation is placed as the fifteenth frequently used strategy in general. It seems that the main and sole function of appeal for help is to avoid the communication breakdown cooperatively. In the case that the recipient provided help, the message was able to be delivered. It was observed that the lecturers asked for aid when they could not retrieve a piece of information related to the subject or a lexical item in the target language. The use of this strategy stemming from lexical insufficiency is slightly less compared to the former. In terms of the way the aid is requested, two types of appeal for help seem to take place in the spoken discourse of the lecturers, that is, direct appeal and indirect appeal.

Direct appeal for help occurred 15 times by way of an explicit question and presenting turn taking to the students regarding a gap in the conversation. It is worth mentioning that most of these instances occurred in order to compensate lexical insufficiencies while disseminating knowledge, which is illustrated in Excerpt 53. As a response of this appeal, the students took turn and helped the achievement of the communication purpose of the lecturer in all the cases.

Excerpt 53

Example of the use of direct appeal for help

74	T1	I explained to my village that they are fighting. But they are at the end, they are peaceful. I don't know what is what is güreş. (.) **Güreş neydi ya?**
75	Ss	Wrestling
76	T1	Wrestling as I don't know what does it mean wrestling. I think that they are fighting.

As the name suggests, when speakers make use of indirect appeal for help, the assistance is requested implicitly. In the data collected, the lecturers exploited this

type of the strategy 17 times through expressing a lack of information or lexical item verbally. Conveying the message was achieved when the students understood the signs of the trouble and took turn if the information needed was available in their repertoire as shown in Excerpt 53. On the other hand, Excerpt 54 shows that there were times when the lecturers did not receive any help, as a result, carried on their speech.

Excerpt 54

First example of the use of indirect appeal for help

92	T2	Japanese during the Japanese invasion, işte around the second world war, the Japanese army massacred **maybe (…) forgive me for my for my for my weakness of numbers but something [like**
93	S9	Eighteen] thousand or twenty thousand I guess.
94	T2	Yeah Thousands of ten thousands of people were killed, raped or whatever in a very atrocious situations.

Or, the occurrence of indirect appeal was followed by direct appeal when the piece of information was salient feature of the subject. To exemplify, Excerpt 55 is given as an example for direct appeal for help indeed involves both types of assistance request because the equivalence of the target vocabulary in English was not provided by the students in the first attempt of the lecturer; hence he felt the necessity of an explicit question.

Excerpt 55

Second example of the use of indirect appeal for help

290	T5	There was this book I mentioned it to you, I guess, *Salsa Dancing* [a book title] Do you remember? (..) No? (.) Maybe I'll bring it during the break. So **I don't remember err (.) the name of the the writer of that book**. (.) So she's you know like a very experienced and advance level of a researcher, particularly in qualitative research.

4.2.16. Asking for Clarification

Requests for further information are positioned as the 16th strategy in accordance with the table displaying the frequency of the DSs. 26 occurrences were recognized in the seven lectures. Asking for clarification is sought when the lecturers did not find the response of the students transparent enough in respect of content, and hence they requested for additional explanation in two ways. The most pervasive way to employ this discursive strategy seems to ask *what do you mean.* As Excerpt 56 shows, the student clarified what he meant as a response to the request of the lecturer. By doing so, the lecturer avoided the potential breakdown in the corresponding spoken discourse.

Excerpt 56

First example of the use of asking for clarification

37	T6	For you to be a map (.), it's got to be drawn on a paper or (.) nowadays on a screen, computers screen, OK. Yeah.
38	S5	but the personal in the err museum said it can be map in the drawn in the applications
39	T6	**What do you mean?**
40	S5	Verbal maps
41	T6	No it's not a map. It is explanatory information. Not map.

Besides, in Excerpt 57, the lecturer displayed clarification request through wh-interrogative words with partial repetition. That is to say, these words were fulfilled as an expression of the need for further explanation. They permitted the lecturers to provide in which sense she requested clarification. Among the other uses, this way of the strategy use seems to be stronger than the former one in terms of the compensation of the communication gap because it allows the interlocutor a to-the-point answer without further ado.

Excerpt 57

Second example of the use of asking for clarification

168	T7	And why the kings were not err able to unite other prince hood under their own (..) authority and cons and construct err powerful states. So there are very concrete tools, elements that they were lucky. I told you this about the Game of thrones.
169	S1	They love power.
170	T7	**In what which sense? They love power why?**
171	S1	In order to have power from err like this neighbor states, they protect them.
172	T7	Yes and most importantly you don't have your own standing army.

4.2.17. Foreignizing

Foreignizing by which speakers of a second language exploit L1 phonology or morphology to utter an L2 word (Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 182) occurred 22 times in total the current research. Of seven, four lecturers exhibited foreignizing in their oral performance. All the instances identified stem from the adjustment of L2 lexical item to L1 phonology, but morphology alteration was not displayed by any participants. The instances hint that the lecturers are influenced by their native language particularly when they use cognates which are similar words in terms of spelling and meaning across languages. For example, the word *dinosaur* exists in Turkish language too, yet the spelling and pronunciation vary slightly. Due to transfer effect, the lecturer in Excerpt 58 had erroneous pronunciation.

Excerpt 58

First example of the use of foreignizing

74	T2	We were afraid of death. **Dinosaurs** [pronounced as /dɪnɒzɔːrs/] were extinct, and it can be the same thing for us.

A remarkable finding that is worth noting that cross language phonological transfer occurred not only in phonetic level but also in morphemic level in the data gathered. That is to say, L2 pronunciation of a word is interfered by L1 sound patterns not completely but partially. As happens in Excerpt 59, the first syllable of *hypotheses* is pronounced correctly, yet the pronunciation of the second syllable is transferred from the native language because *thesis* is articulated as /tez/ in Turkish.

Excerpt 59

Second example of the use of foreignizing

76	T1	So of course, this autonomization bring a lot of other states, other **hypotheses** [pronounced as /haɪpɒtezɪs/], other theories.

4.2.18. Circumlocution

Making use of describing the properties of an item or a concept is positioned as one of the least used strategies in the oral discourse of the lecturers with 21 instances. The episodes labeled as circumlocution suggest that there is one main use of circumlocution. That is, the lecturers exhibited this strategy when a specific term was not recalled. To illustrate, the name of video camera type that the lecturer intended to mention did not come to his mind in Excerpt 60, hence he requested the assistance of the students. However, the help the student provided did not correspond to the answer he was seeking. In this circumstance, he had no choice but to describe the camera in detail in order to prevent the breakdown in communication.

Excerpt 60

Example of the use of circumlocution

71	T3	If you can get some information, for example, using the very very (…) what kind of (..) video cam? (…)
72	S7	Slow motion
73	T3	No, no, it's not it's not slow motion camera. **So the this camera is very high tech camera, OK, so you can just (..) just see the slow**

		motion. OK. And then you can just measure the time of interaction between the ball and the club.

4.2.19. Use of Similar-sounding Words

Compensating for a lexical item which is not available to the speaker at that moment with a similar-sounding L2 item is not utilized prevalently in the spoken discourse of the participants. It constitutes only 0,41 of every 1.000 words in the corpus. Despite its scarcity, the strategy provides signs about the lecturers' mental process of phonological encoding.

It was observed that this strategy occurred through minimal pairs (e.g., *sit* and *shit; spatial* and *special*), alternative and target words sharing the same initial or final syllable (e.g., *explanation* and *exception*; *conflicted* and *confused*), pairs of words that rhyme (e.g., *meeting* and *meaning*), words related phonologically and semantically (e.g., *description* and *definition*). In the circumstances of auditory word recognition, the lecturers tend to repair their utterance if the similar-sounding word does not convey the intended message. To exemplify, the lecturer first retrieved the word *special* due to its similar phonetics to *spatial*, which was followed by the retrieval of the intended item immediately afterwards.

Excerpt 61

First example of the use of similar-sounding words

55	T6	I'll give you only four reasons. But you can go up to find twenty hundred reasons because storage of geographic information in a **special spatial**, usually two dimensional format which is quite important.

On the other hand, *description* is not only phonologically but also semantically similar to *definition*. Therefore, the lecturer did not deem it necessary to exhibit self-repair in Excerpt 62. Instead, she kept using the same word in the further stages of the lecture, which implies that she did not mind using *description* on behalf of

definition since she was able to convey the target message yet with a slight shift in the meaning.

Excerpt 62

Second example of the use of similar-sounding words

55	T7	Then I will continue I will just elaborate the features of the modern state that comes up from **description** in order for you to be able to keep these in your mind. Then I'll finish. OK.

4.2.20. Asking for Confirmation

Asking for confirmation is one of the strategies whose recurrence rate is not high in the corpus. 13 episodes employed by three lecturers were recognized in total. By employing this strategy, the participants aimed to seek verification from the students that the student utterance was heard correctly. Also, considering the notion that most of the EMI students do not have sufficient command of English language (see Section 2.4.3.1. for further detail), the uses of confirmation request stemmed from the fact that the students faced difficulties to express themselves. To illustrate, the class was answering the midterm questions in Excerpt 63, and two of the students explained the underlying reason for their misinterpretation of the question. Before providing a response to their question, the lecturer first wanted to make sure that she understood the trouble they experienced. Therefore, she sought a confirmation from the students.

Excerpt 63

Example of the use of asking for confirmation

38	S5	I actually understood this, but I mean it's just the classroom environment represent. I thought classroom environment is something else.
39	S6	Yeah me too.
40	S5	So independent variable is like sitting shape.
41	T5	OK, let's see. **Ah you're saying it's because of the way question**

		asked?
42	S5	Yes
43	T5	And you got a little bit confused but arkadaşlar it wasn't really talking about the classroom environment.

4.2.21. Literal Translation

Even though literal translation was exploited by the majority of EMI lecturers who constitute the participants of the current research, this discursive strategy was found to be rare in the spoken discourse of the EMI lecturers with 12 occurrences. These occurrences entail word for word translation from L1 which is not formed in that way in L2. Hence, it can be regarded as semantic foreignizing.

As a result of employing this DS, the lecturers transferred L1 language patterns directly to the second language performance. The analysis of the instances reveals that L1 interference becomes a matter of factor semantically as well as phonologically. The observable language practice in Excerpt 64 does not discern the underlying reason for the use of literal translation. However, the probable ground seems to be that the lecturer either encountered dearth of correct language structure to express herself or could not recognize how to convey the meaning of *bring something forward* in the target language at that instant. Hence, she found the use of literal translation a convenient resource to evade the communication breakdown.

Excerpt 64

First example of the use of literal translation

13	T4	December 11th, if you remember, the first draft of the research proposal was due and we got there. But I, you know like, I **moved that a little bit front** (*bring the deadline forward*) because I want you to get feedback as soon as possible for your proposal so that we will talk about your proposals.

As happens in Excerpt 65, the L1 transfer took place in word level too. The word *note* also corresponds to *grade* in Turkish language, yet its English equivalent does not cover this meaning. Thus, literal translation was followed by self-repair use in this particular classroom discourse.

Excerpt 65

Second example of the use of literal translation

13	T6	You already delivered the assignment last week. I already graded them, but there is a still chance to upgrade your **notes** (*grades*), your grades.

4.2.22. Word Coinage

Creating a new L2 word by applying an L2 word formation rule to an existing word was recognized 12 times in the spoken discourse of the lecturers. The main of word coinage seems to be a compensatory strategy when the correct form of the L2 lexical item is not retrieved, so an existing language pattern is applied. The instances coded under this category hint that lecturers exhibited this strategy either deliberately or accidentally. The lecturer's oral performance below reveals that he encountered difficulty in the retrieval of *directly* by displaying incomplete and wrong forms. He resorted to the word formation process of *specifically* (i.e., specific and specifically). The hesitation and pause after the use of word coinage implies that it was an unintentional word formation process.

Excerpt 66

First example of the use of word coinage

115	T1	What I (.) what we are what I am trying to emphasize is (.) this is not a free-floating words of emotions, tactics or whatever. We are direct **directically** (.) related to more source of power common in relation of power.

On the other hand, the lecturer in the following excerpt did not show any audible hesitation in the utterance of *changement*. Since –ment is a common suffix for the noun formation of a verb, the lecturer may have assumed that the same noun formation pattern was applicable to *change*. Therefore, it can be deduced that the utterance of *changement* is a result of a deliberate use of word coinage. Still in both cases (i.e., deliberate or accidental), such coinages allowed the speaker to achieve the communicative purpose of the immediate environment.

Excerpt 67

Second example of the use of word coinage

126	T7	So **changement** in the power occurs mostly (..) when a conqueror comes back from a victorious war, Caesar' case.

4.2.23. Interpretive Summary

Four instances of interpretive summary were recognized in the data gathered during EMI lectures, which indicates that extended paraphrase of the student utterance is sparse in the spoken discourse of the seven EMI lecturers. In the excerpt below, this discourse strategy was displayed when the interlocutor (i.e., lecturer) wanted to check whether the message the student intended to convey was understood correctly. That is why he simply summarized the utterance of the student in the 13th turn. In terms of its function, interpretive summary resembles request for confirmation; yet they differ in the way they were structured. As the excerpt below demonstrates, 11th and 13th turns were taken for the same purpose, but the 11th turn serves the purpose of confirmation request. As the name suggests, this strategy involved a question while the other, 13th turn, did not necessitate it. It was exhibited through paraphrasing of others' utterance.

Excerpt 68

Example of the use of interpretive summary

10	S4	I need to think about my topic first because I was not here last

		week.
11	T1	Topic. You mean you'll talk about your topic first with me?
12	S4	Yes.
13	T1	**Then after you will decide if you'll be if you'll present present some.** OK. Tamam.

4.2.24. Own Accuracy Check

Own accuracy check is the least frequently used strategy in the current research. Only three occurrences were identified, and they were displayed in the classroom performance of two lecturers. The DS took place when the lecturers questioned the accuracy of their utterances. Of three, two instances happened as a result of information check related to the content whereas one was exploited for the lecturer to monitor her pronunciation. The latter episode is also provided in under the analysis of self-repair (i.e., Section 4.2.7.) since the lecturer checked the correct pronunciation of Vygotsky by displaying different pronunciations of the word. She repaired her utterance when she recognized the correct pronunciation. Concerning the other use, as happens in the excerpt below, the lecturer was not sure about the information he provided. He then repeated his utterance with a question intonation to ascertain the accuracy, which was accompanied by the assistance of the students regarding the accuracy check.

Excerpt 69

Example of the use of own accuracy check

184	T3	An object with mass one is moving to the right. M1 initial and there is a box with a spring with the mass of M2. **It is moving to the left. It's moving to the left?** Just just confused.
185	Ss	Yes.

4.3. COMMUNICATIVE POTENTIAL OF THE LECTURES

During the process of data coding and thematic analysis to identify the uses and functions of teacher DSs, it became evident that certain strategies enhance the communication in classroom discourse rather than just compensating for any language-related difficulties. Hence, it can be argued that such strategies foster the lecturers' communicative competence. Accordingly, the DSs exhibited in the lecturers' oral performance were also analyzed in accordance with the extent to which they serve the potential goal of the lecturers. In this section, the communicative potential of the corpus is first reported. Then, the similarities and differences across the language practices of the lecturers are presented. Finally, the level of communicative achievement of each lecturer is discussed individually.

Discourse strategies that have less communication potential refer to the strategies that fail to deliver the target message completely or hinder the continuation of the conversation. This category involves message abandonment, omission, and response-reject strategies. Of 6.321 DS occurrences identified in the lectures, 141 instances took place in order to exhibit the strategies with less communicative potential. This indicates that only 2,3% of the DSs did not achieve to convey the message entirely.

As for the DSs with medium communicative potential, the strategies which are employed as assistance in the complete achievement of the lecturers' communicative goals are taken into account. Such strategies include the use of fillers, all-purpose words, similar-sounding words, code-switching, and so on (See Table 4 in Section 3.5.3. for the full list of the strategies examined under this category). These can also be regarded as in-between strategies as the message is delivered successfully yet through either substantial influence of other languages or extending and narrowing the meaning. Since the use of fillers is the most prevalent language tool displayed by the lecturers, this communicative category constitutes the vast majority of the DSs in

the corpus collected with 3.795 strategy occurrences. Hence, 60% of the total strategies were formed with medium communicative potential.

When it comes to the last category, the strategies with more communicative potential refer to those which allow the lecturers to recognize the most convenient linguistic plan to deliver the indented message completely. As the strategies analyzed in this research are mostly defined as communication strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997: p. 188-192), a large number of the DSs examined in the current study are classified under this category. Despite the plenitude of strategy types in this category, the DSs with more communication potential were not utilized as prevalently as the other categories during the lectures. In total, 2.385 occurrences took place in the use of the DSs with more communicative potential. Consequently, these strategies constitute 37,7% of the total discursive strategy uses. The frequency of each DS category within the corpus is presented in Table 6.

Table 6.

Communicative potential of the corpus collected

The communicative degree of the DSs	The percentage of the DS category
Less communicative potential	02,3%
Medium communicative potential	60%
More communicative potential	37,7%

4.3.1. Teacher 1

This participant is one of the experienced lecturers in the research. He is currently working at a foundation university to teach Ideology and Discourse Analysis in a graduate program. He uttered 12.027 words in his 102-minute lecture, which reveals that the lecturer articulated around 118 words per minute.

He is one of the lecturers that made use of the discursive strategies very frequently. During his spoken discourse, there exists a wide range of strategies he displayed. 17 strategy types and 1138 strategy uses were identified in his language performance. However, he seems to favor the use of fillers most because more than half of the occurrences (i.e., 786 occurrences) were formed to fill the pauses in his speech. For example, the excerpt above hints how much use of fillers the lecturer displayed to form a sentence. Besides the common gap fillers (e.g., OK, I mean), some phrases serve the purpose of keeping the channel open such as *what I'm trying to say* because the lecturer uttered this phrase whenever he wanted to maintain the discourse in the case of difficulty. The frequent use of this phrase is an indicator of the fact that it is fulfilled as a gap filler in the spoken discourse of this lecturer. Following it, self-rephrasing and the use of all-purpose words can be regarded as common strategies with around 100 instances. It can also be seen in Excerpt 70 that *thing* is the primary all-purpose word he mostly preferred. Due to the subject which the lecturer was teaching, the same notions were analyzed from different perspectives in this course, hence it sometimes caused ambiguity. This is probably the reason why the lecturer found self-rephrasing a convenient resource to boost comprehension. This strategy type was largely exhibited with the help of *that is to say*. It is also worth noting that the lecturer uttered around a thousand words until the language practice he had in the excerpt above. Yet, it is still the third turn for speech in the classroom conversation, which demonstrates the degree to which the lecture was interactional.

Excerpt 70

Representative language use of T1

3	T1	What I'm trying to say is this discourse, OK, at first sight is usually, I mean, in the literature on the issue, OK, taken as a kind of thing I mean epistemologic thing. OK. But according to these theorists, OK, it's quite different. That is to say they put the discourse into the very center of the analysis and they sort of assign or attributes many things to the term discourse.

Taken what the excerpt reveals into consideration, it can be understood that the lecture of this speaker has mainly medium communicative potential with %78. Concerning more communicative potential, 21% of the strategies enabled the lecturer to fulfill the achievement of the communication. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the lecture was predominantly a monologue rather than an interactive lesson. It hence lacks some of the strategies arising from the episodes of turn-taking with the students such as other-repetition, asking for confirmation and clarification. Regarding the other examples of these strategy types (e.g., response, asking for repetition), there was only a limited number of occurrences. With respect to less communicative potential, the lecturer failed to transmit the target message by either leaving the sentence unfinished or abandoning the message in less than 1% of the instances. This reveals that the instructor did not encounter many circumstances in which he failed to deliver what he intended to. The overall communicative potential of the lecture is presented in Table 7 with percentages.

Table 7

Communicative potential of the DSs employed by T1

The communicative degree of the DSs	The number of the occurrences	The percentage of the DS category
Less communicative potential	9	0,35%
Medium communicative potential	893	78,05%
More communicative potential	236	21,61%

4.3.2. Teacher 2

Teacher 2 taught content subjects in classes where Turkish is used as the medium of instruction during the first ten years of his teaching career. Later, he started working in an EMI program, and he has been teaching through English for 20

years. Therefore, he is the most experienced lecturer among the participants of the research in terms of both overall teaching and teaching through English. He is working with both undergraduate and graduate students at a foundation university, but the data of the present study were collected from one of his master classes, Sociology of Everyday Life. Throughout this 104-minute lecture, 14.104 words were uttered. That makes 135 utterances per minute in his spoken discourse.

The lecture carried out by this lecturer involves the greatest number of DS references. He made use of 21 strategy types during the lecture, and 1.592 instances of strategy use were observed in total. This indicates that his language use is rich in the employment of DSs. Among them, code-switching, fillers, and all-purpose words are the three most frequent strategies, respectively. Code-switching and fillers distinctively constitute one-third of the occurrences. This is due to the fact that the lecturer displayed excessive use of code-switching. As Excerpt 71 indicates, these instances were held though largely in the extra-sentential level by which tag statements in L1 were transferred in L2. The primary motivation to utter such words was to avoid the undesired pauses in the speech. Especially *falan* took place when the lecturer could not recall any further examples. In addition to code-switching, it can be seen in the excerpt below that the speaker was under the influence of L1 phonology. Since *economic* and *system* exist in the Turkish language, he foreignized these words while articulating. It is worth noting that the majority of foreignizing and word coinage in the corpus were employed by this lecturer, which suggests that negative transfer occurred as a result of the first language's interference in the second language when the teacher could not retrieve the target structure. Following these, all-purpose words and self-rephrasing were formed around 100 times, yet the rest of the strategies were not identified that often.

Excerpt 71

Representative language use of T2

70	T2	İşte (*you see*) capitalism is a huge term. Consumerist capitalism. We are consuming. We are slaves of that system [L1 pronunciation] is

	economic [L1 pronunciation] system. This is market profit falan (*and so on*). Everything is commercialized. Our buildings, our architecture, our food industry, our other culture değil mi (*right*). So this capitalism penetrates everything. It permeates the family relation, law, leisure, cities falan (*and so on*).

Taken as a whole, the DSs with medium communicative potential constitute the majority with 1162 occurrences, which makes around 73% of the language tools which he benefited from. The strategies with more communicative potential exist slightly more in the lecture of this participant compared to the T1 with approximately 26%. Concerning the category of less communicative potential, the three strategies were recognized, yet only 1% of these occurrences were identified.

Table 8.

Communicative potential of the DSs employed by T2

The communicative degree of the DSs	The number of the occurrences	The percentage of the DS category
Less communicative potential	17	01,06%
Medium communicative potential	1162	72,98%
More communicative potential	413	25,94%

4.3.3. Teacher 3

Teacher 3 is a lecturer who is teaching in a partial EMI program at a state university. In this department, 30% of the curriculum is taught through English only, and the rest is offered with Turkish as the medium of instruction. The lecturer has been teaching several EMI lessons since he started working there, hence he has plenty of experience of teaching through English, which makes him the third most experienced lecturer in the research in respect of EMI. The data unveiling his spoken

discourse was collected from an undergraduate course, Differential Equations and Applications. The lecture was carried out solving physics problems with equations presented in the coursebook. That is why the lecturer used the language mostly to verbalize the equations. Consequently, the words he uttered per minute (i.e., 85 words) are relatively low compared to the other lecturers as he conducted the lesson in 132 minutes with 11.220 words.

Concerning the discursive strategies, almost all the strategy types were identified in his spoken discourse yet with only a few instances. Thus, 921 strategy uses were observed in total throughout his lecture. Similar to the other participants, the use of fillers is by far the most preferred DS type. Following it, self-repetition and comprehension checks are the most prevalent ones in the lecture. The excerpt below represents the strategy use of this instructor. The students were supposed to solve the equation in this classroom practice. The lecturer first explained the problem by verbalizing the equation. As the equation with many unknowns might be confusing for the students, he provided clarification by means of self-repetition and rephrasing. While doing so, *OK* and *so* were frequently uttered to fill the pauses in the speech that were permitted the students as further time to solve the problem. Also, the repetition patterns were followed by a comprehension check to verify that the students understood and could provide the correct answer as it can be seen in the excerpt.

Excerpt 72

Representative language use of T3

94	T3	OK. This is the wall. OK. Initially, the car is moving to the left with the initial velocity. To the left. After the crash, after the collusion between the wall and the car, it's start to move to the right. Of course, it is some damage, right. So this is V final. So V final is given. So let’s say this is positive X axis. So V initial vector is minus (..) Please tell me. (.) What is V initial vector?

In addition to self-repetition and comprehension check strategies, there have been many other DSs enhancing the communicative potential of the lesson. To illustrate, in Excerpt 73, the lecturer initiated the solution of the equation by showing the first step. He made sure that the students were following him through a confirmation check. Even though the question (i.e., am I right?) seems to have been formed to check his own accuracy, it in fact offers comprehension check because the lecturer confirmed the students' answer with the help of *yes*. The further steps of the equation were followed through questions and answers. However, as it can be understood from the excerpt as well, the students avoided forming full sentences. Instead, they delivered the message predominantly in word-level boundaries. In the case that their response was not clear, the lecturer had to utilize asking for repetition and confirmation strategies. The excerpts above reveal that the lecturer created a communicative environment in the class by solving the equations together with the students. Consequently, the speech turns between the students and the lecturer are plenty (i.e., 387). Hence, the communicative degree of the lecture is pretty high. That is, 43% of the strategy use occurrences took place in order to exhibit the DSs with more communicative potential.

Excerpt 73

Another representative example of T3' language use

25	T3	So you can easily find V1 final. V1 final as a negative value, right. OK. What is that? Point five times this 25 over 60. Am I right? Hıh?
26	Ss	Yes
27	T3	Yes. What is that?
28	S1	Forty one momentum
29	T3	Again?
30	S1	Forty one
31	T3	Zero point forty one you mean?

32	S1	Yes zero point forty one
33	T3	Good. Zero point forty one meter per second. Yes. That is negative.

As for the strategies with less communicative potential, a limited number of occurrences (i.e., 28 occurrences) were recognized. Half of these instances were held to express that the student response was incorrect. Considering the number of comprehension check questions in the spoken discourse of the lecturer, the fact that he displayed response-reject strategy more than the other participants seems plausible. The percentages of each DS category are given in Table 9 to demonstrate the overall communicative potential of the lecturer.

Table 9.

Communicative potential of the DSs employed by T3

The communicative degree of the DSs	The number of the occurrences	The percentage of the DS category
Less communicative potential	28	03,04%
Medium communicative potential	496	53,85%
More communicative potential	397	43,10%

4.3.4. Teacher 4

Teacher 4 is also working at a foundation university where EMI is partially implemented as well. This means she has been teaching content subjects through both Turkish and English. The data were collected from a graduate lesson in which English is implemented as the medium of instruction. In this lesson, the students learn how to conduct scientific research and report them academically. The length of this lecture was comparatively short because the instructor carried out the lesson in 81 minutes. However, it should be noted that she uttered 9.459 words during the

lesson, which makes around 166 words spoken per minute. In other words, the lesson was long enough to yield sufficient spoken discourse of the lecturer.

With regard to the DSs exhibited by this lecturer, 19 DS types and 783 strategy uses were identified. This is one of the lessons that were conducted with the least strategy uses. Of the DS observed, 404 occurrences happened to utilize strategies with more communicative potential. That is why the lecture has high communicative potential (i.e., 51%). Since the class was mostly carried out with teacher-student interaction, it fostered the communicative degree of the strategy uses. For that reason, 301 speech turns took place throughout this lecture.

Excerpt 74

Representative language use of T4

255	T4	So it's more much more detailed. It doesn't and it doesn't worry about generalizing the results. So even if your sample is only one person, you can still conduct your study. But the thing is you have to give as much detail as possible. So you have to draw your limit as how much personal information are you going to give. For example, you're you're doing a case study with only one person. So how much information is that person is willing to give you? So you have to put your limits. You have to have strong, very strong verbal skills.

As the excerpt above demonstrates, the lecturer mostly displayed the uses of self-repetition and retrieval strategies rather than less or medium communicative potential strategies (e.g., omission or all-purpose words) in the case of language-related difficulty. In addition, it is discernible in the excerpt that the lecturer did not exhibit the use of fillers as many as other lecturers did. Accordingly, there exist relatively fewer instances with medium communicative strategies. When it comes to DSs with less communicative potential, 17 occurrences were identified, and 12 of them happened as a result of leaving the sentence unfinished because the physical

environment allowed the message to be delivered. The percentages and number of instance of each DS category are shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Communicative potential of the DSs employed by T4

The communicative degree of the DSs	The number of the occurrences	The percentage of the DS category
Less communicative potential	17	02,17%
Medium communicative potential	362	46,23%
More communicative potential	404	51,59%

4.3.5. Teacher 5

Teacher 5 is one of the lecturers who have been teaching through English since the beginning of their teaching experience. She is working at a state university where the medium of instruction is only English. She teaches content subjects both at the undergraduate and graduate levels. For this research, the master lesson in which she is teaching how to carry out research studies in the field of education. Her lecture lasted 157 minutes, which is the longest lesson duration among the ones from which the data were collected for this research. She carried out the subject with 17.602 utterances. This reveals that she uttered 112 words every minute.

The lecturer employed a broad range of DS strategies during the lesson. In total 20 different strategy types and 948 instances were recognized. Except for two strategy types, the rest was not exhibited very often. Just like most of the other participants' language performance, the use of fillers stands out in her classroom discourse as it took place 475 times. The excerpt below represents how the lecturer used the language to teach research methods in education. As illustrated in the excerpt, she predominantly uttered *you know* to gain time to retrieve the following

stretches of the language. The repetitive use of fillers even in this short excerpt yields the idea of why DSs with medium communicative potential constitute the highest percentage. Besides fillers, code-switching is the other factor increasing the instances in this category. However, all of these language behaviors were formed at either intra or extra-sentential levels. Specifically, intra-sentential code-switching is utilized through *arkadaşlar* (i.e., guys). As happens in Excerpt 75, the reason leading the lecturer to utter *arkadaşlar* is to draw the attention of the students before providing a crucial piece of information related to the subject.

Excerpt 75

Representative language use of T5

162	T5	So we would like to collect data from a representative sample and we would like to you know generalize that and say generally (.) university students you know prefer active learning, you know like strategies in the classrooms, right. But arkadaşlar (*guys*) in order to do that, I have to design my research accordingly. I have to design in terms of sampling. So make sure that I have the right sampling. Make sure that sampling represents the population and then I can you know like generalize the findings.

Concerning the strategy types with medium communicative potential, self-rephrasing is the most prevalent strategy with 139 occurrences, which is the largest use of paraphrasing own utterance within the corpus. As the excerpt above indicates, the lecturer produced several sentences to address the generalizability in educational research, which hints at the prevalence of self-rephrasing in her lecture. Self-repetition was also displayed to enhance the comprehension, yet its frequency is much lower than self-rephrasing probably because the lecturer endeavored to offer a wide spectrum of input.

The DSs with less communicative potential exist slightly more in the spoken discourse of this lecturer with 30 occurrences. The omission was performed 14 times where the instructor failed to complete the sentence either due to student disruption

or feeling unnecessary to utter the rest of the sentence as the message had already been transmitted. The overall communicative potential of this lesson is provided in Table 11.

Table 11

Communicative potential of the DSs employed by T5

The communicative degree of the DSs	The number of the occurrences	The percentage of the DS category
Less communicative potential	30	03,16%
Medium communicative potential	576	60,75%
More communicative potential	948	36,07%

4.3.6. Teacher 6

Teacher 6 is highly experienced in terms of overall teaching, but he has been teaching through English for two years, which makes him the least experienced EMI lecturer in the current research. The lecturer is currently working at a state university. His spoken discourse was gathered from an undergraduate course, Introduction to Geomatics Engineering. During the 88-minute lecture, 9.253 were uttered to teach the subject. That means he spoke 105 words per minute.

This participant is one of the lecturers who exhibited numerous DS types, yet his lecture entails the least number of DS occurrences. In other words, even though the lecture exhibited the uses of 21 strategy types, 387 instances were discerned in total. Among them, self-rephrasing was utilized most with 87 occurrences. Self-repetition is as common as self-rephrasing in the language performance of this lecturer. Nevertheless, the employment of the rest of the strategies is rare. Particularly the use of fillers which is the most frequently utilized strategy in six of the participants' language performance occurred only 35 times in this lecture. To

illustrate, Excerpt 76 intimates how scarce fillers were performed. In contrast, the lecturer formulated several sentences to teach the scales of maps, which demonstrates that the lecturer favors the self-rephrasing strategy. Furthermore, the lecturer abandoned the target message in the last sentence in the classroom practice below. This happened because his phone rang, and he could not achieve to complete the utterance.

Excerpt 76

Representative language use of T6

86	T6	So large details means large scale. Small detail you can't even see the city boundaries here. So it's small scale. You can see the mathematical ratios. One over twenty four thousand is (.) much larger than one over fifty million (.) is also valid in mathematics. There are some exceptions in the scientific community, but it's not a rule. It's not that rule of thumb. It can change. It can vary in different countries. It can change ins institutions. There is no definite boundaries for scale amounts like.

As the representative excerpt above reveals, the DSs having more communicative potential form the majority of strategy uses with 78%. After this, medium communicative potential category was observed to be the second regarding its prevalence with 18%. The percentage of the last category does not differ significantly from the lessons of other EMI lecturers.

Table 12.

Communicative potential of the DSs employed by T6

The communicative degree of the DSs	The number of the occurrences	The percentage of the DS category
Less communicative potential	14	03,61%
Medium communicative potential	71	18,34%

More communicative potential	302	78,03%

4.3.7. Teacher 7

The last lecturer whose language performance was delved into has six years of teaching experience. She is the other instructor who commenced working in an EMI program straightforward. She teaches only bachelor courses at a foundation university in Istanbul. Her lecture, History of Political Thought, was held in 110 minutes, and she uttered 106 words every minute. Therefore, she taught the subject with 11.698 utterances throughout the lecture.

This is one of the lectures, which was conducted with fewer DS uses. 548 instances were identified in the language performance of the lecturer. In spite of the limited number of instances, the lecturer made use of 22 strategy types during the lesson. The use of fillers, all-purpose words, and self-rephrasing were the most common strategies, respectively. What stands out in this lecture is that all the students except one insisted on speaking Turkish even though they were asked and responded in English. To illustrate, the class is making the arrangement of the lesson duration in the following excerpt. Regarding this issue, S1 asked his question in English. Accordingly, the lecturer kept implementing English as the medium of communication. However, the students in the 52nd and 54th turns shared their ideas in their native language. In return, the instructor did not switch to Turkish as they did. A probable explanation for this linguistic behavior is the endeavor to initiate the use of English by other students as well. If this is the case, the lecturer could not achieve the intended goal since the majority of the class evaded speaking English. In addition to this, the insistence of implementing English as the only medium of instruction may result from the university's language policy. Moreover, it should be noted that the students were inclined to chitchat with each other especially when the lecturer addressed a question to the class. Hence, the instructor seems to find filler words and repetition appropriate resources to make the students silent again in the 53rd turn.

Excerpt 77

Representative language use of T7

49	T7	If you come later than 8.20 come in silently, no knock the door. I don't err have oppose not to take you the class. But you will not be in the attendance.
50	S1	Just for the first time right?
51	T7	Yes just for the first time. Are we okay with this? If you want me to give a break after 40-45 minutes, tell me if you cannot follow after some point, it may happen. But otherwise I will continue one hour. I will continue after 9.30 for example and give a break and then continue again.
52	S7	45 dakika olsa daha iyi değil mi? (*Isn't 45 minutes better?*)
53	T7	So (.) so (.) OK. Let's vote this now and err conclude it. Who says that we have to give a brieak each 40 minutes?
54	S9	Ders komple kaçta bitecek peki? (*When will the lesson be over then?*)
55	T7	I will do until 9.20 I believe, so I'll give you a break. One hour first. And then one hour and a little bit more maybe and I will finish at 10.40.

Even though the most frequent strategies belong to the category of medium communicative potential, the percentage of the DSs with more communicative potential is higher as this classification includes a great number of strategy types. Therefore, even if the instructor displayed such strategies a limited number of times, they form 53% of the DSs when taken together. Yet, there is no such a big gap between these two categories, which means almost 42% of the DSs have medium communicative degree. Concerning the less medium communicative strategies, they comprise 4% of the language strategic tools.

Table 13.

Communicative potential of the DSs employed by T7

The communicative degree of the DSs	The number of the occurrences	The percentage of the DS category
Less communicative potential	26	4,74%
Medium communicative potential	230	41,97%
More communicative potential	292	53,28%

4.3.8. Comparison of the Lecturers' Discourse Strategy Uses

In light of the aforementioned findings garnered from the analysis of each lecturer's strategy uses, particularly concerning the communicative degrees, it was found that even though the lecturers exhibited similar discursive strategy types, the occurrences, and frequency of these strategies highly differ. This may be due to the fact that the teaching background of the lecturers and the context which they were teaching in was correlated with the frequency of some DSs types. To begin with, as it can be seen in Table 14, the uses of fillers greatly vary in the spoken discourse of the lecturers. When the EMI teaching experience of the lecturers is taken into account, it can be inferred that the lecturers with more years of EMI teaching experience utilized the use of fillers more frequently, which results in lessons with medium communicative potential. Besides, even though language alternation did not take place prevalently in the corpus except for the one participant's lecture, the educational level seems to affect the strategic behaviors of the lecturers regarding code-switching. In other words, the lecturers teaching graduate courses switched to Turkish relatively more than the ones offering undergraduate courses did. Hence, the communicative degree of undergraduate courses is higher than that of graduate courses. Lastly, the discipline that the lecturers teach was found to shape particularly the use of self-rephrasing they exhibited. In the courses of positive sciences, the lecturers did not feel the necessity to reproduce what they had just said in different words. This has to do with that the lessons were conducted by explaining a concept

in the social and educational sciences whereas solving the equations by applying formulas was the main means of teaching subjects in the positive sciences. Consequently, the frequency of self-rephrasing diverges across the range of disciplines. However, it is worth noting that the abovementioned similarities are not valid for all the strategy types. This means that the lecturers with similar teaching background or in similar context did not exhibit the same strategic behaviors. Because of this, the communicative degree of each lecture differs too.

Table 14.

Coverage of some strategies in each lecturer's spoken discourse

Lecturer	EMI experience	Discipline taught	Use of fillers	Code-switching	Self-rephrasing
T1	18	Social sciences (Graduate)	7,23%	0,46%	9,26%
T2	20	Social sciences (Graduate)	3,6 %	5,94%	5,16%
T3	12	Positive sciences (Undergraduate)	3,03%	0,02%	3,86%
T4	5	Educational sciences (Graduate)	2,72%	0,43%	5,61%
T5	9	Educational sciences (Graduate)	3,66%	0,66%	5,61%
T6	2	Positive sciences (Undergraduate)	0,25%	0,09%	3,85%
T7	6	Social sciences (Undergraduate)	1,12%	0,07%	5,40%

4.4. CONCLUSION

The summary of the most relevant findings reported above is:

1. The discourse strategies were found to be of great importance for the EMI setting as they comprise 25% of the corpus collected.
2. 24 different discourse strategy types were identified in the spoken discourse of the seven EMI lecturers. Among them, fillers, self-rephrasing, and code-switching were the most pervasively used strategies, respectively.
3. Although the lecturers employed similar strategies during their lessons, they seem to prioritize different strategies over others. Correspondingly, the occurrences and frequency of the DS types greatly vary in the language performance of the teachers.
4. The employment of the DSs in these EMI classes goes beyond simply compensating linguistic problems. They also function as opportunities for the lecturers to enhance the communicative environment in the class.
5. The DSs were employed to offer two primary aims: (i) to cope with any language-related problems and (ii) to further the students' comprehension. Regarding the former function, the strategies were displayed through abandoning the linguistic plan, narrowing or extending the meaning with an alternative plan, and fulfilling the initial plan successfully. As the second function indicates, the DSs are exhibited as a means of scaffolding the students and fostering the learning environment.
6. The analysis of the DSs' uses and functions revealed that some strategies offered several functions, and likewise, the same objective could be met through the use of numerous strategies.
7. In spite of a broad array of strategy types, half of the DSs took place in a limited number of circumstances. Accordingly, only one use and function were recognized for such strategies.

8. The use of fillers constitutes more than one-third of the DSs identified in the corpus with 2.654 occurrences. It was observed to be the most multi-functional strategy compared to the others.
9. The occurrences of fillers, self-repetition, retrieval, restructuring, and self-repair are a signpost of the cognitive processes that the teachers undergo during the implementation of English as the medium of instruction.
10. All the DSs do not serve the communicative goals of the lecturers to the same degree. Regarding this, three categories emerged: (i) less communicative potential, (ii) medium communicative potential, and (iii) more communicative potential. 60% of the total strategy uses in the corpus had medium communicative potential.
11. The teaching background of the lecturers, the discipline, and the educational level they teach seem to have an influence on some of their strategic behaviors. In addition, the lecturers' personal discursive traits are the other factor shaping the way they make use of DSs.

CHAPTER 5

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the findings unveiled from the analysis of EMI lecturers' spoken discourse based on Dörnyei and Scott's (1997: p. 188-192) taxonomy are interpreted. Besides, the findings are discussed based on the existing body of literature on the use of discourse strategies in the educational settings where English is implemented as the medium of instruction. Furthermore, this chapter touches upon the limitations of the research and the pedagogical implications of the results. Following them, relevant recommendations for further research are provided.

5.2. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.2.1. The Most Common DS Types

With respect to the first research question, 24 discourse strategy types and 6.321 strategy uses by seven EMI lecturers were identified in the 13-hour corpus delved into, which implies that teaching distinct academic disciplines through L2 requires a wide range of discourse strategies related to the lecturers' linguistic repertoire to be utilized. When the number of words formed to exhibit DSs was calculated, it was observed that around 255‰ of the spoken corpus was uttered to display discursive strategies. In the research by Sánchez-García (2016: p. 133) examining the DSs by EMI lecturers, the strategies constitute 95‰ of the corpus. This distinction may result from the fact that the author scrutinized 14 strategy types whereas 24 DS types emerged in this research. Another possible explanation for this

is that the average length of the EMI lectures was approximately 84 minutes in her study, yet the lecturers carried out their lessons in 110 minutes on average in the current inquiry. Taken these two facts into consideration, it can be argued that this research supports evidence from the observations of Anani Sarab (2003: p. 240, 2004: p. 32), Cullen (2002: p. 123), Doqaruni and Najjari (2015, p: 67) and Sánchez-García's (2019: p. 53) in terms of the indispensability of the DSs in teachers' language performance.

As for the distinct DSs recognized in the EMI classroom discourse, there are both similar and different findings with the existing literature. The most prominent finding to emerge from the data coding is that the uses of fillers, self-rephrasing, and code-switching were found to be the more prevalently used strategies in the corpus collected. Particularly filler words seem to be a broadly inclusive language tool in the present study. This result is consistent with the studies by Sánchez-García (2016: p. 254) and Sudiatmika et al. (2013: p. 9) which found that the use of fillers was one of the most frequent strategies in EMI lectures. In a similar vein, Shartiely (2013: p. 130) observed that two discourse markers (i.e., so and now) were produced frequently to fill the gap although his aim was not to examine fillers as a particular discourse strategy type. The combination of these findings shows that filler words form an essential part of the EMI classroom language with its multifunctional nature. The findings with reference to code-switching support the work of other studies on this linguistic behavior (e.g., Azian et al., 2013: p. 289; Sudiatmika et al., 2013: p. 1; Shartiely, 2013: p. 170; Zubaidi, 2014: p. 5). In these studies as well, the lecturers relied on language switch in the event of linguistic trouble. In Sánchez-García's (2016: p. 255) research though, this strategy type did not recur so often as to be a frequent DS. However, it should be noted that the vast majority of code-switching instances in the current research were in extra-sentential level unlike the study by Sudiatmika et al. (2013: p. 7). This reveals that the settings that the data were collected from are a true representation of EMI as English is *the* medium of instruction in these contexts rather than *a* medium of instruction besides Turkish.

Yet, the lecturers benefited from their native language, Turkish, through the use of code-switching as a discourse strategy. Furthermore, the instances of self-rephrasing in this study were higher compared to those of other studies. This discrepancy may be due to the fact that self-rephrasing was subsumed into repetition by some scholars (Azian et al., 2013: p. 290; Sánchez-García, 2019: p. 47) as these two strategies are formulated in a similar manner, and the motivations behind the uses of self-rephrasing and self-repetition in the current research show that they are mainly achieved for similar purposes.

5.2.2. The Uses and Functions of the DSs

The second question sought to determine the uses and functions of the discourse strategies employed by the EMI lecturers. Regarding this, the scrutiny concluded that the DSs predominantly occurred to perform two chief functions: (i) to overcome language-related problems and (ii) to foster the comprehension and accordingly communication. This is in line with the notion held by Nakatani and Goh (2007: p. 208) which is that the employment of such strategies functions beyond the mere compensation of linguistic problems.

Concerning the former, which was the case in the majority of the strategy occurrences, some strategy types, message abandonment, all-purpose words, literal translation, approximation, and circumlocution, in particular, took place as a result of linguistic deficiencies (mostly lexical and phonological). Hence, such strategies can be regarded as problem-management mechanisms. Among these language tools, three chief uses were recognized as well as the variety within the strategy type. Initially, some strategies (i.e., omission and message abandonment) were formulated by giving up the designed plan. In addition to this, the lecturers overcame the language barrier by designing an alternative plan as a means of all-purpose words, code-switching, literal translation, similar-sounding words, etc. However, it should be noted that the target message was either narrowed or extended through these strategies. Another way to eliminate the linguistic difficulty was to redesign the

original plan to convey the intended message successfully (e.g., restructuring, retrieval, self-repair, etc.). However, taken these results altogether, it can be argued that this study does not completely support the investigation of Tarone (1977: p. 199), Færch and Kasper (1983: p. 37), and Willems (1987: p. 355) who acknowledge the duality of strategy use, that is either reducing or extending the message in the case of trouble.

The language-related problems can be deemed to arise from the lecturers' insufficient proficiency. Contrary to expectations, I can say that this was not the cause of many of the linguistic difficulties forcing the lecturers to utilize DSs based on the examination. As mentioned earlier, self-rephrasing is the second most prevailing strategy deployed by the lecturer. When the fact that this DS requires various linguistic patterns to convey the same meaning in different ways is taken into account, it can be argued that the lecturers are in fact competent users of L2. On the issue of language proficiency, it is worth noting that the lecturers were self-confident in their language use because when they were asked whether they received training prior to their engagement in EMI, gaining a degree in an English speaking country and publishing numerous articles written in English were the arguments they stated against the necessity of any training. Moreover, as stated by Lemarchand-Chauvin and Tardieu (2018: p. 433), teachers fear to permit a colleague to observe their lessons when not being certain about the validity of their pedagogy. Accordingly, it can be claimed that the lecturers with that certitude became willing to participate in the current research, which is another indicator of the instructors' self-confidence. Therefore, the challenges related to the language indeed stemmed from implementing English as the medium of instruction. This is not aligned with Azian et al. (2013: p. 291) and Færch and Kasper (1983: p. 35) who suggest that problems in communication happen because non-native speakers did not completely develop language repertoire. Nevertheless, the findings of the current study provide evidence of the complex nature of EMI. The literature reveals that teaching through English is not a simple implementation that can be held through the translation of the content

into English (Macaro et al., 2016: p. 56), and thus it demands high cognitive and linguistic effort (Hincks, 2010: p. 15; Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 252). In spite of this fact, the lecturers stated they were not catered to a pre-service EMI teaching program.

In reference to the latter function (i.e., the promotion of comprehension), this result corroborates the notion supported by Canale (1983: p. 6) and Savignon (1983: p. 11) which is that the use of strategies is not only an indicator of language deficiency. Instead, the particular strategy types such as comprehension check, self-repetition, self-rephrasing, asking for repetition, and so on were employed to offer a specific pedagogic intention, namely the enhancement of the student comprehension and interaction. However, although repetition and self-rephrasing are the common DSs in the corpus, the total instances of such strategies are lower than those of the DSs fulfilling the former function (i.e., overcoming language problems). This finding differs from Azian et al.'s (2013: p. 289) and Shartiely's (2013: p. 171) studies which resulted in the prevalence of the use of questions, especially comprehension check. This incongruence can be explained with the fact that the lectures took place in large classes in Shartiely's (2013: p. 101) research; hence he discusses that the use of questions is inevitable to manage big groups. However, the largest class comprises of approximately 40 students in the present study. In Azian et al.'s (2013: p. 293) case, the authors stated that these DSs were displayed with either minimum use of L2 or through non-verbal communication, yet non-verbal communication strategies were not the aim of the current investigation. Still, these studies are supported by the finding of this research which is that the lecturers exhibited great effort to aid the students' comprehension of content subjects by means of the DSs. This endeavor too indicates that teachers' language performance shapes content learning as Doiz et al. (2013: p. 217) claims. Hence, the result provides further support for the significance of the training in how to foster content comprehension with the help of lecturers' language performance.

As well as the primary uses and functions discussed above, various ways and motivations to display discursive strategies were identified in the current study. Among the DSs, use of filler, code-switching, repetition and comprehension check were found to occur in different circumstances in several forms, which explains the reason why these language behaviors constitute the bulk of the strategy use instances. To start with the use of fillers, there exist five chief motives which are (i) to stall for time, (ii) to plan the following speech, (iii) to show hesitation. This is broadly similar to the work of other studies, yet it should be noted that two more motivations to utilize filler words emerged in this study, that is (iv) confirmation mechanism after a slight hesitation and (v) to signpost the speech. This may be attributed to the large gap between the frequency of fillers and that of the other studies. The prevalence of the strategy may have led the lecturers to make use of filler words in various circumstances.

Concerning code-switching, an important finding is that extra-sentential language switch with Turkish filler words comprises the majority of the instances, which is not aligned with many of the previous studies. This is likely to be related to the T2's discursive traits as he was the only instructor who exhibited this use. Also, the uses of code-switching were widely in lexical-based, which was also the case in Macaro et al.'s (2020: p. 398) research. The functions of code-switching (e.g., facilitating students' understanding, labeling the concept in the native language, coping with lexical problems) are mostly in accordance with the earlier studies (e.g., Azian et al., 2013: p. 292; Shartiely, 2013: p. 114; Zubaidi, 2014: p. 5; Al Makoshi, 2014: p. 274; Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 255; Macaro et al., 2020: p. 391), which supports that code-switching is a typical feature of the speech of bilingual speakers rather than a sign of deficiency (Li, 2000: p. 318). Besides, since this language tool took place to equip the students with additional cognitive support in this study, the findings provide evidence for the belief that L1 use is a scaffolding strategy linked to the sociocultural theory (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003: p. 760; García & Wei, 2014: p. 64; Sánchez-García, 2016: p. 171). A similar finding was also obtained in the

study by Karakaş (2016b: p. 253) as the participants agreed on switching to Turkish for the sake of better content learning.

Repetition was recognized to be a prolific strategy with its multifunctional nature in earlier studies too. As well as its primary function (i.e., to emphasize a topic), it offers plenty of goals like the aforementioned strategies. What is intriguing is that it offers additional time to the lecturers to retrieve a lexical item. This purpose was also demonstrated by the lecturers in Azian et al.'s (2013: p. 290) and Sánchez-García's (2016: p. 254) studies. Such instances yield substantial implications in the actions which were held by the lecturers during the process of word recognition. Likewise, the occurrences of retrieval, use of fillers, restructuring, and self-repair are convenient resources to gain insights into mental processes that the instructors undergo during the implementation of English as the medium of instruction.

Regarding comprehension check, different ways to employ the strategy were found to exist in the spoken discourse of the lecturers. Most of the uses and functions were aligned with the previous studies, but there seems to be one more way to check the students' understanding in this scrutiny, which is through designedly incomplete utterances. This usage was not encountered in the studies carried out in EMI settings, yet it is consistent with the observations in EFL context (Koshik, 2002: p. 295). This indicates that it is in fact a feature of teaching in general rather than an EMI-specific language behavior.

In a nutshell, it can, therefore, be inferred that a discourse strategy type assists non-native speakers of L2 to achieve a various number of goals in their language performance. Likewise, the same functions are performed with the help of a wide range of DSs. Considering that the lecturers were not trained on how to use the language efficiently to teach the content area subjects, these findings hence raise the necessity of teaching such strategies explicitly as separate categories in order to further the effectiveness of the classroom practice by means of diversity in DSs and their functions as the existing literature (e.g., Nakatani, 2005: p. 76; Maleki, 2007: p.

593; Teng, 2012: p. 3566) provides empirical evidence on its significant positive effects.

5.2.3. Communicative Potential

The third question in the research is concerned with the degree to which the DSs allowed the EMI lecturers to achieve their communicative goals in teaching. As well as reporting on the corpus as a whole, the results were analyzed on an individual basis to gain insights into the distinction in the use of DSs stemming from the different backgrounds of the participants. In the literature, considering the fact that the studies investigating discourse/communication strategies in EMI context are scarce, the studies questioning this specific issue are few and far between. Hence, the results regarding the communicative potential of the lectures are predominantly compared with those of the investigation carried out by Sánchez-García (2019: p. 43) in spite of the fact that her study was mainly on the comparison of the DSs in Spanish MOI and EMI.

As mentioned above, the lecturers' language performance in the corpus collected is pretty rich in the use of fillers. It is therefore not surprising that 60% of the strategy occurrences identified have medium communicative potential. When compared to the study by Sánchez-García (2019: p. 48), the results are not aligned because her study resulted in the prevalence of more communicative potential instead with 68%. This difference is probably due to the fact that the researcher did not include the uses of fillers in this classification. As stated before, filler words or expressions seem to be paramount language behavior in the present study. Additionally, the lack of interactional strategies was the other main factor in the medium communicative degree of the corpus as the lecturers were the ones who constitute the great majority of EMI classroom discourse. This result confirms the data obtained from the study of Yip et al. (2007) and Lo and Macaro (2012: p. 46) regarding the teacher-centered instruction in EMI classes.

Finally, code-switching is another factor decreasing the communicative potential of the corpus. As Smit (2019: p. 118) and Macaro (2020: p. 274) assert, code-switching and the other strategies that occur because of the L1 interference (i.e., foreignizing, word coinage) may lose the intended communicative potential when there are students who do not share the same linguistic background. This was indeed the case in this study since the majority of the classes (except two in a partial EMI program) involved international students. However, this situation was distinct especially to the classroom language performance of one lecturer, which indicates that even though the lecturers relied on pretty much the same types of strategies, they favor the same DSs in different ranks. Hence, the communicative potential of their lesson varies.

When each lecture was investigated individually in terms of the strategic behavior, it can be argued that the teaching background of the lecturers have an impact on their language performance as specifically the recurrences of fillers were recognized higher in the spoken discourse of the lecturers who are the most experienced ones concerning EMI teaching. This implies that the more the lecturers implement EMI, the more frequent they make use of fillers as they achieve fluency. Accordingly, the number of strategy uses seems to be fewer when the lecturer has respectively less EMI experience. This discrepancy can be explained with the result of Lo and Macaro (2015: p. 252) as their study found that the stakeholders of EMI develop strategies to cope with challenges by time. In addition, it might be attributed to various oral proficiency levels of the lecturers as the literature (e.g., Nakatani, 2006: p. 151; Ting et al., 2017; Ugla et al., 2019: p. 127) provides evidence for the significant correlation between the proficiency and the uses of CSs. However, since the present thesis does not aim to assess how proficient the lecturers are and there are also studies (e.g., Clement, 2007: p. 203; Uztosun & Erten, 2014: p. 169) which did not yield any significant correlation, no certain interpretations can be made concerning this relationship.

Another finding that is worth taking into consideration is related to code-switching instances. The lecturers in master's classes did not mind switching to Turkish whereas code-switching occurrences were quite rare in undergraduate courses. This can be explained with the issue that undergraduate students have poor language skills even after the PYP (British Council/TEPAV, 2015: p. 59). Therefore, it can be stated that the lecturer teaching in bachelor courses strived to provide as much input as possible and foster the learners' involvement in English by speaking English only, which is in line with the study by Duran et al. (2019: p. 14). The finding with regard to code-switching in master classes is contrary to that of Macaro et al., (2020: p. 397) because the EMI teachers in that study did not find it necessary to alter the language due to the sufficient proficiency level of the students. However, the instructors offering graduate lessons in the present study did not consider explaining the relevant concept in Turkish as a threat to the language input the students should receive as the learners have already acquired the necessary command of language. It should also be noted that this situation may not be due to the possible distinction in the language policy of the government and private institutions as the switches to Turkish during the undergraduate/graduate lectures were similar at both state and foundation universities.

Besides, the overall communicative potential of each lecture displays that the lecturers with less experience ended up carrying out lessons with a higher degree of communicative goal. However, the present finding should be interpreted with caution as the high percentage of communicative potential strategies in such lectures may stem from the low frequency of other strategy categories when compared to the experienced lecturers' spoken discourse. In other words, a similar number of instances with more communicative potential strategies was observed in both more and less experienced lecturers' language behavior, yet the percentage is lower in the former lecture because of a great deal of other strategy uses.

Furthermore, similarities and dissimilarities emerged from the analysis of the discipline taught. To illustrate, the lecturers teaching engineering courses had less

language production than the other participants did, which supports the finding of Sarab (2004: p. 28) and Macaro (2020: p. 373) related to the teachers' language use varying in different contexts. This is because of the fact that their lesson was conducted mostly through the verbalization of the equations, which corroborates that of Dearden and Macaro's (2016: p. 471) study since their study revealed that mathematic teachers are "saved by the formulae". In other words, a limited amount of language use was required besides the mathematical codes and equations. Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that the present research does not imply that the language of communication was used in the very same manner by those lecturers. Instead, there exist observable differences in their discursive strategic behavior. This binary (i.e., similarities and dissimilarities) was noticed in other disciplines as well particularly in the use of self-rephrasing, repetition, and retrieval. It can thus be claimed that the lecturers' language performance in the use of DSs stems from their speech traits. Hence, the analysis of their discursive styles in speech yields substantial implications in their teaching style, which is broadly similar to the results of Sánchez-García (2016: p. 253, 2019: p. 53).

5.3. CONCLUSION

The present research was designed to (1) identify the teacher discourse strategies displayed by university lecturers teaching content subjects through English, (2) to analyze how the strategies are exhibited and the motivations behind their employment and (3) to examine the extent to which the DSs utilized meet the communicative goal of the lecturers. To achieve these goals, the language performance of the lecturers was analyzed based on the taxonomy suggested by Dörnyei and Scott (1997: p. 188-192). 24 discourse strategy types with a great number of instances were identified in the corpus collected. In spite of the large variety of DSs existing in the lecturers' spoken discourse, certain strategies tend to recur more while some of them were recognized only a few times. Of the most

frequent ones, fillers, self-rephrasing, and code-switching were the most favored language tools to achieve the ultimate goal, that is to say, delivering information.

When the strategies employed were examined in accordance with their uses and functions, it became evident that the same strategy would offer plenty of functions, and also the same function could be met through the use of several strategy types. Hence, the uses and functions of the DSs that each lecturer opted for during their lesson vary widely. Yet two primary functions emerged from the analysis, namely (i) to cope with language-related problems and (ii) to further students' comprehension. Regarding the former, the strategies were exhibited in three different ways which are abandoning, modifying, and transmitting the verbal message fully. Besides, there were many times when the strategies were employed to boost the effectiveness of the lecture. Specifically, repetition, self-rephrasing, and confirmation checks were catered for frequently to further students' understanding, which shows that some strategies function as scaffolding strategies. Furthermore, the other significant finding arisen from the analysis is that some strategies (e.g., retrieval, self-repair, restructuring) can be regarded as significant indications of which cognitive processes they go through while teaching content areas subjects through English.

The analysis of the degree that each lecture has successful communication reveals that the vast majority of the employed strategies have medium communicative potential. Following it, DSs with more communicative potential is ranked as the second prevailing strategy category. The fact that the use of less communicative strategies was recognized to the lowest degree demonstrates that the lecturers mostly achieved the goal of finding an alternative way to convey the message. Additionally, it was observed that diverse contexts (i.e., undergraduate and graduate; social sciences and positive sciences) require a distinct extent of strategic behavior. Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that the lecturers prioritize different strategies over the others within the same discipline, which suggests that the linguistic traits of the lecturers are an important variable that influences their

language performance and accordingly their preferences for DS uses. This was the case particularly in the instances of the use of fillers, code-switching, restructuring, and self-repair.

5.3.1. Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of the present research has to do with the data collection methods. As stated in Section 3.5., non-participant observation was the main instrument utilized to gather data. In addition to this, stimulated recall interviews with each participant were intended to be carried out so that the lecturers could reflect on their language practices and provide a rationale behind their decisions. However, they rejected this request, so the research had to be carried out without this data collection measure. Although the majority of the motivations leading the lecturers to employ certain strategies could be recognized through the observable linguistic behavior of the lecturers, there were a few times that the underlying reasons were not discernible.

Besides, the lecturers accepted to be observed during one lecture period which ranges from 81 minutes to 157 minutes in this study. Despite the investigation having taken place under natural contexts and necessary steps that were taken to avoid the Hawthorne effect (see Chapter 3), the lecturers may have altered the way they taught the subject due to the presence of the researcher and voice recorder.

The final limitation of the study is that the data were gathered from various disciplines that the researcher is not familiar with. This is addressed as a limitation due to the fact that the unknown terminology hindered the transcription process. Also, the strategies which were exhibited through the subject-specific terms may not have been identified if there had been any.

5.3.2. Pedagogical Implications

Notwithstanding the aforementioned limitations, the present research provides significant pedagogical implications based on the findings from the analysis of EMI lecturers' spoken discourse. First of all, the research presented here yielded that the EMI lecturers were the ones who held the floor for a very long time during the lesson. They therefore can be regarded as the powerful agents in students' comprehension, and accordingly in the students' learning process with the way they employ the language. Consequently, it is crucial for them to be conscious of their language use for the sake of EMI achievement (Macaro, 2020: p. 373). As Walsh (2011: p. 15) also highlights, when more conscious strategies are adopted, not only can they meet the needs of the moment but also create learning opportunities for students.

Besides, it was observed that the EMI lecturers encountered a great number of linguistic problems, especially related to lexis, in the delivery of the content subjects even though they seem to possess the required language repertoire particularly related to their discipline. The issue emerging from this finding is that language-related difficulties can be minimized with the help of explicit instruction on how to use the language efficiently through the use of discourse strategies. Such training can help the lecturers become aware of the numerous language resources which they can draw on to provide the intended message fully rather than extending, narrowing, or abandoning the intended meaning in such circumstances.

Apart from the language-related problems, this study also portrayed that the lecturers made use of the DSs to promote the learning environment, yet such instances were fewer than the ones having occurred to serve the purpose of coping with the linguistic problems. Accordingly, the communicative potential of the corpus was not high. With regard to this, Walsh (2011: p. 34) states that scaffolding is an ability to be taught. Hence, EMI lecturers could be trained on the employment of DSs with more communicative potential to achieve the purpose of shaping the

students' learning process (Walsh & Li, 2013: p. 262). Such interactional features can be exemplified as asking for repetition, clarification, and confirmation requests which were the least exhibited strategies in the corpus collected. Thereby, these strategies could be integrated into the design of the professional development opportunities to cater for EMI discourse constructed jointly by teachers and students.

Also, although this study does not aim to explore the context-specific language use, the fact that the lecturers from different disciplines performed the language in different ways may well have a bearing on the training for content area specialists**.** That is to say, this research revealed that the EMI context that the lecturers are involved in may influence the way they use the language, which was supported by Macaro (2020: p. 273) as well. On this issue, Walsh (2011: p. 15) points out the appropriate selection of the strategies for the pedagogic goals of the class. With this concern in mind, future training programs could be designed in accordance with the discipline and the educational level taught to address the specific linguistic needs of the lecturers rather than the improvement of the language proficiency in general. In short, the present study bolsters the necessity of EMI training which aims to assist the lecturers in the metalanguage awareness and to make better use of the linguistic resources that can enhance the EMI classroom discourse.

5.3.3. Recommendations for Further Research

The findings unveiled from the scrutiny and the challenges encountered during the data analysis process provide some insights for future studies. First, as well as the classroom practices of the lecturers, their cognition in discourse strategies could be explored to have a much better understanding of the EMI lecturers' motivations to deploy discourse strategies and to verify to what extent the DSs exhibited allowed the lecturers to achieve their teaching goals. Such studies can raise EMI lecturers' awareness about how to enhance the quality of teaching and learning through the employment of the DSs.

Besides, future research could also be conducted to explore the teachability of the strategies in the EMI context by means of explicit instruction. Suchlike studies, therefore, require a longitudinal research design to discover whether there is a change in the use of DSs over time, particularly after the training. By doing so, a better conclusion could be reached for the design of the potential EMI teacher training programs.

Moreover, there is a need for future studies of the collaboration between applied linguistics and content teachers to have a better understanding of the EMI lecturers' strategy uses and to reach better conclusions. When the research on EMI is reviewed, it is obvious that there are very few studies carried out by content specialists even though they are the ones who get involved in EMI as the main agent. As Macaro also (2020: p. 374) highlights, the partnership of the researchers in these two disciplines (i.e., EMI and applied linguistics) is crucial to make progress with EMI implementation.

Finally, since the present research was constructed to examine teacher discourse strategies, EMI lecturers were the main research participants. However, the studies aiming to have a deeper understanding of EMI classroom discourse could analyze other features of EMI implementation arising from the conversation between the lecturers and students. Hence, it would be highly enlightening to design a study including the student discourse too.

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3. Electronic Resources

Öğrenci Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi (ÖSYM) (2019). Yükseköğretim programları ve kontenjanları kılavuuzu. Retrieved from https://www.osym.gov.tr/TR,16858/2019-yuksekogretim-programlari-ve-kontenjanlari-kilavuzu.html/ Retrieved from October 11, 2019

Yükseköğretim kurumlarında yabancı dil öğretimi ve yabancı dille öğretim yapılmasında uyulacak esaslara ilişkin yönetmelik. (2016, March 23). The Official Gazette. Retrieved from https://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/ / January 19, 2020

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. Letter of Informed Consent

Dear lecturer:

I am a graduate student under the direction of Assoc. Prof. Doğan Yüksel in the Department of English Language Teaching at Kocaeli University. I am doing a research study about the nature of the discourse in English-medium instruction classes at tertiary level in Turkey and I would like you to take part in this study.

This study will be done in your classroom during the regular class hours. I will place a tape recorder in the classroom and I will be observing and taking field notes during this period. There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts if you agree to participate in this study. You will participate only if you want to. Your participation will not in any way affect your evaluation at the end of the session. You have the right to withdraw from the study. In this case, the data I have received from you will be destroyed. The information obtained during the course of the study will remain confidential to the extent allowed by law.

By participating in this study you will be giving researchers and educators valuable information on the nature of discourse in English-medium instruction programs at tertiary level. In addition to that, this study can serve to improve instructional methodology and the nature of teaching in English-medium instruction classes.

If you have any questions concerning the study, please call me +90 554 883 76 45 or e-mail me at fatma.egee@gmail.com.You may reach Assoc. Prof. Doğan Yüksel +90 262 303 2469 or by e-mail doganyuksel@gmail.com.

Sincerely,

Fatma Ege

I agree to participate in this study. I understand that I will be tape recorded by the researcher and these tapes will be kept confidential. I understand that only the researcher and her professors will have access to the tapes and that I will not be named in any written work arising from this study.

Participant's name and surname:……..

Signature: ……

Date (day/month/year):...../...../.....

APPENDIX B. Structured Interview Questions

1. How many years of teaching experience do you have?
2. How long have you been teaching through English?
3. Did you receive any of the degrees (e.g., Master's, PhD) abroad? **If yes:**
    - Where did you study?
    - How long did you study there?
4. Did you attend any training on teaching through English? **If yes:**
    - Was it a pre-service or in-service teacher training program?
    - Who provided the training?
    - How long did it take?
    - Do you think it contributed to your profession?
5. Did you attend any training on teaching through English? **If no:**
    - Do you think a training program must be provided on how to teach content subjects through English?

CURRICULUM VITAE

Contact Information: fatma.egee@gmail.com

Work Experience:

2019-Present	Fatih Sultan Mehmet Foundation University Civil Aviation Cabin Services Program (Full time lecturer – Planning Unit member)
2019-2020	TOEFL Center Administrator
2017-2019	Istanbul Aydın University English Preparatory School (Full time lecturer – Curriculum Development and Planning Unit coordinator)

Education:

Master's Degree:	Kocaeli University English Language Teaching (2018-2020)
Bachelor's Degree:	Middle East Technical University English Language Teaching (2013-2017)
Erasmus+ Program:	Leuphana University, Lüneburg (Germany) Philosophische Fakultaet (2016)
High School:	Izmir Tire Ogretmen Melahat Aksoy Anadolu Ogretmen Lisesi (2009-2013)

Research:

2019 Needs Analysis for English Medium Instruction (EMI) Programs from the Perspectives of Teachers and Students (Ege, F., & Yüksel, D.)

2019 Washback of TOEFL iBT on Teaching and Learning Writing: A Case Study in Turkish EFL Context (Ege, F.)

2019 The Effects of Written Corrective Feedback on the Turkish EFL Learners' Development of Present Simple Tense (Ege, F.)

Certifications:

2019 INGED International ELT Conference (Paper presentation)
2019 19th Forum on Curricular Issues
2019 ILTERG ELT Conference (Paper presentation)
2019 *Propell* Advanced Workshop for the *TOEFL iBT* Test
2018 ScOLa ELT Conference
2017 INGED International ELT Conference