

**METADISCOURSE MARKERS IN SUPERVISOR FEEDBACK FOR
LESSON PLANS OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS IN DISTANCE EDUCATION:
A STUDY IN A TURKISH UNIVERSITY SETTING**

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PhD DISSERTATION

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PhD Programme in English Language Teaching
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JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

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Adnan YAVUZ'ın "**Metadiscourse Markers In Supervisor Feedback for Lesson Plans Of Pre-Service Teachers In Distance Education**" başlıklı tezi **29 Eylül 2023** tarihinde, aşağıdaki jüri tarafından Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliğinin 37. Maddesi uyarınca ilgili maddeleri uyarınca **Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliğinde, Doktora** tezi olarak değerlendirilerek kabul edilmiştir.

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ÖZET

BİR TÜRK ÜNİVERSİTESİ ORTAMINDA UZAKTAN EĞİTİMDE ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ DERS PLANLARINA VERİLEN UYGULAMA ÖĞRETİM ELEMANI GERİ BİLDİRİMLERİNDE ÜST SÖYLEM BELİRLEYİCİLERİ

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Bu çalışma ders planları için uygulama öğretim elemanlarının asenkron uzaktan öğretmen eğitimi bağlamında verdikleri yazılı geri bildirimlerinde üst söylem belirleyicilerinin kullanımını ve öğretmen adaylarının geri bildirimlere ilişkin görüşlerini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda öğretmen adaylarının ders planlarına verilen dönütlerde bulunan üst söylem belirleyicilerinden bir derlem oluşturulmuştur. Hyland'ın (2004) sınıflaması temel alınarak yapılan inceleme sonucunda etkileşimsel üst söylem belirleyicilerinin (%75,08), etkileşimli üst söylem belirleyicilerinden (%24,92) daha sık kullanıldığı gözlenmiştir. Bilgi açısından konumlanma belirleyicileri (%62,13) en sık, tanıtlayıcılar ise (%0,15) en az kullanılmaktadır. *Sen*, *senin* ve *öğretmen adayların adlarının* geri bildirimde sık kullanılması, yazılı geri bildirimin karşılıklı konuşma özelliği gösterdiğini ve uygulama öğretim elemanlarının, öğretmen adaylarının geri bildirimde aktarılan iletiyle etkileşimini amaçladıklarını ortaya koymaktadır. Ayrıca bazı belirleyicilerin + dönüt örneklerini bazılarının ise gerçek olmayanları işaretlediğini göstermektedir. Öğretmen adayları geri bildirimlere ilişkin hem olumlu hem de olumsuz görüş bildirmişlerdir. Adaylar bazı dönütlerin açık olmadığını bu nedenle uygulama öğretim elemanlarıyla yüz yüze veya telefonla görüşmeye çalıştıklarını belirtmişlerdir. Uygulama öğretim elemanlarıyla görüşen öğretmen adayları, dönütlerde kullanılan emredici sözler ya da eleştirel sorular içeren dönütleri moral bozucu bulmazken, uygulama öğretim elemanları ile görüşemeyenler bu dönütleri olumsuz olarak değerlendirmektedirler.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Uzaktan Öğretmen Eğitimi, Yazılı Geri Bildirim, Ders Planları, Üst Söylem, Etkileşim Belirleyicileri

ABSTRACT

METADISCOURSE MARKERS IN SUPERVISOR FEEDBACK FOR LESSON PLANS OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS IN DISTANCE EDUCATION: A STUDY IN A TURKISH UNIVERSITY SETTING

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Department of Foreign Language Education

PhD Programme in English Language Teaching

Anadolu University, Graduate School of Educational Sciences, September 2023

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The study aims to investigate the use of metadiscourse markers in written feedback from supervisors for lesson plans and the opinions of pre-service teachers on the feedback they received in an asynchronous distance teacher education context. The participants were pre-service teachers who wrote lesson plans before the teaching practice sessions in the schools they were assigned. To investigate the metadiscourse markers, a corpus including these written authentic feedback samples was created. Qualitative data was collected from the interviews with pre-service teachers. According to the results, interactional metadiscourse markers (%75.08) are used more frequently than interactive metadiscourse markers (%24.92). Engagement markers (%62.13) are the most frequent while evidentials (%0.20) are the least frequent. High frequent use of *you*, and *your* and mentioning the names of pre-service teachers in feedback displays the dialogic characteristics of written feedback for lesson plans and suggests that the supervisors mainly aimed to engage the pre-service teachers in the message conveyed in the feedback. Some metadiscourse markers mark + feedback while some metadiscourse markers mark pseudo-feedback. Pre-service teachers expressed both satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the feedback. Pre-service teachers reported that they tried to meet or talk on the phone with their supervisors since some feedback was not comprehensible. While pre-service teachers who met or talked on the phone to their supervisors do not find feedback including just imperatives or criticizing questions in feedback demotivating, pre-service teachers who cannot meet or talk with their supervisors find demotivating.

Keywords: Distance Teacher Education, Written Feedback, Lesson Plans, Metadiscourse, Engagement Markers

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Adnan YAVUZ
Eskişehir, 2023

15/09/2023

ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ

Bu tezin bana ait, özgün bir çalışma olduğunu; çalışmamın hazırlık, veri toplama, analiz ve bilgilerin sunumu olmak üzere tüm aşamalarında bilimsel etik ilke ve kurallara uygun davrandığımı; bu çalışma kapsamında elde edilen tüm veri ve bilgiler için kaynak gösterdiğimi ve bu kaynaklara kaynakçada yer verdiğimi; bu çalışmanın Anadolu Üniversitesi tarafından kullanılan “bilimsel intihal tespit programı”yla tarandığını ve hiçbir şekilde “intihal içermediğini” beyan ederim. Herhangi bir zamanda, çalışmamla ilgili yaptığım bu beyana aykırı bir durumun saptanması durumunda, ortaya çıkacak tüm ahlaki ve hukuki sonuçları kabul ettiğimi bildiririm.

Adnan Yavuz

15/09/2023

STATEMENT OF COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND RULES

I hereby truthfully declare that this thesis is an original work prepared by me; that I have behaved in accordance with the scientific ethical principles and rules throughout the stages of preparation, data collection, analysis and presentation of my work; that I have cited the sources of all the data and information that could be obtained within the scope of this study, and included these sources in the references section; and that this study has been scanned for plagiarism with “scientific plagiarism detection program” used by Anadolu University, and that “it does not have any plagiarism” whatsoever. I also declare that, if a case contrary to my declaration is detected in my work at any time, I hereby express my consent to all the ethical and legal consequences that are involved.

Adnan Yavuz

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AI	: Artificial Intelligence
AIM Project	: Articulated Instructional Media Project
AAOU	: Asian Association of Open Universities
B.Ed.	: Bachelor of Education
CA	: Conversation Analysis
CAL	: Computer-Assisted Learning
CDA	: Critical Discourse Analysis-CDA
CCRTV	: Chinese Central Radio and Television University
CML	: Computer-Mediated Learning
COL	: Commonwealth of Learning
DMSP	: Department of Measurement, Selection and Placement
DELTT	: Distance English Language Teacher Training
EAP	: English for Academic Purposes
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ELT	: English Language Teaching
ELTTP	: English Language Teacher Training Project
IGNOU	: Indira Gandhi National Open University
INSET	: In-Service Teacher Education
ICDE	: International Council for Open and Distance Education
MOOC	: Massive Open Online Course
MIITEP	: Malawi, Integrated In-Service Teacher Education Programme
OECD	: The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PST	: Pre-Service Teacher
RESAFAD	: Réseau Africain de Formation à Distance
SFL	: Systemic Functional Linguistics
UK	: United Kingdom
UNESCO	: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	: United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
WWW	: World Wide Web

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the conceptual background of the study will be presented, and regarding this background, the problem that the study reveals will be stated, reporting the relevant studies and their results. The contribution and significance of the study to the field of research will be followed by the context and the research questions of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

Distance education refers to a family of instructional methods in which teaching behaviours are executed apart from learning behaviours (Moore, 1973), and communication between the learner and the teacher is facilitated by print, electronic, mechanical or other devices (Burns, 2011) such as internet-based applications. After the announcement of artificial intelligence (AI), its contributions to education have been discussed to be used in education (Holmes, Bialik, & Fadel, 2019; Käser & Schwartz, 2020; Şeren & Özcan, 2021). Distance education has emerged as a response to the increasing number of non-traditional students who cannot attend face-to-face courses due to various constraints, including time, location, and personal commitments. The concept of distance education has evolved over time, with new technologies providing new ways to communicate and interact with students at a distance. It is now possible for students to engage in synchronous (through two-way instruments such as online interactive classes in which students participate in the lesson interactively) and asynchronous (through one-way instruments such as video, audio, or text on written or spoken bases) learning activities, interact with peers and instructors, and receive feedback and support in real-time or delayed. However, distance education still faces several challenges, including the need of students for reliable and affordable technology, effective pedagogical practices, and student engagement and motivation. Besides, as Burns (2011) indicates, there is no substitute for in-person, face-to-face support. The "Media Richness" theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986) supports this comparison, as the transfer of more cues through media allows for increased interaction and immediate feedback. This approach also defines "uncertainty" as the absence of information and "equivocality" as confusion due to multiple and conflicting meanings in a message. The level of media richness is classified in decreasing order as face-to-face, telephone, personal documents, impersonal written

documents, and numeric documents. With the development of communication technologies, various mediums of communication have emerged, including text, audio, and video forms of communication. However, face-to-face communication remains the richest form of communication due to the availability of immediate feedback with multiple cues such as body language, gestures, and tone of voice. Interpreting messages and resolving equivocal issues is easier in face-to-face communication than in communication methods with low-media richness, such as text or images. Despite these challenges, distance education has the potential to democratise education by providing access to learners who would otherwise be unable to attend face-to-face courses. It also allows learners to develop essential skills, knowledge, and behaviours in a flexible and personalised way.

Thus, distance education continues to play a critical role in shaping the future of education because of the changing demands of learners and governments. For instance, as a result of globalisation, learning another language to communicate with other cultures or to cover requirements to apply for a better job has become more important in educational contexts. Along with this line, the Turkish Ministry of National Education announced an educational framework (1997) in which English language course was included in the curriculum of schools beginning from the fourth grade instead of the sixth in state schools (Keçik & Aydın, 2011). Since English Language Courses had been compulsory beginning from the early grades of primary school level in state schools, there was a great need for qualified teachers of the English Language. After the new educational framework was announced in 1997, private schools started offering English language courses from kindergarten, unlike state schools. Apart from education in state schools, private nursery schools and private courses also employ English language teachers. This resulted in a need for approximately 60,000 new English language teachers (Durmusoglu-Kose, Canturk, & Ulsever, 2002).

After the announcement of the new educational framework, Anadolu University signed a protocol with the Ministry of National Education (Durmusoglu-Kose et al., 2002) and offered a solution to the problem of the need for new English language teachers and started the Distance English Language Teacher Training (DELTT) program in 2000 (Keçik & Aydın, 2011; Durmusoglu-Kose et al., 2002) to train new teachers of English language online. The program was a blended four-year undergraduate program offering the courses face-to-face for the first two years and for the last two years through distance

education following the same curriculum as the face-to-face program of English language teacher education at the university. Same as in face-to-face teacher English language teacher education programs, the pre-service teachers in distance teacher education also had to take the Teaching Practicum and School Experience course in the last year of the DELTT program. The program applied blended model education during the course. The students sent lesson plans and received feedback asynchronously but applied practice sessions at schools in face-to-face educational settings. This course is “designed to provide the critical opportunity for pre-service teachers to demonstrate their ability to write lesson plans, deliver individualized instruction” (Caner, 2010). Before practising teaching English at schools, the pre-service teachers wrote lesson plans and sent their supervisor for feedback. Supervisors provided written feedback for pre-service teachers’ lesson plans. These feedback for lesson plans provide personal, individualized instructions, advice, comments, guidance, etc., for pre-service teachers. The participants of the study were the last students of the DELTT program since the admission of new students to the program was stopped as of the 2012-2013 academic year at Anadolu University (Anadolu University, 2022). Using the context of the DELTT program for the sampling, the current study investigates some aspects of written feedback for lesson plans in distance education. Even though the program has ended, and various feedback delivery techniques, including more media, such as online meetings, and video and audio feedback delivery techniques, are currently applied at universities, the issue of written delivery of feedback on students’ lesson plans and use of linguistic items to present the information in writing feedback remains to be timeless. Thus, the findings of the study in the context of the DELTT program are believed to shed light on and contribute to feedback providers while providing feedback, educational planners while planning teacher education programs, especially at a distance, and students to understand written feedback better.

To reach educational aims, interaction is an indispensable aspect of distance education (Abrami, Bernard, Bures, Borokhovski, & Tamim, 2011; Bates, 1990). Types of interaction in distance education are student-student, student-teacher, and student-course content (Abrami et al., 2011; Bates, 1990; Moore, 1989). Among those, student-teacher interaction might be synchronous through two-way instruments such as online interactive classes in which students participate in the lesson interactively or asynchronous through one-way instruments such as video, audio, or text on written or spoken bases. The studies agree on the importance of interaction (Anderson, 2003;

Fulford & Zhang, 1993; Juler, 1990), but the focus is on the comparison between the independence of the students in distance education and the interaction of the students with other students, teachers and materials, tools to facilitate interaction and effects of being interactive on success in distance education. Karataş et al. (2017) also studied the trends concerning interaction in distance education between the years 2011 and 2015 by investigating 544 articles and reported that “the researchers continue to pay attention to interaction and try to integrate new technologies into learning environments and examine their outcomes (Karataş et al., 2017, p. 63)” in distance education. However, as in the studies mentioned above, Karataş et al.’s (2017) wide-range trend analysis study also revealed that the focus in the field of research is on new technologies, tools, techniques and the evaluation of outcomes to develop the interaction between teachers and students. While interacting with students, teachers aim “to stimulate or at least maintain the student's interest in what is to be taught, to motivate the student to learn, to enhance and maintain the learner's interest, including self-direction and self-motivation” (Moore, 1989, p. 2). Moore (1989) suggests that without interaction with the content, “there cannot be education (Moore, 1989, p. 1)” and it is then only a basic transfer of information. In distance education, for teachers, one of the ways to continue the interaction with students and to reach the educational aims mentioned above is to provide written feedback on students’ performances.

Written feedback for students’ work is accepted as a genre in the academic discourse community. As an indispensable way to interact with each other for pre-service teachers and supervisors in distance teacher education, written feedback for lesson plans provides a rich context to analyse to reveal how some discourse elements are used to create this interaction. To that extent, the use of metadiscourse markers in written feedback for lesson plans will be studied to shed light on the characteristics of this genre. “A genre is a class of communicative events (Swales, 1990, p.45)” that share some set of communicative purposes. According to Hyland (2005), genre refers to texts sharing commonalities and is used for “grouping text together, representing how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations (Hyland, 2005, p. 87)”. Thus, as Swales (1990) suggests, “a discourse community utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims (Swales, 1990)”. Swales (1990) offered five criteria to define a genre: (1) “a genre is a class of communicative events (p. 45)”, (2) “is some shared set of communicative purposes (p. 46)”, (3) “Exemplars or

instances of genres vary in their prototypicality (p. 49)”, (4) “The rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, positioning and form (p. 52)” (5) “A discourse community’s nomenclature for genres is an important source of insight (p. 54)”.

Genres in the academic discourse community encompass a range of written and spoken genres such as textbooks, research articles, thesis, lectures, conference proceedings, essays, book reviews and written teacher feedback on the works of students that serve different purposes, such as including disseminating knowledge, advancing arguments, evaluating research, and teaching. Hyland (2005) suggests that the different genres of academic discourse community share certain commonalities, such as a focus on evidence-based reasoning, logical structure, and clarity of expression. At the same time, they also exhibit different ways of disciplinary-specific rhetorical preferences, interpersonal negotiations, convincing ideas, ways of presenting ideas and forming arguments, and are persuasive in search of the agreement of the reader. Hyland (2011) underlines that academic genres display persuasive characteristics and systematically structured forms to reach an agreement with the reader.

As a type of academic discourse, written feedback by a teacher on a student’s work meets the abovementioned criteria of Swales (1990) and is a relatively frequent communicative text type and a tool between teacher and student. The samples of written feedback on students’ work exhibit certain commonalities and have constraints regarding its content and form. The language used also provides a rich context to analyse and reveal how the teacher and the student interact in asynchronous distance education.

Written feedback as a communicative tool exhibits certain prototypical characteristics that distinguish it from other genres of academic discourse. For example, written feedback is typically evaluative, providing a judgment of the student's work concerning certain criteria or standards. It is also usually diagnostic, pointing out areas where the student can improve or giving suggestions for further development. In addition to that, written feedback on students’ work also differs in terms of its audience from other genres in the academic discourse community. While genres in the academic discourse community appeal to a relatively broader or, to some extent and for some genre types, to a certain number of anonymous audiences, the audience of written feedback on a student’s work is the student who receives the feedback. As Ädel (2017, p. 55) states, “in feedback, there is a specific recipient (Ädel, 2017, p. 55)”. To that extent, writer–reader interaction

is specific and “more truly interactive than texts written for a largely anonymous audience (Ädel, 2017, p. 55)”. Additionally, written feedback on a student’s work includes fewer amounts of words compared to other types of genres in the academic discourse community mentioned above. Thus, the language used in written feedback on a ‘work’ is designed basically to address and to attract the attention of the individual who performs the ‘work’. Thus, the main and only interlocutor of the written feedback on a lesson plan of a pre-service teacher is the one who writes the lesson plan.

Feedback aims to close ‘the gap between current and desired performance’ (Parr & Timperly, 2010, p. 70). Researchers agree that feedback on pre-service teachers’ performance in teacher education is paramount for their teaching experience and development (Cornelius & Nagro, 2014; Ferguson, 2011; Göçer, 2016). Feedback is important for teaching experience and development because it helps overcome pre-service teachers’ fears and concerns about teaching practice and an evidence-based practice to increase the implementation fidelity of instructional practices (Cornelius & Nagro, 2014) by providing a kind of intensive coaching. Feedback can occur between student and teacher and also between peers (student and student). The current study focuses on feedback from supervisor to student (pre-service teacher in the context of the study), and the other types of feedback fall beyond the scope of the study.

In the context of the present study, the focus is on written feedback on lesson plans. Lesson plans prepared by pre-service teachers in teacher education are a common text type which has its own format. It is written to determine and note down the steps to be applied in the lesson to achieve the pre-determined educational goals, and feedback is given to close the gap between the student’s current performance in preparing a lesson plan and the desired performance. While aiming to close this gap, the teacher tries to persuade the student to conduct the required steps while writing lesson plans by not only putting forward convincing ideas but also seeking interpersonal negotiation with the student. Thus, apart from the informational content in feedback, the role of the language, which is used to secure an agreement with the pre-service teacher and to organize the text, in feedback in this interaction gains importance. The study focuses on the language, thus, linguistic items used in written feedback to present the informational content to persuade the reader, to draw her/his attention to feedback and to organize the text. Hyland (2005) names these linguistic items as metadiscourse markers.

Hyland's (2005) functional categorization of metadiscourse markers is mainly based on the separation of propositional and metadiscourse aspects of text. This approach traces back to Halliday's (1994) Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). Halliday's SFL approach sees language as a system of choices to share meaning (Martin, 2011), with three dimensions operating simultaneously to create meaning in texts (Halliday, 1994): *ideational function*, which refers to the informational or propositional content of the language use; *interpersonal function*, which refers to the interaction between writer and reader in the use of language; and *textual function*, which refers to the elements used to organise text in language use. Metadiscourse, which is simply “discourse about discourse (Ädel, 2017)”, is the linguistic material, in a written or spoken environment, that does not add anything to the propositional content but is used to organize the text and to attract the reader's attention to the text (Crismore, Markkanen, & Steffensen, 1993; Hyland, 2004) and helps the reader to interpret and evaluate the information given (Crismore et al., 1993). Two models of metadiscourse are the interactive model (Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 2004; Vande Kopple, 1985), which sees it as a form of interaction between the writer and audience and the reflexive model (Ädel and Mauranen, (Eds.), 2010) which sees metadiscourse as a form of linguistics reflexivity in texts. In the reflexive model, a marker in a text needs to refer to the ongoing text, current writer or speaker, and current reader to be named as a metadiscourse marker. Both models are drawn in this study but Hyland's interactive model will be taken on as a basis.

According to the interactive approach, metadiscourse is about *propositional* content which refers to “information about the external reality (Hyland, 2005)” and is used to organize the text and to attract the reader's attention to the text. Examples of metadiscourse include illocution markers, attitude markers, and commentaries, as well as text connectives, code glosses, validity markers, and narrators. Different scholars have proposed different categorizations of metadiscourse. Crismore et al. (1993), Vande Kopple (1985), and Hyland (2004) agree on the separation of the propositional content from the metadiscursive aspect of the text. Vande Kopple (1985) categorises text-organizing metadiscourse materials as *textual metadiscourse*, and the materials to interact with the readers as *interpersonal metadiscourse*. In Vande Kopple (1985), *textual metadiscourse* broadly refers to *textual function* and *interpersonal metadiscourse* refers to the *interpersonal function* of language in the functional classification in Halliday's SFL (1994). According to Hyland (2005), a metadiscourse marker can have both propositional

and metadiscourse functions in the same text. He is against the idea of identifying a single function for each metadiscourse marker and proposes to study the function of every marker in its context in the text. Ädel (2017) also agrees with Hyland in terms of the multifunctionality of a marker and provides an example; “1. You become overweight but develop obesity or too much body fat. 2. ...submit a new version of the summary. (You can just e-mail it to me directly.) (Ädel, 2017, p. 60)”

According to Ädel (2017), *you* in (1) is a generic *you* in the real world and does not refer to the reader of the text and thus does not have a metadiscourse function. On the other hand, *you* in (2) refers to the reader of the text and has a reflexive metadiscourse function. As aforementioned, from this point of view, Hyland agrees with Ädel and suggests that not only *you* but also the other metadiscourse markers in his investigated metadiscourse markers list (Hyland, 2005, pp. 218-224) might not have a metadiscourse function and may refer to the propositional content of the text. To that extent, while investigating metadiscourse markers in authentic samples of written feedback, the present study does not rely on a ready-made metadiscourse markers list but focuses on whether each linguistic item has a metadiscourse function or not. While investigating metadiscourse functions of linguistic items in written feedback, the functional categorization of Hyland (2005) is used in the current study.

Based on this “multifunctionality of linguistic materials (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 172)” approach, metadiscourse is categorised into two base functions (Hyland, 2004, p. 139; Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 172; Hyland, 2005, pp. 33-34); interactive and interactional. Interactive resources have the umbrella function of ‘helping to guide the reader through the text’ to organize the text. Interactive resources are transition, frame, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses. Interpersonal resources have the main function of ‘involving the reader in the argument’ to attract the reader’s attention and to secure an agreement with the reader. Interpersonal resources are hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers and self-mentions.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The topic of feedback in higher education is the focus of a body of research, with scholars investigating a wide range of aspects related to this issue. Feedback can help students reflect on their work and how it is perceived by readers while also serving to help them achieve educational goals and develop skills. Written feedback is a distinct

genre with its own characteristics, including its intended audience, propositional and interactive content, and its comparison with other academic discourse genres.

Scholars have explored many different aspects of written feedback, including the types of feedback that students receive and the focus of teachers while giving feedback such as language, content, purpose, or structure (Bitchener, Baştürkmen, & East, 2010; Hyland & Hyland, 2019a), the effect of the timing of feedback, immediate or delayed, in distance education (Lemley, Sudweeks, Howell, Laws, & Sawyer, 2007), preferred types of feedback in terms of media richness (e.g., Shepherd, (2011), and case studies to develop feedback strategies for assessment in distance education (e.g., Uribe & Vaughan, 2017). The context of the studies: Bitchener et al., (2010) studied supervisors' feedback on thesis and dissertations, and Hyland and Hyland (2019b) focused on the face choices of the teacher while giving feedback. Written corrective feedback in L2 writing is another area of research, with studies exploring preferred types of feedback in distant language learning (Hyland, 2001) and the efficacy of written corrective feedback for subsequent pieces of students' writing (Ferris & Kurzer, 2019). The reflexive function of metadiscourse in feedback for students' texts is studied by Ädel (2017). Moreover, teachers' views (e.g., Hyland, 2001; Bitchener et al., 2010), students' views on assignment feedback (Carless, 2006), students' perceptions of tutors' written responses in the faculties of Business and Art & Design (Weaver, 2006) are also studied issues.

Weaver's (2006) results suggest that the feedback from tutors is valued by students in the faculty of Business and Art & Design (Weaver, 2006), but there are also issues with the feedback that students receive. For example, some students find feedback unhelpful in improving learning (Weaver, 2006) or not useful enough to improve their assignments (Carless, 2006), too general or vague (Weaver, 2006), or not comprehensible and clear enough (Carless, 2006), lacking guidance, focused on the negative, and unrelated to assessment criteria (Weaver, 2006). However, negative feedback does not necessarily demotivate students; positive feedback can increase their confidence (Weaver, 2006). In Carless' study, the lack of enough interaction between pre-service teachers and tutors is pointed out and conducting "assessment dialogues" between pre-service teachers and tutors is advised to "mitigate some of the mistrust or misconceptions (Carless, 2006, p. 219)". The National Student Survey (2014) has reported high levels of dissatisfaction with feedback, which has increased over the past ten years (Times Higher Education, 2014). According to Hyland (2019), students believe that written feedback could be more

useful for developing their knowledge and skills, but this is not always the case when teachers do not give enough value to feedback in the development of students' subject knowledge. Hyland (2001) studied the perceptions of students' feedback depending on the feedback types by their teachers. Mainly, Hyland categorisation includes two types of feedback: focusing on the product and focusing on the learning process. The latter feedback type was one the students favoured and found useful to improve their language skills. In contradiction to Carless' and Weaver's findings, Hyland's (2001) participants find the 'focusing on learning' type of feedback helps to improve their language skills. The point here is that students might find feedback useful depending on the feedback type provided by the teacher.

Carless (2006) focused on written feedback on student assignments, and Weaver (2006) focused on written feedback on students' works in a faculty of Business and Art & Design. Carless (2006) and Weaver (2006) found that students do not always seek clarification or extra-oral feedback from their teachers when they do not understand feedback comments. They may address other resources, such as books and dictionaries, to understand what feedback expresses, or they just ignore the confusion. A study (Kreonidou & Kazamia, 2019) on written feedback for assignments in the context of a master's degree program in teaching English at Hellenic Open University also found that only a limited number of students who received written feedback preferred to contact their tutors for clarification and extra-oral feedback in cases of vagueness or lack of detail. On the other hand, the ones who asked for an extra-oral clarification from their teachers about feedback reported their satisfaction with receiving immediate help and were aware of the benefits of immediate negotiation of meaning and direct feedback in a two-way conversation. Starcke and Kumar's study (2010) on written feedback for a PhD dissertation also supports the effect of the inclusion of more media, such as extra-talk between teacher and student, on improving the efficiency of feedback. After analysing her feedback with Kumar, Stracke made changes to her practices by using expressive feedback, such as praise and opinion, more often to motivate her students. Additionally, she recognised the negative impact of directives, particularly imperatives, and chose to use a more indirect approach. In another study, although feedback in audio format includes more media that makes the feedback more efficient, students favoured written feedback more than feedback in audio format (Shepherd, 2011). Shepherd's study focused on written feedback for students' work in distance MBA education. Shepherd

suggests this might be because written feedback is more accessible in terms of technology than an audio file. The students found it easier to read written feedback even on a bus trip than downloading, opening, and listening to an audio file consisting of oral feedback. As seen in the results of the studies mentioned in the paragraph, even including more media, such as audio, image, video, etc., while conveying the message in feedback decreases uncertainty and equivocality, the Theory of Media Richness by Daft and Lengel (1986), some students did not prefer to ask for extraoral feedback from their feedback providers.

The relatively up-to-date studies on perceptions of pre-service and novice teachers on feedback show what they expect from feedback but not what they think about the feedback they receive or the language in the feedback.

Studies on feedback in face-to-face teacher education context mostly focus on the effect and types of feedback on the performance of pre-service teachers after observing their lesson practices (Cornelius & Nagro, 2014; Kurtoglu-Hoton, 2016; Stevens & Lowing, 2008; Sweigart, Collins, Evanovich, & Cook, 2016) and perceptions of pre-service teachers and/or tutors in teacher education on feedback (Carless, 2006; Dowden, Pittaway, Yost, & McCarthy, 2013; Ferguson, 2011; Ketonen, Lehesvuori, Pöysä, Pakarinen, & Lerkkanen, 2022; Jin, Tigelaar, van der Want, & Admiraal, 2022; Scott, 2006). Among those, Ferguson (2011) focused on the perceptions of pre-service teachers on the form, detail and timing of quality assessment feedback, resulting in a requirement for personalised, detailed feedback on time. Scott (2006) also reported a need for improvement in timing and clarity of expectations of supervisors in feedback. Dowden et al. (2013) found that students prefer feedback that helps to improve their knowledge and includes explicit guidance on how to improve their future work.

The study of Jin et al. (2022) investigated novice teachers' appraisal of oral expert feedback in a teacher training program setting and showed that novice teachers gave importance to expert feedback to apply since it will contribute to their classroom applications. This shows that feedback is valuable for novice teachers when it is helpful to develop teaching applications in the classroom. Grainger (2020) asked pre-service teachers what they value in the written assessment feedback process. One-third of the students gave value to the feedback telling what the error was since it made them think about their errors and improve their work. Ketonen et al. (2022) report that pre-service teachers think that when they receive qualified oral feedback and when there are available conditions in the classroom environment to apply this feedback, their teaching quality

will increase. This shows that they expect qualified feedback to improve their teaching practices.

Written feedback on lesson plans in teacher education is crucial for pre-service teachers to fill the gap between their current performance and the desired performance to prepare lesson plans as they should be ready for their practice lessons. In asynchronous distance teacher education, especially in programs in which the only communication between pre-service teachers and supervisors is in a written way, written feedback plays a crucial role in reaching the program's educational goals. The effectiveness of such feedback and the solutions pre-service teachers conduct when they receive incomprehensible feedback remain unanswered. Thus, there is a need for more research on this topic to understand better the effectiveness and complexities of written feedback and how it can be improved to serve the needs of pre-service teachers better.

On the other hand, as in the other genres in the academic discourse community, written feedback has its linguistic characteristics to be focused on. Language plays a role in conveying propositional content and attracting and leading the audience through the information presented. To that extent, discourse is categorised into two broad sections: transactional use of language, which refers to content, and interactional use of language, which refers to interactions and attitudes of readers and writers in written discourse. The former is the discourse's informational aspect, while the latter is interactional. When producing text, the writers should consider the information, the meaning they aim to share, and the ways they prefer to present the information, which is the interactional content of discourse. The interactional content depends on the audience's background knowledge, expectations, and assumed objections or approvals for the subject. Thus, while organising the written feedback, the supervisors should also consider the potential objections, expectations, possible levels of background knowledge, and even the emotional reactions of pre-service teachers. Thus, to some extent, written feedback is not only about correcting errors but also involves the communication style of the feedback provider. This style of presenting the informational, i.e., propositional aspect of the text, is seen in the interactional aspect of the text. Therefore, the focus goes on the language or the way to use the language utilised by the teacher in feedback. To that extent, the topic discussed in the field is how the text is organised to present the text and to attract the interlocutor's attention in written feedback.

The way teachers present propositional content of feedback might vary depending on the potential psychological or pedagogical effect that might occur on the student's side. According to the research conducted by Hyland and Hyland (2001), how we communicate our praise, criticism, and suggestions plays a vital role in providing effective feedback, as it serves as an essential interpersonal resource for negotiating evaluations and judgments of student writing. Teachers need to carefully consider their comments to achieve various goals, such as providing information, guiding pedagogical progress, and maintaining positive interpersonal relationships. Criticism may lower the writer's confidence (Truscott, 1996), whereas excessive or undeserved praise can be counterproductive, leading to confusion and a lack of motivation for revision (Hyland, & Hyland, 2001). In essence, the way teachers provide feedback can either encourage or impede a student's writing development by shaping the interpersonal dynamics of their relationship. Teachers display a stance while they take care of these purposes and present the information by using some lexical items in their feedback. The linguistic materials used to present the propositional content in a text are called metadiscourse markers.

The studies on metadiscourse use in teacher feedback focus on either certain types of metadiscourse markers, such as hedges (Hyland & Hyland, 2019b) or certain functions, such as the reflexive function of metadiscourse (Ädel, 2017). Hyland and Hyland (2001), in an English proficiency course, teachers use metadiscourse to have a stance in feedback. For instance, they use hedges, interrogatives and personal attributions in feedback to mitigate their criticism and suggestions for students' work to keep their stance. Samples of interrogatives are categorized as engagement markers and personal attributions as self-mention markers in metadiscourse marker categorization in the taxonomy of Hyland and Tse (2004). Hyland and Hyland (2019b) suggest that mitigated criticism and suggestions may cause students to misinterpret or miss the point of comment in feedback. On the other hand, in the case of academic issues, teachers prefer to give directive feedback using engagement markers, except while giving feedback on plagiarism. Commenting on plagiarism, they still prefer to mitigate their criticism. (Hyland & Hyland, 2019b). Not in the field of teacher education, but also in other fields of academia, feedback providers use linguistic elements to display their stances. In Paltridge (2019), reviewers' feedback on research articles showed, in the order of usage frequency, self-mentions, attitude markers, hedges, and boosters. High use of self-mentions shows a strong sense of accountability and the presence of a sense of authority, leaving minimal room for discussion or

negotiation. Fortanet-Gomes and Ruiz-Garriado (2010) how reviewers show their stance in feedback reports on articles and compared their findings with Hyland's (2005) study on research articles. They report that reviewers' feedback reports include three times more attitude markers, little more frequent boosters, and a similar frequency of hedges compared to research articles. Ädel (2017) also studies the reflexive function of metadiscourse, in terms of reflecting the writer, reader and the text in feedback. Ädel reports a high use of metadiscourse in written authentic samples of feedback in which the student reader '*you*' is much more visible than the writer *I* in terms of reflexivity. Her results also display the stance of the feedback writer while commenting on claims and establishing interaction with the student.

The available studies mentioned above focus on the feedback for texts in the academic discourse community, such as feedback for dissertations, assignments, and other subsequent pieces of students' writings. The metadiscourse markers studied in feedback are limited to some specific types, such as hedges (Hyland & Hyland, 2019b) or reflexive function of metadiscourse (Ädel, 2017). In teacher education, the studies focusing on students' perceptions were conducted in face-to-face educational contexts. As observed in the available studies, there is a need to investigate metadiscourse markers in the context of written feedback for lesson plans in asynchronous distance education.

Regarding the results of the studies mentioned above, the study aims to investigate the genre-specific use and frequency of metadiscourse in written feedback on lesson plans and pre-service teachers' perceptions in terms of stance resulting from using metadiscourse markers in feedback.

As the results of the studies on linguistic items in feedback suggest, written feedback, as a genre in the academic discourse community, has its characteristics and provides a rich context to analyse to reveal how some discourse elements are used to create the interaction between writer and reader of teacher and student. In asynchronous distance teacher education programs, in which the communication between pre-service teachers and supervisors occurs in a written way, written feedback is indispensable in reaching the program's educational goals. As aforementioned studies suggest, the functions of lexical items, metadiscourse markers, used by supervisors in other feedback genres play a crucial role in creating the required interaction between stakeholders of feedback. On the other hand, the studies on written feedback for lesson plans are insufficient to describe the characteristics of written feedback for lesson plans as a genre

in terms of metadiscourse use. The studies focused on some specific metadiscourse types, such as hedges and boosters, or not specifically the interactional function of metadiscourse but the reflexivity function in written feedback for students' works. Furthermore, these studies were on written feedback for students' works, such as dissertations, assignments, and other subsequent pieces of students' writings, not specifically on written feedback for lesson plans. Thus, there seems to be a gap, and more research is required to investigate the genre-specific use of metadiscourse in written feedback for lesson plans in asynchronous distance teacher education as a supportive genre in the academy in its own right. This research is also required to shed light on the characteristics of this genre and also the opinions of pre-service teachers on the effectiveness of feedback in relation to the language used in feedback, in terms of using metadiscourse. Furthermore, pre-service teachers' solutions when they find feedback not helpful and incomprehensible in distance teacher education remain unanswered. There is a need for a study to investigate these unanswered issues and suggest possible solutions to how they can be improved to better serve pre-service teachers' needs. To respond to that need, the study aims to reveal metadiscourse markers and their types in written supervisor feedback for lesson plans of pre-service teachers in distance education and to reveal the opinions of pre-service teachers about the feedback they received and the effect and use of metadiscourse markers in feedback.

1.3. Significance of the Study

The current study might contribute to the relevant literature by shedding light on the distribution and functions of metadiscourse markers and might provide insight into the written supervisor feedback for lesson plans of pre-service teachers in asynchronous distance education. As Swales (1990) suggests, "Exemplars or instances of genres vary in their prototypicality (Swales, 1990, p. 49)". As in any genre in the academic discourse community, written feedback on lesson plans also has commonalities in terms of linguistic materials used. The study will also provide more insight into the linguistic characteristics of written supervisor feedback on lesson plans as a genre in asynchronous distance education.

The results are thought to be helpful to supervisors, decision makers and education program designers in distance education contexts in setting some criteria about how to organise written feedback on lesson plans which concern the needs and backgrounds of

pre-service teachers, integrate pre-service teachers in feedback by navigating them in text, help pre-service teachers interpret the feedback understandably. The supervisors might find the results beneficial for understanding the needs of pre-service teachers from written feedback. Additionally, pre-service teachers might be aware of what to expect from written feedback and what types of metadiscourse use make feedback beneficial or qualified for them. The findings of the study on written feedback in distance education might also provide ideas for pre-service teachers on how to write effective feedback for their students when they start to teach at schools in future.

Since the study will focus on the use of metadiscourse markers and their functions in written feedback for lesson plans of pre-service teachers in distance education, the results might contribute to the interaction between supervisor and pre-service teachers in distance education and also the linguistics of written feedback as a genre in the academic discourse community. The studies on the interaction between pre-service teachers and supervisors in distance education mainly focus on new technologies, tools, and techniques to facilitate the interaction and the evaluation of outcomes to develop the interaction between supervisors and pre-service teachers. Hence, discourse analysts might use the findings of the study to compare, analyse and design further studies on discourse in distance education settings, the role of linguistic items, especially metadiscourse items, in interaction in distance education, and the role of linguistic elements in feedback in different settings and communities.

1.4. Research Questions

Concerning the aim of the study mentioned in section 1.2., the following research questions are posed;

1. What are the metadiscourse markers and their functions used by supervisors in their written feedback for pre-service teachers' lesson plans in distance teacher education?
 - a. What are the frequencies of metadiscourse markers used by supervisors in their lesson plan feedback in distance education?
 - b. What are the functions of metadiscourse markers used by supervisors in their lesson plan feedback in distance education?
2. What do pre-service teachers think about the use of metadiscourse markers in written feedback?

CHAPTER 2

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, an overview of information regarding distance education, distance teacher education, feedback, the theory of Media Richness, and metadiscourse is provided. Additionally, research studies conducted on metadiscourse use in the academy, feedback as a genre, and the theory of Media Richness are elaborated and discussed by providing examples from the literature.

2.1. Distance Education

Education can be identified as the process of developing desired behaviours. Education is also a human right, as pointed out in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights Article 26: “Everyone has the right to education.” Traditionally, this process occurs between learners and teachers in face-to-face environments such as schools, universities, etc. In this traditional educational concept, whatever the methodology utilised in teaching, the critical factor of education is a face-to-face interaction between learners and the learner and the teacher. However, not all learners or the ones who have to hold a diploma or certificate for a future career might not have the opportunity to attend face-to-face education. At that point, the need for an education from a distance arises. The need for distance education results from the increasing number of unprecedented non-traditional students who cannot attend face-to-face education.

Distance education “emerged in response to the need of providing access to those who would otherwise not be able to participate in face-to-face courses” (Beldarrain, 2006). The same demand and offer chain continue shaping distance education environments and concepts. People from any age group who aim to have a diploma, advance in their career, learn anything necessary for their life or occupation and have social and professional commitments need distance education. The variety of types of people who ask for distance education and their specific commitments related to time, technical opportunities, delivery mechanisms of education, etc., shape the type of distance education they will receive. Those commitments and preferences design and determine pedagogical perspectives and theoretical frameworks behind the types of distance education.

With the changing demands of people who need education and the new methods of technology to communicate/interact with people at a distance, the concept of distance education has been changing continuously since it first arose.

2.1.1. Definitions of distance education

In this part, the current study aims to remind the existing definitions. Also, it reflects the points of view on which those definitions are based, emphasises the critical characteristics of distance education in them and, in the end, puts its point of view forward on the definition of distance education exerted from the available definitions.

Although the term *distance education* was first seen in a catalogue and used by the administration of Wisconsin University in 1892 (Caner, 2016), it was defined almost a century later. The term *Distance Education* was first defined by Moore (1972) as “the family of instructional methods in which the teaching behaviours are executed apart from the learning behaviours... (Moore, 1972, p. 76)”. Albeit the most common term is *distance education* in the field, reviewing the related literature, it is observed that some other terms, such as; “distant education, distance learning, distance teaching, open learning, online learning, asynchronous learning, e-learning, etc. (Caner, 2016, p. 215)” are also employed interchangeably. On the other hand, it should not be overlooked that synchronous learning and asynchronous learning refer to whether the learner attends the learning session when the teacher delivers education or not. E-learning refers to learning methods via the Internet. The variety of terms results from various definitions of distance education because of diversifying communication methods and education environments from correspondence education via postal communication, i.e., sending a letter in the 1800s, to the use of mobile technologies between learner and teacher. The change in communication methods between learner and teacher and the environment resulted in new types and terms flourishing in distance education, and inevitably, new definitions emerged throughout its history. However, whatever the characteristics in each definition are, the physical distance between the learner and teaching staff and teaching institution has been the main feature of the definitions by far. As cited in Keegan (2005a), the World Bank defines distance education as the separation of learning and teaching: “Distance education: Teaching and learning in which learning normally occurs in a different place from teaching (Keegan, 2005a, p. 35).” However, Keegan finds this way of conceptualisation unsatisfactory in definition and offers two separate categories for

education at a distance. He prefers to name further education at a distance in general as *distance training* but the education at a distance at universities as *distance education*. Following Keegan, *distance education* as the umbrella term will be used in the present study since the participants are university students.

Before revising the definitions by scholars, it should be kept in mind that distance education is not a term standing opposite to face-to-face education. It is not the flagship term defining all types of education not conducted in a classroom with a teacher at a school. At this point, it should be pointed out that whenever educationally, pedagogically appropriate, and necessary, face-to-face education applications can be utilised in a distance education program (Moore, 1987).

Focusing on the relationship between learner and teacher while defining distance education, Keegan (2005b) draws attention to the pedagogical aspect of distance education. According to Keegan (2005b), distance education is not simply a physical separation of learners and teachers but also, more importantly, is a pedagogical concept. Keegan describes this concept as “the universe of teacher-learner relationships that exist when learners and instructors are separated by space and time (Keegan, 2005b, p. 20)”. It is certain that both sides, the learner and the teacher or the source of knowledge, are separated physically. However, the question is not only the separation but how this separation should be managed in terms of pedagogy and interaction to maintain an effective and productive education. Holmberg (1995) takes the support of the organisation into account and defines distance education as

“covering the various forms of study at all levels which are not under the continuous, immediate supervision of tutors present with their students in lecture rooms or on the same premises but which, nevertheless, benefit from the planning, guidance, and teaching of a supporting organisation (Holmberg, 1995, p. 2)”.

As mentioned above, distance education was first defined as "the family of instructional methods in which the teaching behaviours are executed apart from the learning behaviours... (Moore, 1972, p. 76)", remarking on the ways of communication between learner and teacher "so that communication between the learner and the teacher must be facilitated by print, electronic, mechanical or other devices (Moore, 1972, p. 76)” much later than the introduction of correspondence education, which is the first applied model of distance education in the 19th century.

Distance education learners can continue working and family lives by choosing the time to study freely and not being place-bounded. This provides them with flexibility in

terms of time and place for education. Focusing on the flexibility of studying time and place for students, Bates (2005) provides examples of students in distance education. Describing the environment, family, and work-life examples, Bates (2005, p. 13) draws attention to the flexibility of distance education and, to that extent, the chances it gives the learners to continue their education. To sum up, he describes distance education, saying, “students can study in their own time, at the place of their choice (home, work or learning centre), and without face-to-face contact with a teacher (Bates, 2005, p. 16)”. Holmberg (1995), while characterising distance education, points out the flexibility of distance education in terms of time and place and puts forward this as an opportunity for adults with professional and social commitments. Similarly, McIsaac and Gunawardena (1996, p. 1), focusing on the flexibility of place and time characteristics of distance education, defined it as “structured learning in which the student and instructor are separated by place and sometimes by time (McIsaac & Gunawardena, 1996, p. 1)”. According to them, with the help of communications printed or delivered through electronic media and persons-engaged instructions, planned teaching, learning, and teaching in distance education are flexible regarding time and place. As it is observed in the approaches of scholars, whatever the definition they provide, the physical separation of the learner and the source institution, source of knowledge, or teacher is the common point in all definitions of distance education. In other words, the main concern in the definitions is that learning and teaching occur in separate places or sometimes at different times (asynchronous).

Citing the definition of distance education “teaching and planned learning in which the teaching normally occurs in a different place from learning, requiring communication through technologies, as well as special institutional organization (Moore & Kearsley, 2012, p. 2)”, Moore (2019, p. 13) highlights the keywords to define distance education. The word ‘*normally*’ in the definition emphasises the separation of place and time of learning and teaching. The word *planned* emphasises that, albeit web sources or digital materials are vastly used in distance education, this is finally the education process and should be planned “to make learning more effective and efficient (Moore, 2019, p. 13)”. Finally, the word ‘*organization*’ is utilised to emphasise administrative, organisational, and policy issues associated with the provision of such educational programs.

Learning from a distance or online can also occur without an educational institution. One can search the web or use online resources to train oneself to close the educational

gap from the current to the aimed. It does not have to be planned and does not need educational guidance, thus an institution or teacher. This way of learning is also not bound to time and place. It also occurs mainly in the individual universe. However, to the extent mentioned in this paragraph, distance education is different since it acquires planning, organisational issues, and an educational institution to plan or provide the source of knowledge and curriculum and technological support (Gunawardena & McIsaac, 2004; Moore & Kearsley, 2012). Planning, organisational issues, educational institution, and the teacher are the main characteristics that make 'distance education' different from online self-study. As discussed in section 2.2.1., there should be an interaction between the learner and the content. In distance education, the interaction between the teacher and the learner plays a facilitating role in the learner-content interaction. The latter type of interaction occurs through video, audio and written communication. Discourse in written communication is critical in building a good learner-teacher interaction and is a prevalent research issue in the field.

To sum up, taking the emphasis in definitions on the separation of teaching and learning activities in terms of place, Keegan's (2005a) categorisation of education at a distance at universities as distance education, and Moore's (2019) emphasis on the flexible (not place and time-bounded) and planned characteristics of distance education, distance education can be defined as planned distance educational activities at universities where teaching and learning activities occur at a distance.

2.1.2. Need for an education at a distance

Some emphasise that distance education is a response to the need for mass education since it provides a chance to be delivered to more diverse groups of learners, especially for the ones who are somehow isolated because of time or place constraints (e.g., Caner, 2016; Gunawardena & McIsaac, 2004; Keegan, 2005a; Mielke, 1999; Rintala, 1998). Others tend to see that it is a response to the needs of the industry for in-service or on-the-job training (e.g., Burns, 2011). First, we need to consider why people need an education in which they do not see any teacher or classmate in face-to-face interaction. People who need education might be unable to cope with the challenges of reaching it. Those challenges might be a disability, cost, time constraints, employment, responsibilities at home, i.e., child-care demands, or the distance to the location of the educational institute (Rintala, 1998).

They might be employed and also need to have a diploma and a certificate or develop their skills for the workforce. They might not be able to afford face-to-face education institutes. They also might not have equal educational chances in crowded classes in state schools compared to the students in less crowded classes in private schools. They might not have time to attend regular face-to-face education and live too far from an educational institution. Development in technology opened paths to new methods for delivering education to people. As a result of increasing demand from underrepresented and disadvantaged parts of society and with the help of technological developments in communication and delivery systems, distance education platforms have been changed from distance education via post to more technology, including ones such as TV broadcasts and web-based distance education programs. Distance education reduces the cost of education, allows access to distance learning environments, and allows flexible participation and, in asynchronous or recorded synchronous classes, watching or listening to the classes repeatedly without time constraints.

Additionally, with the help of distance education, learners can choose between remaining employed and staying at home with their families to take care of their children. They do not have to travel, be in face-to-face interaction and give up their jobs for education (Keegan, 2005a; 2005b). It also allows education to continue in extraordinary circumstances in which people have to stay at home or in safe places, such as war/conflict times or pandemics during which there is a danger of contagious diseases spreading. During the times of the COVID-19 pandemic, people felt far away from the circumstances of being caught by the coronavirus with distance education. Therefore, distance education becomes a solution for genuinely place-bound people (Rintala, 1998). How? By providing lifelong learning opportunities, easy access (also safe access during the security and health is the primary concern) to learning in an appropriate time and place for those who cannot reach traditional education (St. Pierre, 1998). In other words, distance education offers any time and any place learning environments to place-bound people by decreasing some obstacles for them to reach education (Caner, 2016).

From another point of view, learners who might feel anxious and nervous when asked to speak in front of the public in face-to-face environments benefit from distance education. Even if they have something to say in a discussion environment in a class, because of their anxiety, they stay silent, do not participate in class discussions, and remain to observe what is going on. In a distance education class, specifically, when

his/her camera is off, without having to speak in front of the public, they might express their ideas orally better or in a written way to their teacher since that way they feel less stressed. On the other hand, the pace of education might not fit into the learning pace of the learners in face-to-face classrooms. Primarily, asynchronous distance education can provide a chance for low-paced learners. This might be because of their learning capacity and having education in a foreign language to pause or repeat audio and video recordings of the lessons until they get the point in the subject taught. A student voice reported in Moore and Kearsley (2012) displays an example of how a low-paced learner finds asynchronous distance education beneficial for his/her learning pace;

“My first language is not English. I am taking both face-to-face and distance courses in the United States. To tell you the truth, to me the online interaction is probably ten times more than that in the traditional classrooms. In the face-to-face classrooms, I could hardly catch up what everybody is saying not to mention respond to them or say something about my opinion immediately. In the online classes, on the other hand, I can read your postings, questions, thoughts, again and again until I totally got your points. The best part is I can “digest” what you said, and then respond to you after I’ve organized my thought. That is ... so sweet!! (Moore and Kearsley, 2012, p. 140)”

To sum up, giving a chance to society's underrepresented and disadvantaged parts and reaching all and every part of the society (Gunawardena & McIsaac, 2004) who cannot attend face-to-face education environment, distance education provides equal chances to access learning, training, and updating skills of work. This way, distance education increases not only the educational system's capacity for regular education but also educational capacity in new subject areas. High educational costs in face-to-face education are another barrier for some groups. Distance education reduces educational costs. This way, inequalities between different age groups are eliminated and they continue work, family and educational life together (Moore & Kearsley, 2012). On the other hand, we cannot assign distance education a role of panacea for all the difficulties, shortcomings, and challenges encountered in traditional education settings (Mielke, 1999). However, it provides a chance for those who seek learning opportunities.

2.1.3. Emergence and development of distance education

Despite the renewed interest during the COVID-19 pandemic for the last few years, some historians trace the first samples of distance education back to tribal talking drums or cave paintings (Mood, 1995). Despite the vast use of distance education, it was not

named ‘*distance education*’ until 1892. Searching back through the history of distance education, Caner (2016) mentions that the first use of the term *distance education* was in 1892 in a catalogue of Wisconsin University.

The first sample in which we have more details, such as the tutor, the subject thought, etc., is Caleb Phillips' shorthand course. The first version of distance education was announced in a newspaper in Boston, USA, on March 20, 1728. Caleb Phillips, the teacher of the new shorthand method, purchased an advertisement in *The Boston Gazette*. Observing the rising need for distance education for the ones who were not able to attend his face-to-face lessons in Boston, Phillips offered a correspondence course of 'shorthand', a method of writing or taking notes using symbols instead of letters of the alphabet, and announced that “Persons in the country desirous to learn this art, may, by having the several lessons sent weekly to them, be as perfectly instructed as those that live in Boston (Farnsworth & Bevis, 2006, p. 6; Hefzallah, 2004, p. 279; Holmberg, 1986, p. 6; Simonson, Smaldino, & Zvacek, 2015)”. It was the first emergence of distance education based on sending lesson materials by post.

In Europe, the first distance education, which was a “composition through the medium of the post (Hefzallah, 2004, p. 279; Holmberg, 1986, p. 6)” was offered in 1833 by a Swedish newspaper (Hefzallah, 2004; Holmberg, 1986). In 1840, in England, Isaac Pittman initiated a shorthand course via *Penny Post*, a system of delivery of post anywhere in the country for a penny. We do not know whether Caleb Phillips's students sent their works back to Phillips and whether he sent letters back correcting their works or commenting on them. However, Pittman and his students continued sending letters to each other until the successful completion of the course by each student. This model of distance education is called the Correspondence Model by scholars (Moore & Kearsley, 2012; Taylor, 2001).

From the point of delivery systems of education from a distance, correspondence education via the postal system, in other words, learning via post, was the initial version of distance education aiming to involve people who could not attend face-to-face education. Since this was the only way of communication at a distance at those times, teachers and students had to write to each other to interact. Teachers used to write or send learning materials, such as topics and exercises of a topic in letters, and students used to respond by writing and sending back things, such as their questions about what they learned and answers to the exercises.

Beginning from correspondence education via the postal system, distance education evolved consistently with pedagogical underpinnings and technological developments of its age. As can be seen, distance education emerged from a need for education for those who cannot reach it, and sending learning materials by post to deliver the instruction was the only way of interaction between learner and instructor at a distance. The characteristics of the first generation of distance education were shaped under these circumstances.

With the help of technological innovations in the systems to deliver the courses and the use of technology in the instruction, distance education has evolved continuously from its first emergence. These evolutions are categorised under five generations (Moore & Kearsley, 2012): Correspondence, Broadcast Radio & Television, Open Universities, Teleconferencing, and Internet/Web. As aforementioned, the first is the Correspondence Model, in which instructors and learners share printed materials, study guides, and essays or assignments via the postal system. After individual initiatives by private tutors and a newspaper for distance education, the first attempt by an educational institution to educate people at a distance came from the University of London External Program in 1858 (Bates, 2016). This program gave the only chance to get a degree at the university level by attending courses at a distance before the foundation of the Council for National Academic Awards and Open University (University of London, n.d.). With the development of broadcasting systems in the 1970s, the way to deliver education also started to rely on instructions via broadcasting and recording media such as radio and television programs, audio recordings, and telephone calls to communicate with students. According to Moore and Kearsley, this was the Broadcast Radio & Television generation and the second in order. The third generation is called the Open Universities. The first samples offering mass education at a distance are the Articulated Instructional Media Project (AIM Project) at the University of Wisconsin in the USA and Open University in Britain. The former one started in 1964 and aimed to deliver high-quality and low-cost education for off-campus students by articulating various communication technologies. The latter one, the Open University, started to shape in 1969 in London to teach a complete university curriculum to any adult wanting a university education (Moore & Kearsley, 2012). In the 1970s, the technology of networks and media for teleconferencing developed enough to deliver lessons via two-way interaction. The fourth generation, *Teleconferencing*, flourished first in the 1970s with its early model of the application,

Audio-Conferencing, and later in the 1980s in a developed way via Video-Conferencing. It allows students to answer back and to have real-time interaction with their teachers during lessons. Highly interactive versions or video-conferencing applications have been commonly used in distance education via the Internet for a decade. Delivering education via online video-conferencing applications during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2021-2022 was commonly used worldwide and became popular in education even after the pandemic. With highly developed computer technologies and the arrival of the Internet and web-based education, the fifth generation, the era of 'Internet/Web' began, according to Moore and Kearsley (2012).

The change from the first generation to the second one is not only a generation change but also a shift from individuality to publicity of distance education. According to Keegan (2013), for a hundred years, from 1870 to 1970, distance education was mainly conducted as a correspondence study and the system was based on teaching a student at home individually from a distance. In other words, teaching from a distance had a private rather than public provision. With the beginning of Open University, using multimedia for distance education, in 1970, and following the success of the university, distance education gained more of a public provision with the help of learning via multimedia. Before Open University, distance education was based on teaching people individually via post. University of London External Program's teaching method was also the same. Open University's massive teaching method was conducted via broadcasting to publicise distance education.

On the other hand, digitalisation provided new ways to deliver distance education. Providing a new point of view, Taylor (2001) offers a conceptual framework for the models of distance education. Taylor's conceptual model assesses the five generations of distance education in terms of flexibility, refinement level of materials, interactivity of delivery, and institutional cost of media and delivery methods used throughout all five generations (See Table 1.1. below).

Table 2.1. *Models of distance education: a conceptual framework (Taylor, 2001, p. 3)*

Models of Distance Education and Associated Delivery Technologies	Characteristics of Delivery Technologies					
	Time	Flexibility Place	Pace	Highly Refined Materials	Advanced Interactive Delivery	Institutional Variable Costs Approaching Zero
FIRST GENERATION						
The Correspondence Model						
Print	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
SECOND GENERATION						
The Multimedia Model						
Print	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Audiotape	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Videotape	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Computer-based learning (e.g., CML/CAL/IMM)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Interactive video (disk and tape)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
THIRD GENERATION						
The Telelearning Model						
Audio tele-conferencing	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Video-conferencing	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Audiographic Communication	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
Broadcast TV/Radio and audio-teleconferencing	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
FOURTH GENERATION						
The Flexible Learning Model						
Interactive multimedia (MM) online	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Internet-based access to WWW resources	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Computer-mediated communication	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
FIFTH GENERATION						
The Intelligent Flexible Learning Model						
Interactive multimedia (MM)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Internet-based access to WWW resources	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Computer-mediated communication using automated response systems	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Campus portal access to institutional processes and resources	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Taylor (2001) provides a comprehensive framework from the first to the fifth generations of distance education to understand what is behind the teaching strategies. According to Taylor (2001), as the number of generations increases, distance education becomes more flexible, delivery methods become more interactive, used materials become more refined, and institutional cost decreases. Except for the first generation, Taylor (2001) named these generations different from Moore and Kearsley (2012). Taylor's labelling of the generations of distance education: the first, instruction delivery generation in which printed materials are used as the Correspondence Model; the second, the model which is based on print, audio, and video technologies as the Multimedia Model; the third, the delivery system in which synchronous communication between learner and instructor is provided through the applications of telecommunication technologies as 'Telelearning Model'. The fourth generation, the Flexible Learning Model, is based on using the Internet and computer-mediated communication in distance education. With the development and wide use of the internet, distance education has become more flexible and varied in terms of learning time and material. The fifth generation, the Intelligent Flexible Learning Model, as the name suggests, is a more intelligent use of the previous Flexible Learning Model and arose from the inclusion of additional features to computer-mediated communication and opportunities to access the institutional processes online and resources through campus portals. Tracing from the first to the fifth generation, one can observe the change in the use of technologies and available delivery methods, differences in characteristics of the flexibility of time, place, and pace, and interaction in the delivery of distance education.

2.1.4. Teacher education at a distance

The use of distance education at universities is a widespread application all over the World. The first use of distance as a term in a catalogue of Wisconsin University in 1892, and distance education via post by the University of London External Program was followed by Open University in England in 1970. Chinese Radio and Television University, Anadolu University distance education faculty in Turkey, Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University in Thailand, and Universitas Terbuka in Indonesia, and some universities in India are samples of universities widely using distance education to teach millions of students each year. The programs conducted at these universities are detailed below in this section.

As mentioned previously, having an education is a right for a human being. As the Universal Declaration of Human Rights article 26 states, “Everyone has the right to education (United Nations, n.d.)”. Thus, education must be free and accessible to everyone. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) set a goal for education in the World in 2000; “Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality (UNESCO, 2000)”. On the other hand, according to UNESCO (2001), there were 100 million children out of school, and they need teachers to achieve the target of education for all by 2015. To reach the goal of an educated community, the other critical stakeholder is the teacher in the classroom. UNESCO also pointed out that existing untrained and unqualified teachers, 60 million at that time, needed to raise their teaching skills. Thus, training a large number of teachers and education specialists and providing in-service training to them is an obligation and also one of the most significant challenges for the governments to plan and maintain education for everyone.

Planning public education and planning pre-service and in-service teacher education is the responsibility of the governments. However, the quality and the method to provide that education rely on time, resources, the capacity of the institutions, universities or government institutions, and the amount of money the government or universities can afford. The methods or applications are diverse among countries. Indeed, high quality requires plenty of time, high-quality resources and capacity, and a high budget to spend on teacher education and professional development of teachers. Countries known for their high-quality education offer extensive and proper opportunities for teachers (Burns, 2011). How much support governments provide for teachers' professional development and grants for the time the teachers spend on lesson planning and collaborative working with colleagues is essential for the success of an educational system. In most European and Asian countries, teachers spend less than half of their total working time on instruction, i.e., teaching in a classroom. The rest is spent on lesson planning, preparing teaching materials, checking assignments of students, evaluating and assessing students' works and exams, working with colleagues, and meeting with other teaching staff, parents, and students. Mostly, just as the time for teaching in the classroom is paid for, the government also pays for the mentioned out-of-classroom activities (Wei, Darling-Hammond, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009; Organization for Economic

Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2004). Most high-achieving countries build the time for professional development for teachers in teachers' workday and provide class coverage by other colleagues of teachers. Scheduling teachers' professional development and out-class workload in their weekly calendar keeps these learning activities ongoing and sustained. The majority of schools, % 85, in Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland schedule the professional development in their work day or week and fund these activities by granting for the time teachers spend for them (Wei et al., 2009).

For instance, Singapore pays teachers for their professional development. Also, it offers 20 weekly grant hours to visit and observe another teacher's class and work collaboratively with other colleagues on lesson planning (Wei et al., 2009; OECD, 2005). The Netherlands, Singapore, and Sweden require teachers to spend at least 100 hours on professional development each year (Wei et al., 2009). In South Korea, teachers must attend 90 hours of professional development program every three years (Burns, 2011; Wei et al., 2009; OECD, 2005).

As aforementioned, education is a right for everyone, and UNESCO set a goal for all governments worldwide to provide education by 2015. However, to achieve that goal, governments need to provide teacher education to millions of pre-service teachers and raise the teaching skills of millions of teachers. Besides the countries mentioned above that spend a vast amount of budget for the professional development of their teachers, there are also countries that cannot face challenges to provide education for all existing teachers and to educate pre-service teachers at universities. These are, in general, the lack of capacity to educate a significant number of pre-service teachers at universities and insufficient budget to pay for the time teachers spend on professional development. Not only countries but also teachers who need professional development and people who aim to be a teacher face challenges like time, place, and occupational constraints of people who would like to be a teacher but cannot attend face-to-face classrooms. To provide teachers opportunities to raise their skills and knowledge and strengthen their teaching profession, one of the ways UNESCO (2001) offers is using distance education or open and online learning. To achieve their governments' goals set by UNESCO in 2001, leading educational institutions and universities started distance teacher education programs for teacher training and education.

International institutions and agencies such as the World Bank, UNESCO, Commonwealth of Learning (COL), International Council for Open and Distance Education (ICDE), Réseau Africain de Formation à Distance (RESAFAD), Asian Association of Open Universities (AAOU) provide support to the countries not only in public education but also distance education for teacher training (Altunay & Mutlu, 2008).

Through the transition of distance education from the first generation, i.e., correspondence model, to the fifth, intelligent, flexible learning model, the development of computer, digital, and internet technologies marked a watershed for an acceptance of the increasing quality of education from a distance (Postle & Tyler, 2010). Not only the increase in quality of distance education but also flexibility in time, place, and pace, access to highly qualified educational materials, the chance to reduce the institutional cost of delivering education provide a chance for the governments to organise qualified distance teacher education and in-service teacher training programs with even limited budgets. Open and distance education programs on professional development for teachers provide in-service training and upgrade teachers from one teaching level/institution to a higher one. For in-service teacher education (INSET), open and distance education has been used for many years. The need for a significant number of teachers in education, the need for training, upgrading, and professional development of in-service teachers, the provision of new information and communication technologies, and the obligation of searching for new ways to use rare sources forced governments to utilise distance education in teacher education. Altunay and Mutlu (2008) reported some nationwide teacher training programs in countries, most of which are distance education programs and still being conducted, run by governments or international institutions in coordination with universities or ministries of education, in their study;

- In the UK, in Open University, graduates of bachelor's degrees upgrade to master's degrees; the National College of School Leadership provides courses, resources, and contact with a community of headteachers; in the Scottish Virtual Teachers Centre, teachers have access to educational resources through ICT,
- In Turkey, as a solution to the problem of teacher shortage for some courses in secondary and high schools, the Ministry of Education and Anadolu University developed a project. Teachers who were teaching a course but wanted to teach another course were given an opportunity to obtain a bachelor's degree diploma,

which is required to teach their new courses. Those teachers attended distance education degree programs to get their new diplomas to teach their new courses.

- In Egypt, the Ministry of Education provides a video conferencing network with short programmes for teachers
- In India, Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) provides (the Bachelor of Education) B.Ed. degree for teachers with two years of experience and bachelor's and master's degrees in academic subjects via 'Hints for Teachers' programmes via Bombay Television Centre broadcast.
- In Vietnam, the English Language Teacher Training Project (ELTTP) provides training for teachers of English as a foreign language in junior secondary schools,
- In the USA, Teletechnet Program at Old Dominion University: teachers of children with special needs are trained for particular qualifications,
- In the USA, the Department of State's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, the University of Oregon, and Coursera offer Massive Open Online Course (MOOC) for current and future teachers of English as EFL. The Department of State's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs also offers teachers of English as a Foreign Language an online teacher training course including fourteen video-based modules in which examples from primary, secondary, and post-secondary classes, supporting training manual, and supplementary resources are available,
- In Israel, Open University of Israel conducts a program funded by the Ministry of Education, providing interactive programmes on diverse topics through an educational network of 41 websites for teachers in primary and secondary schools,
- In Belize, Teacher Training College and in Burkina Faso, the government provides training for the professional development of primary school principals and headteachers,
- Malaysia provides online self-access English language resources for teachers to improve their language skills,
- In Mongolia, UNICEF conducts a primary teachers' programme to prepare teachers in primary schools for child-centred and new teaching approaches,
- In Korea, the Institute of Comprehensive Teacher Training and the Korean National University of Education prepare educators in kindergarten for reform in kindergarten education;

Following the goal of UNESCO to provide education for everyone in the World, governments, national and international institutions, and universities conduct teacher education programs. The need for teachers in a specific branch at schools or the need for more teachers in some school types leads the planners of education to design teacher training programs in which teachers or pre-service teachers have a chance to convert from one branch in teaching to another or opportunity to teach in another school type. Some teacher training programs also focus on educating new teachers in a specific branch since a significant number of teachers are needed in that branch. Some application samples;

- In the UK, in Open University, teachers of biology and chemistry have a chance by attending courses to convert to be a teacher of physics
- In China, Chinese Central Radio and Television University (CCTRVU) has programmes of qualification for teachers who aim to teach in the secondary level teacher training schools, and CCTRVU also provides a chance for primary teachers to upgrade to teach in junior secondary schools,
- In Malawi, the Integrated In-Service Teacher Education Programme (MIITEP) is a hybrid teacher education program in which pre-service teachers attend face-to-face training for six months and supervised and guided teaching at schools for two and a half years.
- In Nigeria, because of the need for trained and qualified teaching staff, the Federal Government founded the National Teachers Institute for distance teacher education,
- In the UK, Open University conducts a hybrid teacher education program, Postgraduate Certificate of Education, in which pre-service teachers attend an online academic study and also practical experience at schools,
- In India, Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) offered, not on offer since 2019, a distance teacher education for a diploma in Elementary Education to answer the growing need for teachers in elementary schools,
- In Turkey, the Open Education Faculty of Anadolu University offered a blended model, conducting both face-to-face and distance education applications, of distance teacher education program, the Distance English Language Teacher Training (DELTT) Program, to the ones aiming to be a teacher of English as a foreign language.

- In Turkey, according to the Department of Measurement, Selection and Placement (DMSP), in 2023, 38 universities have more than a hundred programs offering distance and blended education programs in synchronous and asynchronous environments (DMSP, 2023). Eleven universities such as offer blended programs in which courses are delivered via both distance and face-to-face. Eight universities offer distance programs. However, eighteen universities have distance and blended programs. In blended programs, the courses in which the application of certain skills is required are offered face-to-face. On the other hand, in distance education programs, courses are delivered via both synchronous and asynchronous distance applications. When students need extra talk and have questions about the lessons, assignments, projects and the feedback or grading, they receive, they can have online meetings with teachers during teachers' office hours.

The participants of the current study are pre-service teachers from the DELTT program mentioned above. Therefore, besides the details about this program, the educational and conceptual background of the creation of the DELTT program will be mentioned beginning from the point that the need for a significant number of English language teachers arose in Turkey.

2.1.4.1. Distance English Language Teacher Training (DELTT) program at Anadolu University

The need to learn a foreign language arises from communicating with other cultures, having an education or working abroad, cooperating on a project abroad, and working with foreigners, etc. The most common foreign language learned and utilised by people is English. The governments design education in countries according to the current or future needs that their countries will face to integrate or develop economically or culturally. To raise the number of literate people and to provide education for all, the government in Turkey announced that eight years of primary education would be compulsory beginning in 1998. From then on, English language classes in 4th and 5th grades would be compulsory as in 6th, 7th, and 8th grades in primary education. This fast gear change in the education system emerged a need for thousands of new English language teachers. The following development program (1999-2006) issued by the government estimated the shortage of almost 60 thousand English language teachers at

schools for the following years. The only way to respond to this highly increased demand was to start a distance English language teacher education program. Since Anadolu University was an authorised university in 2000 to conduct distance education all over the country, the Ministry of National Education and Anadolu University signed a protocol to initiate the Distance English Language Teacher Training (DELTT) Program in February 2000 (Keçik & Aydın, 2011; Köse et al., 2002). The program offered a blended model of teacher education, conducted both face-to-face during the first two years and distance education applications during the last two years for the students aiming to be a teacher of the English language as a foreign language. As of the 2012-2013 academic year, the admission of new students to the DELTT program has been stopped (Anadolu University, n.d.).

The DELTT was a bachelor's degree program initiated in the academic year of 2000-2001 and accepted 2,500 pre-service teachers in the first year to educate for primary and higher education. By the Ministry of National Education of Turkey, the program is also accepted equal to those conventional face-to-face English language teacher education programs offered in other universities in the country. The pre-service teachers also had the right to receive an 'associate degree' by successfully completing the first two years, provided they withdrew from the whole program. The ones who have an associate degree and the ones who start the third year without repeating any course from the first two years have the opportunity to teach at state and private primary schools and high schools (Altunay & Mutlu, 2008; Keçik & Aydın, 2011).

The English Language Teaching (ELT) Department of Education Faculty was responsible for designing and preparing course contents, curriculum, and writing books for courses and course syllabuses. The Open Education Faculty of Anadolu University was responsible for publishing and delivering the books for the courses at the time of enrolment, coordinating the program, and filming the videos and animations for the courses. The first two years' courses mainly focused on language skills such as reading, writing, speaking, translation, and grammar. They were taught in face-to-face classroom environments in various cities in Turkey. After receiving qualifications in language skills in the first two years, the following two years, content courses were offered at a distance in the third and fourth. Having face-to-face education in a classroom environment gives a chance to the pre-service teachers to generate a sense of community and a sense of belonging to the institution and know and get familiar with each other and their teachers

for better interaction in distance education in the third and fourth years. Of the seventeen courses, eight from the first year and nine from the second, six first-year and four second-year courses, which were language skill courses, were offered face-to-face. Of the other seven courses, two first-year courses (Introduction to Teaching Profession and Computer courses) and four second-year courses (Written and Oral Discourse in Turkish, Atatürk's Principals and History of Turkish Revolution, Planning and Evaluation in Teaching, Development, and Learning) were taught at a distance. Only one course, School Experience I, was conducted at schools by attending teaching practices with teachers of the English language. For the courses offered at a distance, pre-service teachers prepared for the exams by studying from the books and materials from the Open Education Faculty. On the other hand, all the courses in the third and fourth years, except School Experience II which was conducted in natural classroom environments at schools, were offered via distance education. For the fifteen courses in two years, five from the third year and five from the fourth year, a total of ten courses, pre-service teachers were provided online learning materials in addition to the books given. For the School Experience Courses in the fourth year, face-to-face academic facilitation service was also available for pre-service teachers in addition to the books for the courses to increase the efficiency of the courses (Altunay & Mutlu, 2008; Keçik & Aydın, 2011; Durmusoglu-Kose et al., 2002).

The pre-service teachers in the program took written exams during the courses. The exams were assessed according to the criteria by the tutors, and assessed copies were sent back to the pre-service teachers. The copies of assessed exam papers included feedback, comments, and suggestions from tutors, which allowed pre-service teachers to see their mistakes and what they misunderstood during their education. For some years, the 'School Experience 1' course was given during the second semester of the second year, but later, the course started to be given during the second semester in the third year. Pre-service teachers practised five micro-teaching sessions during this practice course in natural classroom environments. Before conducting each micro-teaching, pre-service teachers wrote lesson plans for each session and sent them to their supervisors. Supervisors checked the lesson plans, provided written feedback, and returned them online. Then, considering the comments and suggestions in the supervisor's feedback, pre-service teachers reviewed their lesson plans, applied the required changes, and conducted micro-teaching sessions. The same procedure, plan writing session plan-feedback-reviewing the plan-conducting, was conducted for the School Experience II

course during the second semester of the fourth year. The only but natural difference was that the plans for lessons were longer than the plans for micro-teaching sessions. Though pre-service teachers interacted face-to-face with their supervisors and classmates during the first two years. During the last two years, the interaction between pre-service teachers, supervisors, and academic facilitators was based on written communication through emails, feedback consisting of comments and suggestions on exam papers, micro-teaching sessions, and lesson plans. Thus, to provide effective interaction between stakeholders of the program and for an effective learning and interactive environment in distance education, as the only way of interaction between the participants, written communication through feedback gains importance. To that extent, one of the focuses of the present study is the language elements, in other words, metadiscourse markers, and their functions facilitating the transmitting of the aimed information in discourse to the other side, i.e., from the supervisor to the reader of the information.

2.2. Interaction in Distance Education

As an alternative to face-to-face education, distance education has its own characteristics. Interaction is an indispensable aspect of distance education (Abrami et al., 2011; Bates, 1990; Burns, 2011; Holmberg, 2005). Teaching at a distance can be efficient by understanding the role and the characteristics of interaction and using it competently in communications. The crucial role of interaction in education is unquestionable. Moore (1989) emphasises this role, stating; “there cannot be education (Moore, 1989, p. 1)” without interaction. Interaction can be defined as communication or “reciprocal events that require at least two objects and two actions (Wagner, 1994, p. 8)”. As the definition suggests, there must be a mutual influence between these objects or actions to speak of an interaction. Hence, when an object executes an action towards another, if the other displays a response, then, in this case, we can say that an interaction occurs. The response might be in various communicational ways and does not have to be verbal or conscious. The studies agree on the importance of interaction (Anderson, 2003; Fulford & Zhang, 1993; Juler, 1990), but the focus is on the comparison between the independence of the students in distance education and the interaction of the students with the other students, teachers, and materials, tools to facilitate interaction and effects of being interactive on success in distance education. Karataş et al. (2017) also studied the trends concerning interaction in distance education between the years 2011 and 2015 by investigating 544

articles and reported that “the researchers continue to pay attention to interaction and try to integrate new technologies into learning environments and examine their outcomes (Karataş et al., 2017, p. 63)” in distance education. However, as in the studies mentioned above, Karataş et al.’s (2017) wide-range trend analysis study also revealed that the focus in the field of research is on new technologies, tools, techniques, and the evaluation of outcomes to develop the interaction.

2.2.1. Types of interaction

The terms interaction and interactivity are used interchangeably. According to Burns M. (2011), some of the features that the term interactivity includes are:

“Learner interaction with an object or a person in a way that allows learners to improve their knowledge and skills in a particular domain; Multiple communication between learners around an object of study, a tool, or an experience; Learner control and program adaptation based on learner input; Reciprocal process of information exchange and sharing ideas between students and teachers. (Burns, 2011, p. 36)”

These features also represent the required types of interaction in distance education to reach educational aims. The first emphasises the importance of interaction to achieve educational goals. The second one represents the interaction between learners. The third one is about another interaction between the two stakeholders of this educational process: the interaction between student and teacher. The last one is also a crucial interaction type, learner-content interaction, that facilitates learning.

Thus, the types of interaction in distance education are student-student, student-teacher, and student-course content (Abrami et al., 2011; Bates, 1990; Holmberg, 2005; Moore, 1989). As aforementioned, Moore (1989) suggests that without interaction, “there cannot be education (Moore, 1989, p. 1)” and it is then only a basic transfer of information. At this point, interaction's role in stimulating learning bears in mind. Besides the three types of interaction defined by Abrami et al. (2011), Bates (1990), and Moore (1989), Sutton (2001) mentions vicarious interaction, and Hillman, Willis, and Gunawardena (1994) suggest student-interface interaction. The interaction type defined by Sutton (2001) occurs when a student actively engages in mentally processing both aspects of a direct interaction, whether it involves two other students or a student and the instructor. In other words, it is an interaction when students observe and use the results derived from the interactions between other objects or activities for their learning. Hillman et al. (1994) draw the role of the interface as a mediating component in

interaction. According to them, learner-interface interaction is a process of manipulating the tools used to achieve a task. Friesen and Kuskis (2012) suggest that all types of interactions in distance education are technologically mediated. Hence, Friesen and Kuskis (2012) choose not to focus on the interaction between the student and the interface as a separate interaction type.

Anderson and Garrison (1998) provide a diagram between student, content, and teacher in terms of interaction and mention Content-Content, Teacher-Content, and Teacher-Teacher interactions in the distance education concept (see Figure 1.2. below).

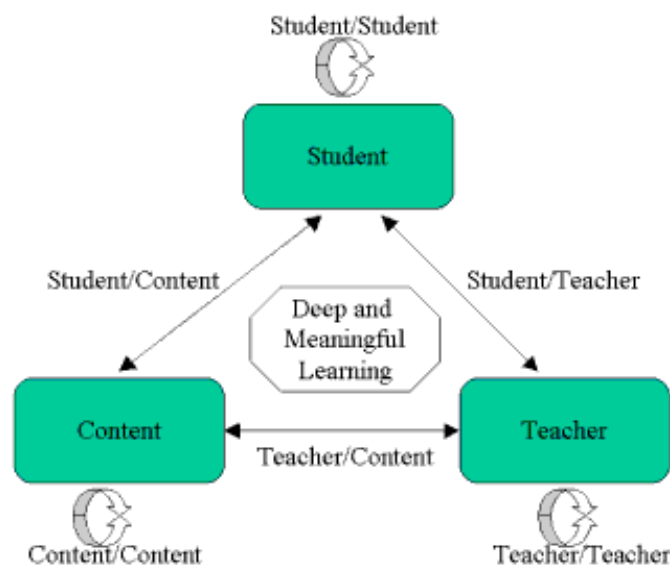


Figure 2.1. *Modes of interaction in distance education (The figure retrieved from Anderson and Garrison, 1998)*

Anderson (2003) also favours the types of interaction mentioned by Bates (1990) and Moore (1989). Anderson, insisting on the importance of interaction for learning in distance education, develops the Equivalency Theorem as follows.

“Deep and meaningful formal learning is supported as long as one of the three forms of interaction (student-teacher; student-student; student-content) is at a high level. The other two may be offered at minimal levels, or even eliminated, without degrading the educational experience. High levels of more than one of these three modes will likely provide a more satisfying educational experience, though these experiences may not be as cost or time effective as less interactive learning sequences. (Anderson, 2003, p. 4)”

Anderson's above explanation also proves the crucial role of interaction by emphasising that even the presence of one of three types of interaction supports deep and meaningful learning.

Student-student interaction is the first one here to discuss its roles. The most common way to distribute education, preferred by planners of education more cost-effective than individual teaching, is forming a classroom of students. This is because, for teachers or the institutions that design or conduct the education, the delivery of education to a group is cheaper in terms of presenting knowledge, applying syllabi, evaluating the progress of students, and providing support. In face-to-face environments, the dynamics of the group of students create inter-group (student-student) interaction easier than in education at a distance. Since they need to interact with their peers, not only the group of students in a class but also the ones who get individual distance education at a university or institution join social media groups to learn how to interact with the content delivered by the institution. Interacting with other learners might be beneficial for students to share experiences and knowledge or ways to construct new knowledge presented in the content. This type of interaction can also motivate, encourage, inspire, and stimulate students.

Education occurs through the application of the process of learning with specific content. Hence, the interaction between the student and the content is crucial for the planned education. As articulated by Anderson (2003), Juler (1990), and Moore (1989), student-content interaction is a critical component not only campus-based but also education at a distance. With the help of effective student-content interaction, students can construct their schema of knowledge by questioning, self-evaluating, finding missing points of their knowledge, reconstructing, and applying. The forms of student-content interaction have changed throughout the history of distance education. The forms changed, but the aim has always been to facilitate the student's interaction with the content. The oldest form was didactic texts aiming to instruct rather than inform. Later, explanatory directions accompanied study guides (Moore, 1989) during the first generation of distance education. With the development of multimedia technologies, content was delivered via audio and video tapes. As the technology used to deliver the content developed, students' interaction with the content became more efficient but still asynchronous and primarily one-way. Beginning from the third generation, the 'Telelearning Mode' and later on, in addition to asynchronous content delivery systems,

in which the student and the teacher interact during different times, also synchronised content delivery systems, in which the student and the teacher interact during the same time, such as the usage of audio and video teleconferencing started to emerge. Knowledge is constructed in the learner's mind. Dealing with new knowledge, the learner creates new perspectives and understanding about the new knowledge. At the same time, learners might have questions about the new knowledge they encounter in the distance education environment, i.e., in a lecture, an online lesson, or a text, and try to find the answers to those questions by themselves. According to Holmberg (1986), this is an internal didactic conversation. All these are the result of student-content interaction. As distance education is delivered through more convenient and various ways and media for the student to interact with content, the results of the internal process in the student's mind become more beneficial. This interaction is a crucial characteristic of teaching and learning. Without it, education cannot occur. If the student does not have a chance to interact adequately with the content presented in a text or in an online lesson, the teaching process will lead nowhere in terms of learning.

At this point, student-teacher interaction, which refers to the communication between student and teacher, must play a crucial role in facilitating the interaction between the student and the content. While interacting with students, teachers aim “to stimulate or at least maintain the student's interest in what is to be taught, to motivate the student to learn, to enhance and maintain the learner's interest, including self-direction and self-motivation (Moore, 1989, p. 2).” Teachers have a role in applying what is planned or achieving what is aimed in a curriculum of the content to be taught. This role also includes motivating students to learn and attracting or maintaining the interest of students in learning and learning material. As a link between content and students, teachers facilitate the interaction of the student with the content by filling the gaps between what the content means or aims and what is understood or perceived by the students from the content. To fill this potential gap, teachers evaluate students' progress and performance, observe their understanding level, personality, or philosophy and, if required, design and apply a new strategy to clarify and make intelligible what the content aims to the student. To sum up, having these roles between the content and students, teachers are not only instructors but also counsellors and supporters and encourage learners. Beginning from the correspondence instruction generation, the first version of distance education, this individualised instruction has been recognised as an advantage

and now extends to online versions (Moore & Kearsley, 2012). This type of interaction might be real-time, synchronous, through two-way instruments such as audio or video chat, instant messaging applications or platforms, and asynchronous through one-way instruments such as recorded video, audio or text messages, or email.

When the teachers sit to check the assignments, exams, quizzes, and projects or respond to messages or emails from the students, naturally, they start a conversation individually with each of their students. Each student's performance, misunderstanding, question, and application of the model are unique. Hence, can the response to a question, counselling, sampling of the desired learning outcome, and reference to required sources be the same for each student? In other words, each student is an individual who should be dealt with individually. Then, the content of a response to a question, email or feedback for a student's work should be individualised for each student. Otherwise, the process on the teacher's side becomes highly generalised but not individualised for each interlocutor. The generalised teaching process requires a high level of learner autonomy. No matter how much the learner is autonomous and self-directed or how high the interaction between the student and the content is, students are vulnerable and defenceless at the application level. Because even if they receive enough knowledge about the subject, they require a model or guidance on how to carry the knowledge to the application level. To be more specific, they require guidance on whether they apply it correctly and whether their application is at a desirable level, and they also need this guidance to be aware of all application areas of their knowledge (Moore & Kersley, 2012).

Then, the interaction between student and teacher in distance education should be individualised and play a role in enhancing the learning and providing guidance and modelling on the proper application of the subject taught. What are the ways to make better use of interaction in distance education in an environment where students and teachers are away from each other in terms of place and time apart? Here, the only way to provide interaction among the stakeholders to reach the aims of provided education seems to provide written, video or audio feedback for students' performances.

In face-to-face teacher education, feedback for the works of pre-service teachers while they are practising teaching, is valuable since it reflects comments or responses of their mentors for their application of knowledge in a natural classroom environment. In asynchronous distance teacher education, written feedback on the lesson plans of pre-service teachers is a way of interaction between supervisors and pre-service teachers. This

is the only way for pre-service teachers to observe how their works or applications of their knowledge are appreciated or criticised.

Therefore, the use of language in feedback, in other words, how supervisors convey the message in the target propositional content and the other language items in written feedback for lesson plans to attract pre-service teachers' interest or motivate them, is crucial. The study focuses on investigating the linguistic items to reveal the genre-specific use and opinions of pre-service teachers on the use of the language in written feedback for lesson plans.

2.3. Theoretical Background

The information about the theory reflected in the study is presented in the following section.

2.3.1. Genre theories

In broad terms, discourse is defined as the ways of thinking and using language. Discourse shapes our engagement with the outside world and interactions among people and thus can be in both spoken and written forms. This can be personal, professional, or academic. Among those, academic discourse is the one utilised to describe the discourse in the academy. Discourse in the academy, namely academic discourse, is also a medium of construction of knowledge and social roles by academics and students (Hyland, 2011). Swales (1990) suggests that “a discourse community utilises and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims (Swales, 1990, p. 26).”. To that extent, since it includes genres such as dissertations, thesis, articles, presentations, lectures, etc., academic discourse is a discourse community. Academic discourse has commonalities and varieties, such as purpose and the characteristics of audiences.

Academic discourse might seem to aim to convey solely the information or the ideas related to the subject discussed in the university environment, but as Hyland (2011) suggests;

“All academic texts are designed to persuade readers of something: of the knowledge claim at the heart of a research article or dissertation; of an evaluation of others' work in a book review, or of one's understanding and intellectual autonomy in an undergraduate essay (Hyland, 2011, p. 179).”

Summarising some studies analysing academic genres, Hyland (2011, p. 177) identifies four main findings on genres in the academic discourse community and suggests:

- “(1) That academic genres are persuasive and systematically structured to secure readers’ agreement;*
- (2) That these ways of producing agreement represent disciplinary-specific rhetorical preferences;*
- (3) That language groups have different ways of expressing ideas and structuring arguments;*
- (4) That academic persuasion involves interpersonal negotiations as much as convincing ideas. (Hyland, 2011, p. 177).”*

In these findings, Hyland (2011) focuses on not the propositional content but interactional and text organisational features such as rhetorical preferences, ways of expressing ideas and structuring arguments, and interpersonal negotiations of academic genres to persuade assumed readers and to secure agreement among academics, assumed readers, and students. According to these findings, the persuasive aim of academic writing can be observed as one of the critical factors. Through this perspective, the main concern in academic discourse is not only to convey the informational content of the text to the audience but also to utilise organisational and interactional features of academic discourse to persuade the audience.

In other words, consisting of various genres, academic discourse, as an environment of discourse used between academics and their audience, consists not only informational content but persuasive aspects for that assumed audience (Hyland, 2011) and integrated interactional features that navigate the reader through the text and provide writer-reader interaction (Hyland, 2005). In textbooks, research articles, thesis, lectures, conference proceedings, essays, book reviews, etc., briefly written or spoken, face-to-face or online, academic discourse is used to present a structured knowledge-making, express ideas or structure arguments, to inform or persuade receivers (i.e., listeners or readers).

Various purposes, audiences, and commonalities in the academic discourse community constitute various sub-discourse types, i.e., genres. In discourse, genre refers to texts sharing commonalities and is used for grouping text, representing how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations (Hyland, 2005, p. 87). To that extent, a genre has common characteristics and refers to a discourse community. Besides similarities, variations from other text types are also crucial because text types spread from core examples of the genre to marginal ones. Swales (1990, p. 58) also emphasises

the purposes of genre and the rationale in a genre that is shaped depending on those common purposes:

“A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains the choice of content and style (Swales, 1990, p. 58).”

2.3.1.1. Feedback as a discourse genre in academic discourse community

Feedback provided on the students' performance by instructors, as a way of written communication between student and teacher, is a discourse genre, and its characteristics will be discussed in the following section. Ädel (2017) suggests that feedback on student work from primary to university education is a frequent discourse type. However, concerning other academic discourse genres, it seems to be a less visible genre and less studied.

Taking Swales' (1990, pp. 45-58) five criteria for genre into consideration, feedback meets all of these criteria and constitutes a genre. Swales' criteria (1990, pp. 45-58) suggest that;

(1) “A genre is a class of communicative events (Swales, 1990, p. 45).” and occurs relatively frequently. Feedback is a frequent communicative text type provided, for instance, for a text.

(2) “The principal criterial feature that turns a collection of communicative events into a genre is some shared set of communicative purposes, (Swales, 1990, p. 46)” and feedback is a communicative tool provided by a tutor, instructor, peer, etc., for the student to achieve an educational goal set by syllable or institution.

(3) “Exemplars or instances of genres vary in their prototypicality (Swales, 1990, p. 49)” and samples of feedback exhibit indeed similarities to each other. Similarities between feedback samples respond to the requirement of family resemblance criteria of genre for prototypicality.

(4) “The rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, positioning and form (Swales, 1990, p. 52).”. Feedback has constraints in terms of content compared to other types of academic discourse, such as dissertations, presentations, lectures, etc.

(5) "A discourse community's nomenclature for genres is an important source of insight (Swales, 1990, p. 54)." To that extent, feedback is also a genre since the discourse community names it as such.

Feedback, as a genre, aims to 'close the gap between current and desired performance' (Parr & Timberly, 2010, p. 70). In other words, it functions as a means to close the gap between the current level of students and the aimed educational level. In a traditional teacher-centred instruction model of teaching, the feedback process is a reaction provided by the teacher and finally received by the student but, at the initial stage, triggered by the student (Ypsilandis, 2002). Performing a learning activity, the student puts forth a hypothesis of learning. Checking whether this hypothesis is true occurs through feedback from the observer, a teacher, or a peer. To that extent, feedback is a 'Yes' or 'No' response and gauging device to the student's performance or understanding level through the received education and effectiveness of the learning process. As a response, a reaction, or a gauge, the significance of feedback is out of the question in an educational context. However, the issue which gains importance is its effect on the improvement and its compensating role for the interaction between student and institution or tutor.

The feedback that is provided to develop students' future works is formative feedback. It feeds forward and is an input to "enable the student to move ahead with their writing and research (Starfield, 2019, p. 364)" such as feedback for a doctoral thesis. On the other hand, summative feedback provides comments to develop the student's present work. Ypsilandis (2002) suggests another categorisation and offers two feedback types: initial feedback and feedback upon request. Feedback can be provided by the teacher without any request from the student. It can be during a lecture or a presentation by the student. On the other hand, it also can be provided upon request, such as after a lecture or a performance of an act. In our case, written feedback is provided by the supervisor after the completion of a lesson plan by pre-service teachers. In the field of written corrective feedback, other taxonomies or categorisations also emerged: Form-/content-focussed, direct/indirect, immediate/delayed, selective/comprehensive, process/product, collective/individual, pre-text/text-based (Calfoglou & Ferris, 2019). Thus, the written feedback, which is text-based in the case of the present study, falls into the categories of 'text-based' and 'feedback upon request'. Supervisors provide both form and content-based feedback while commenting on the lesson plans of pre-service teachers. Although

the investigated written feedback in the current study is on written materials, namely lesson plans of pre-service teachers, since the feedback by supervisors intends mainly on how to plan a lesson and less on writing mistakes, the current study does not focus on those taxonomies mentioned above as a research point.

Feedback differs from other genres in the academic discourse community with its audience. While dissertations, academic books, lectures, and conferences, appeal to a relatively, at least expected, large anonymous audience, the target audience of feedback is only the individual who performs an act or a work or a group of individuals who work together and perform an act or work. The content of feedback directly addresses a specific individual or a group of individuals, not a relatively anonymous group of people, as in other genres in the academic discourse community, such as dissertations, articles, etc. Thus, the language in feedback is in a more conversational style, where possible to stimulate the reader's knowledge of the subject (Ypsilandis, 2002), compared to the language in other genres in the academic discourse community. Since feedback consists of a more conversational style and from the point of the target audience, "it is more truly interactive than texts written for a largely anonymous audience (Ädel, 2017)".

Generally speaking, feedback can occur between peers (student to student), from student to teacher and from teacher to student. A performer, student, or teacher can also give feedback about his/her own performance. In practice, it is also called 'reflection' on one's own work or performance. By designing polls or questionnaires, course designers can obtain feedback about the performance of the course, instructors, or even learners' performance. However, in-depth individual and personal feedback about the performance and progress of learners can be obtained from the instructor. The current study focuses on feedback from the supervisor to the pre-service teacher, and the other types of feedback fall beyond the scope of the study.

“Feedback is a constructive judgement of a text (Hyland & Hyland, 2019a, p. 25)” and also an evaluation which points forward to future writing of the student “and the development of his or her writing process (Hyland & Hyland, 2019a, p. 25)”. From the point of developmental aim of feedback, it is an “asymmetrical expert-to-novice communication (Ädel, 2017, p. 57)”. Although the central interest of researchers or educators in feedback on written texts has not changed, the delivery methods of feedback have varied from computer-aided feedback to computer-delivered feedback, from teacher feedback to peer review or even student feedback to teachers, workshops, etc. However,

as aforementioned, the focus of the current study is feedback from the supervisor to the pre-service teacher. Through whatever method the student receives the feedback, theoretically, written feedback on the student's text represents a social-cognitive approach in a peer review environment since it is a form of social action, mostly continuous, between the feedback provider and the student, designed to “‘accomplish educational and social goals (Hyland & Hyland, 2019a, p. 40)’”. Feedback from the teacher might include information, comments of the teacher on the form, and content to guide the students through the developmental process in their writing. Thus, it is the assistance from an expert to a novice through the *zone of proximal development* (Vygotsky, 1978). With the help of feedback, the student has the chance to observe how the reader reacts to his or her work and also to have the opportunity to develop the work from the reader's responses (Hyland & Hyland, 2019a). While providing education at a distance through posted printed or online materials, the need to make students interact with the provided material appears. To respond to such a need, the interaction between material, or as previously mentioned content, and student, an institution needs to exploit various means to obtain the aimed result in education. A fruitful student-teacher interaction is not only a means which helps to improve the interaction between student and content but can also play a unique role in achieving the goal expected from education. In a distance education setting, in which the teaching activity is conducted mainly by posting printed or online materials, written or spoken feedback by teachers for students' performances or questions from them on teaching materials is one of the ways to establish interaction and to reach this aim of teachers' educational aim mentioned above. Providing written or spoken feedback from a distance is also a low-cost way of interaction between the student and the instructor or the institution.

2.3.2. Media richness theory

Taking the considerations mentioned above into account, the need for an education at a distance is unquestionable for some groups of learners. On the other hand, comparing face-to-face educational support to one at a distance in terms of quality, Burns (2011), in her book on distance education for teacher training, claims that "there is no technological substitute for quality, in-person, face-to-face support (Burns, 2011).”

The supremacy of face-to-face instruction relies on the high availability of immediate and rich feedback in face-to-face education compared to any version of

distance education. The theory of *Media Richness* by Daft and Lengel (1986) supports this comparison. According to them, as the used media transfers more cues to the target audience, it gives more chance for both sides to interact through more cues. Thus, the rate and availability of immediate feedback increase. As the missing information and ambiguous issues in conveyed messages can be asked and immediate responses and feedback are provided, uncertainty and equivocality in the transferred messages are reduced.

At that point, it is meaningful to have a look at what uncertainty and equivocality mean. *Uncertainty* and *equivocality* (Daft & Lengel, 1986) are key terms “defined as two forces that influence information processing (Daft & Lengel, 1986, p. 554)”. When the transferred message includes insufficient information, then uncertainty increases. To that extent, uncertainty can be defined as the absence of information. On the other hand, when the transferred message includes multiple and conflicting meanings, this causes vagueness or ambiguity in the message. As the message includes more conflicting meanings, confusion and absence of understanding increase. Then, participants are confused about the information the message conveys and unsure what to ask. Not only in professional or educational settings but also in personal lives, the use of rich media to reduce misunderstandings, absence of information, or confusion plays a crucial role in better communication. Daft & Lengel (1986) classified the media in decreasing order: “(1) face-to-face, (2) telephone, (3) personal documents such as letters or memos, (4) impersonal written documents, and (5) numeric documents. (Daft & Lengel, 1986, p. 560)” This decreasing classification is in accordance with the media types' capacity for immediate feedback, the number of cues and channels utilised, personalised, and language variety (Daft & Lengel, 1986). The level of media richness is displayed in Figure 1.1. below.

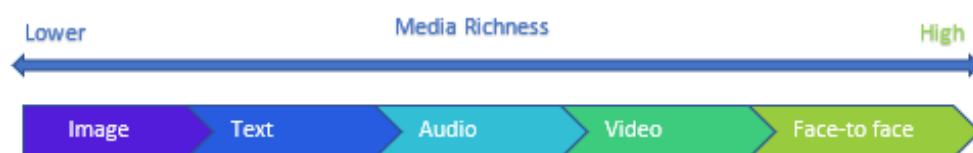


Figure 2.2. *Level of media richness in terms of communication forms*

With the development of communication technologies, various mediums of communication have appeared, such as instant messaging applications and various types of online meetings and social media platforms. Although those platforms included only some limited forms of communication at the first announcements or versions of them, currently, they include text, audio, and video forms of communication at one hand. Per se, this development of those platforms proves the need for rich media while communicating. Yüzer (2013) defines a rich communication environment as, “a medium that can transmit more and richer information in a shorter time (Yüzer, 2013, p. 116)”. Also cited in Yüzer (2013), according to Daft and Lengel (1986), media richness can also be explained as the correct understanding of the information transmitted within a certain period. The most decadent form of communication in terms of media is face-to-face since the availability of immediate feedback with the help of multiple cues such as body language, gestures, and tone of voice. Thus, the meaning can be checked immediately. So that potential misinterpretations can be corrected. On the other hand, a communication method with a low media richness, such as images or texts, includes fewer cues to interpret the message. Thus, interpreting the message and resolving equivocal issues are not as easy as in face-to-face education (Daft & Lengel, 1986). To provide an example, borrowing the example in Shepherd (2011), assume that you need to know what your friend thinks about the joke you made or how well your friend liked it. In what way do you understand it better? (A) You send the joke as a text message, and in reverse, your friend texts you *LOL*; (B) You tell the joke to your friend on a phone call and possibly hear your friend’s laughter; (C) You tell the joke on a video call and see your friend's reactions, (D) you tell the joke in a face-to-face meeting and see your friends body motions and hear the laughter. As can be seen in the examples, "video and face-to-face environment can provide the best feedback (Shepherd, 2011, p. 101)”.

2.3.3. Metadiscourse

We use language mainly to express ideas and experiences. This is the crucial purpose of communication. Language is used not only to convey information but also to present the information by organising the text and engaging, attracting the audience into what is conveyed and leading the audience to understand what is meant.

Hyland and Paltridge (2011) argue that since discourse;

“can be seen to spread between two poles, giving more-or-less emphasis to concrete texts or to institutional practices, either particular cases of talk or how social structures are formed by it”, people might “focus on the analysis of speech and writing to bring out the dynamics and conventions of social situations, or take a more theoretical and critical point of view to consider the institutionalized ways of thinking that define our social lives (Hyland & Paltridge, 2011, p. 1)”.

Approaches and pioneering trends in discourse analysis vary depending on what aspects or context of discourse are taken into consideration, such as gender, ethnicity, culture, ideological or identical, Critical Discourse Analysis-CDA (Fairclough, 1992; Wodak, 2001), being verbal or non-verbal, Conversation Analysis-CA (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974), the realisation of recurrent elements, Genre Analysis (Swales, 1990; 2004), the relation of discourse with images, gesture, action, music or sound (O’Halloran, 2011), and meta-functionality of discourse (Halliday, 1994), and metadiscourse (Ädel, 2010; Hyland & Tse, 2004).

Halliday (1994), pioneering Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), argues that language is a system of choices to share meaning (Martin, 2011) and approaches language as a combination of functions. Texts include three dimensions that operate simultaneously to create meaning (Halliday, 1994): *ideational function*, which refers to the informational or propositional content of the language used; *interpersonal function*, which refers to the interaction between writer and reader in the use of language, and *textual function*, which refers text organizing element. According to SFL, the text is a combination of these three functions (Halliday, 1994).

Metadiscourse is defined as discourse about discourse, talk about talk (Hyland, 2005; Vande Kopple, 2012; Williams, 1981), text about text (Mauranen, 1993), and communication about communication (Ädel, 2017). That metadiscourse is about propositional content, which refers to the “information about the external reality (Hyland, 2005, p. 19)”. The strands that emerged in the study of metadiscourse are the interactive and the reflexive approach. The interactive approach, pioneered by Hyland (2000; 2004), sees metadiscourse as a form of interaction between writer and reader, but the reflexive approach, pioneered by Ädel (2006; 2010; 2017), is stricter than the interactive approach and sees metadiscourse as a form of linguistic reflexivity. While agreeing with the interactive approach of metadiscourse categorisation and approach by Hyland and Tse (2004), Ädel suggests the reflexive approach to metadiscourse (Ädel, 2006; 2010; 2017).

Crismore et al. (1993) define metadiscourse as “linguistic material in texts, written or spoken, which does not add anything to the propositional content but that is intended to help the listener or reader to organise, interpret and evaluate the information given (Crismore et al., 1993, p. 41)”. Vande Kopple (1985) is similar to Crismore et al. in making proposition and metadiscourse aspects of discourse distinct. He refers to metadiscourse as “the linguistic material which does not add propositional information but signals the presence of an author (Vande Kopple, 1985, p. 36)”. Halliday’s (1973) assertion on how people communicate via messages is that people integrate three types of meaning into their messages: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. Following Halliday (1973), Vande Kopple (2012) offers three macro-functions of metadiscourse: to express their experience, interact with their audience, and organise their expressions into cohesive discourses. Hence, Crismore et al. (1993), Halliday (1973), Hyland (2004), and Vande Kopple (1985) distinguish the propositional content from the metadiscourse aspect of the text and propose their categorisations. Vande Kopple (1985) classifies text organising metadiscourse, including text connectives, code glosses, validity markers, and narrators, as textual metadiscourse, and illocution markers, attitude markers, and commentaries as *interpersonal metadiscourse*. In Vande Kopple’s classification, textual metadiscourse broadly covers textual function, and interpersonal metadiscourse refers to the interpersonal function of language in Halliday’s SFL (1994). Recategorising the first categorisation in Vande Kopple (1985), Vande Kopple (2002) offers a new categorisation of metadiscourse: text connectives, code glosses, illocution markers, epistemology markers, attitude markers, and commentary. Crismore et al. (1993) divide the textual metadiscourse into two subcategories: textual markers and interpretive markers.

Hyland (2005) disagrees with taking propositional and metadiscourse meaning distinct in terms of functionality. He argues that “a statement can have a dual function (Hyland, 2005, p. 19)” and can simultaneously be a proposition and metadiscourse marker. Hyland (2005) is against the idea of identifying only a single function for each metadiscourse marker and argues that metadiscourse markers can be multifunctional depending on the context and even “many express either interactive or interpersonal meanings (Hyland, 2005, p. 218)”. He also proposes to study every instance in its sentential co-text (Hyland, 2005). In other words, while the same element displays a function in a text, it can also be used in another function in the same text. Taking fundamental principles into consideration Hyland (2005) suggests that metadiscourse is

“distinct from the propositional component of discourse (p. 18)”, “expresses writer-reader interactions (p. 41)”, and “distinguishes external and internal relations (p. 45)”. Hyland and Tse (2004, p. 159) and Hyland (2005, pp. 48-49) provide a functional categorisation of metadiscourse employing Thompson and Thetela’s (1995) approach to the distinction between interactive and interactional resources. Their approach acknowledges the organisational and evaluative features of interaction. Hyland (2005) agrees with this acknowledgement and distinction and adds stance and engagement features.

Criticising the previous taxonomies of Crismore et al. (1993) and Vande Kopple (1985) regarding the overlaps in types and functional categorisations of elements (Hyland, 2004, p. 139; Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 172; Hyland, 2005, pp. 33-34) proposed a taxonomy defining and categorising metadiscourse elements into two types, interactive, of which main concern is the organisation of text to help the reader through, and interactional, which provide writer-reader interaction (Table 1.2.).

Table 2.2. *Metadiscourse Taxonomy of Hyland (Hyland, 2004, p. 139)*

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive Resources	help to guide the reader through the text	
Transitions	express semantic relation between main clauses	in addition/but/thus/and
Frame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages	finally/to conclude/my purpose here is to
Endophoric markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	noted above/see Fig/in section 2
Evidentials	refer to the source of information from other texts	according to X/(Y, 1990)/Z states
Code Glosses	help readers grasp the meanings of ideational material	namely/e.g./such as/in other words
Interactional Resources	involve the reader in the argument	
Hedges	withhold the writer's full commitment to the proposition	might/perhaps/possible/about
Boosters	emphasize force or writer's certainty in the proposition	in fact/definitely/it is clear that
Attitude markers	express the writer's attitude to the proposition	unfortunately/I agree/surprisingly
Engagement markers	explicitly refer to or build a relationship with the reader	consider/ note that/you can see that
Self-mentions	explicit reference to author(s)	I/we/my/our

According to Hyland;

“Interactive resources concern the ways writers signal the arrangement of their texts based on their appreciation of the reader's likely knowledge and understanding. This influences the 'reader-friendliness' of a text and primarily involves the management of information flow, addressing how writers guide readers by anticipating their likely reactions and needs. Interactional resources, on the other hand, are more personal and involve the reader collaboratively in the development of the text (Hyland, 2005a, pp. 43-44).”

In other words, interactive resources refer to the writer's goal to organise the text according to knowledge, interests, rhetorical expectations, and processing abilities (Hyland, 2005). Using interactional resources, the writer acknowledges the audience's probable assumptions or objections, engages the audience in the text, and makes his or her views explicit.

On the other hand, the linguistic reflexive approach of metadiscourse (Ädel & Mauranen (Eds.), 2010) suggests that metadiscourse serves mainly three functions of language: metalinguistic, expressive, and directive. According to the reflexive model, metadiscourse includes discourse itself, which refers to the metalinguistic function; writer or speaker persona, which refers to the expressive function; and potential audience, which refers to the directive function of metadiscourse. Ädel illustrates the relation of these functions with a triangle (See Figure 1.3).

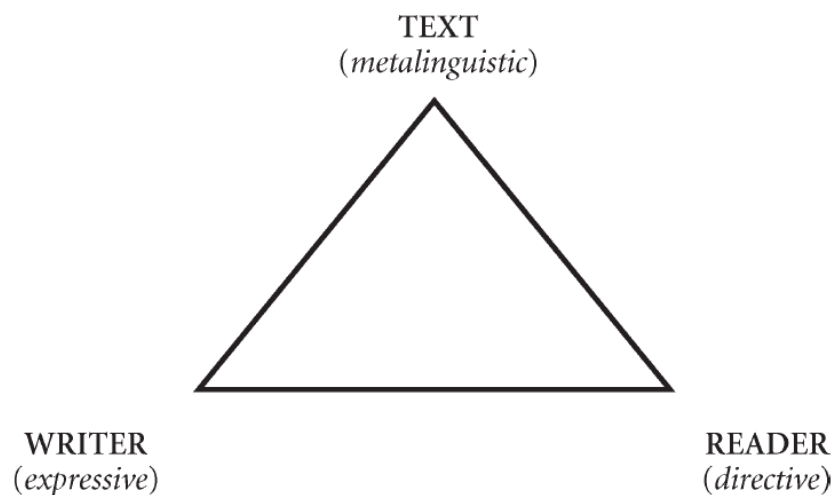


Figure 2.3. *The reflexive triangle (Ädel, 2006, p. 28)*

In this model, the phenomenon of metadiscourse is restricted, and for a marker to be called a metadiscourse marker, it needs to refer to the ongoing text, current writer or

speaker, and current reader. For instance, markers referring to other texts are not accepted as metadiscourse and are considered intertextual. Ädel (2010) offers an extensive categorisation of metadiscourse based on a linguistic reflexive approach. The current research draws on both models but focuses on interactive function and the use of metadiscourse mainly categorised by Hyland and Tse (2004).

Although Hyland (2005) provided a list of “Metadiscourse items investigated (Hyland, 2005, pp. 218-224)” he suggests that a metadiscourse marker can be used in more than one function in a text and thus can be multifunctional. In other words, the same word can have a propositional/informational function in a sentence and a metadiscourse function in a sentence in the same text. Therefore, a word/marker's function must be investigated rather than relying on a fixed list of metadiscourse markers.

Hyland's extended list displays metadiscourse markers used in the academic discourse community. Some other metadiscourse markers used in academic texts were studied by scholars, such as *like, you know* by Bussman (1984), Croucher (2004), and Schiffrin (1987), *so called, what some people call, what I mean* by Vande Kople (1997).

Ädel (2017) agrees with Hyland in terms of the multifunctionality of a marker. For instance, “1. You become overweight but develop obesity or too much body fat. 2. ...submit a new version of summary. (You can just e-mail it to me directly.) (Ädel, 2017, p. 60)”. According to Ädel, *you* in example one is a generic *you* in the real world and not referring to the reader of the text. On the other hand, in the second example, *you* refer directly to the text's reader and have a reflexive metadiscourse function. Hyland categorises *you* as an engagement marker to refer explicitly to build a relationship with the reader or attract the reader into the text. Confirming Ädel, Hyland indicates that not only *you* but the other metadiscourse markers in his list of investigated items (Hyland, 2005, pp. 218-224) in a feedback sentence might not carry a metadiscourse function but might refer to a propositional function. To reveal the reflexivity of the text in written feedback, Ädel (2017) investigated metadiscourse markers such as *paragraph, phrase, sentence, word, here, and now*.

To that extent, the current research does not rely on a list of ready-made metadiscourse markers but, as one of the concerns of the study, focuses on markers in each authentic feedback sample in the context of the study to reveal whether they have a metadiscourse function or not.

Among these trends mentioned above for discourse analysis, metadiscourse, focusing on the meaning beyond the informational content of discourse, is a popular method to analyse discourse in the academy among researchers. Hyland (2005) suggests that metadiscourse is a tool by which the writer can organise the text to guide through and engage the audience by assuming probable objections and background knowledge of the audience and linking the audience to the discussion with thought-provoking elements. Using metadiscourse, the writer or speaker creates an interactive text or speech and interacts with his or her audience. The studies focusing on metadiscourse markers and functions in academic discourse revealed various results indicating genre and community-specific uses of metadiscourse.

The distribution of metadiscourse markers, types, and their functions in texts written in different academic genres is a widespread concern in studies in the field. The results of studies vary depending on the context and audience in different academic genres. As stated in Hyland, “We have seen that in academic research papers, popular science articles, and undergraduate textbooks, writers make metadiscourse choices that are sensitive to a number of interactional elements of the context (Hyland, 2005, p. 111).”

The usage of metadiscourse is also one of the reasons for the diversion of genres not only internally but also between genre types. At that point, this assumption leads us to a question about metadiscourse elements: “how these resources are used to facilitate effective, community-specific interactions in academic writing? (Hyland, 2005, p. 54).”. The question can be generalised for entire academic genres, written or spoken.

In texts in various academic genres and communities, the distribution of various metadiscourse markers interactional and interactive functions have been a focus of interest in research studies such as comparing EAP lessons and university lectures (Lee & Subtirelu, 2015), a review of studies on academic genres (Amiryousefi & Rasekh, 2010), in research articles (Çapar, 2014; Toumi, 2009), interpersonal metadiscourse as an indicator of interaction in research articles (Abdi, 2002; Hyland, 2004; Hyland & Tse, 2004). Abdi (2002) found differences between the articles on natural and social sciences in using hedges, emphatics, and attitude markers. Hyland (2004) compared interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers in graduate research articles and found more frequent use of interactive metadiscourse markers. He suggests that the high use of interactive metadiscourse markers “represents novice writers' attempts to negotiate propositional information in ways that are meaningful and appropriate to a particular

disciplinary community (Hyland, 2005, p. 55)”. In the same study, Hyland also investigated the use of metadiscourse markers in postgraduate dissertations in various academic disciplines such as applied linguistics, public administration, business studies, computer sciences, electronic engineering, and biology. Hyland revealed a variation of metadiscourse use between disciplines. Dissertations in hard sciences include more interactive metadiscourse markers compared to soft sciences. The use of interactional metadiscourse markers is more frequent in soft sciences versus hard sciences. Lee and Subtirelu (2015) used Hyland and Tse’s (2004) taxonomy in their study and revealed that EAP teachers and university lecturers employ interactional metadiscourse markers more than interactive ones to engendering greater student involvement. Çapar (2014) investigated the use of interactional markers of metadiscourse by comparing research articles of American native speakers and Turkish non-native speakers of English. Çapar reported more use of boosters and self-mentions but less use of hedges and engagement markers as interactional metadiscourse markers in research articles by American native speakers compared to Turkish and English research articles by Turkish non-native speakers of English. According to the findings of the study, both groups of academic writers "paid attention to constructing dialogue with their readers and engaging their readers with their texts in both languages (Çapar, 2014, p. 151)". Although research studies reported in this paragraph are conducted in academic environments, results display that the use of metadiscourse markers varies depending on academic genres.

2.4. Research Studies on Feedback

This section will discuss available research studies on feedback for student works.

2.4.1. Research studies on feedback on student writing in higher education

Written feedback on a student's work can help the student reflect on how his or her work is seen by a reader while trying to achieve an educational goal or skill. It can also induce various perceptions of its characteristics, educational effect, or language used in it. Feedback is a distinct genre with its characteristics in terms of its audience and its propositional and interactive content, compared to other discourse genres in the academy. It has been an issue of broad and diverse research studies in higher education. Written Feedback has also been a topic of interest, and according to Hyland (2010), “feedback has become a central issue for writing research (Hyland, 2010, p. 172)”. The interest of

scholars in feedback includes the types of feedback students receive, the focus of teachers while giving feedback such as language, content, purpose, or structure (Bitchener et al., 2010; Hyland & Hyland, 2019a), the effect of the time of feedback, immediate or delayed, in distance education (Lemley et al., 2007), preferred types of feedback in terms of media richness (Shepherd, 2011), and also case studies to develop feedback strategies on assessment in distance education (e.g., Uribe & Vaughan, 2017). Written Corrective Feedback in L2 writing is also an issue of research in studies. Preferred written corrective types of feedback (Hyland, 2001) and efficacy of written corrective feedback (Ferris & Kurzer, 2019) are some sample studies on written corrective feedback. Besides these topics, general concerns about feedback also include students' responses to feedback and the effect of feedback on language development and proficiency (Ädel, 2017). Moreover, teachers' (e.g., Bitchener et al., 2010; Hyland, 2001) and students' views on feedback are also widely interesting topics among scholars. Weaver (2006) studied the perceptions of university students on written feedback and found that feedback is valued, but tutor comments could be more helpful. In Weaver's study, the analysis revealed that a significant part of the students find feedback 'unhelpful to improve learning', 'too general or vague', 'lacked guidance', 'focused on negative', and 'unrelated to assessment criteria'. Two findings of Weaver, 'unhelpful to improve learning' and 'too general or vague', are consistent with Carless' (2006) findings, 'not useful enough to improve assignments' and 'not comprehensible and clear enough'. Despite the presence of negative comments in feedback, the majority of the students felt not demotivated by the negative feedback. The student added that positive feedback increased their confidence. National Student Survey (2014) reported by Grove J. resulted in high dissatisfaction with feedback. Grove also points out the increase in the dissatisfaction rate over the last ten years. Hyland (2019), in his study on the perceptions of university students from various programs in four faculties at a university in Hong Kong on teacher written feedback, asked the students about the messages they received from feedback. Students think the written feedback they receive could be more useful for developing their knowledge and skills. When some subject teachers do not give enough value to feedback in developing students' subject knowledge, students do not assume feedback is a valuable learning source. This message about feedback is conveyed through the lack of detail in the teacher's feedback. This result indicates consistency with the analysis of Weaver (2006). By conducting content analysis, Hyland (2001) studied the perceptions of students'

feedback depending on the feedback types by their teachers. Mainly, Hyland categorisation includes two types of feedback: focusing on the product and focusing on the learning process. In contradiction to Carless' and Weaver's findings, the students in Hyland (2001) find the feedback helpful to improve their language skills. The type of feedback the students are mostly satisfied with is the feedback on their learning process. What is interesting here for Hyland is that when students receive feedback and have a problem understanding/using it, they mostly rely on their sources but do not ask for help from their tutors. The ones who addressed their questions about feedback to the teacher in a face-to-face environment or by telephoning found answers to their questions. Hyland suggests that the advantage of asking a teacher, even in a telephone dialogue, is using the benefits of two-way conversation, immediate negotiation of meaning and direct feedback. One of the students stated that.

“I prefer she talk on the telephone because if she just writes it and I have some problem understanding I cannot know it. If I telephone to her and I have some problem she can tell me immediately and I can tell her as well (Hyland, 2001, p. 11).”

Therefore, Hyland F. (2001) advises both stakeholders of the feedback, students and teachers, to discuss the issues in feedback in detail. This advice is consistent with the advice of 'assessment dialogue' by Carless (2006) and the findings displaying students' need for advice on understanding and using before they receive feedback (Weaver, 2006). However, Hyland does not see this as possible since the students are reluctant to communicate with their tutor to enter a dialogue on feedback. The participants in the study of Carless also did not take the initiative to approach their teacher to ask about the incomprehensible comment and the criteria of the feedback. In another study in the Hellenic Open University context (Kreonidou & Kazamia, 2019), the participants of the study were students in Master's in Education in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language. The study used a questionnaire with close-ended items and quantitative analysis of the findings and revealed an overall sense of satisfaction with feedback. The study also focused on the students' contact with their tutors for extra oral feedback and revealed that a limited number of the students who received written feedback preferred to contact their tutors for clarification and extra oral feedback in cases of vagueness and the need for more detail. This is consistent with the attitudes of the students in Hyland's and Carless' study. On the other hand, this method to decrease the problems faced in feedback supports the approach in Media Richness Theory discussed in the previous sections. In

another study by Stracke and Kumar (2010), Stracke provided feedback for the thesis of Kumar. During the feedback process, they also analysed and discussed Stracke's feedback. By analysing and discussing feedback in detail with Kumar, Stracke changed some of her feedback practices. Specifically, she began to use expressive feedback, such as praise and opinion, more frequently to motivate her students. This type of feedback can help students feel more engaged and invested in their work, ultimately improving their performance. Additionally, Stracke became more aware of the demotivating potential of directives, particularly imperatives, which can make students feel like they are being told what to do rather than encouraged to think critically about their work. As a result, she decided to use a more indirect approach when giving feedback to her students. By doing so, she hoped to encourage students to take ownership of their learning and become more self-regulated in their approach to writing. The result also supports the effect of including more media, such as extra-oral talk in this study, into the process as theorised in media richness theory.

In a study by Shepherd (2011), written feedback and feedback given in an audio format (mp3) were compared regarding usefulness. The graduate students in the study found written feedback more useful than audio-recorded feedback, which contradicts the approach of media richness theory (See section 2.3.2). Shepherd indicates in the limitations of the study that the result might be because of the basic characteristics of the statistics in the study and also because the focus of the participants is on the accessibility of both feedback formats in their electronic devices, i.e., students might find written feedback more accessible than video feedback in their electronic devices.

2.4.2. Research studies on feedback on student work in teacher education

As a discourse genre, written feedback, as aforementioned, is the only way of interaction between pre-service teachers and tutors in the current study. Researchers agree that feedback on pre-service teachers' performance in pre-service teacher education is also paramount for their teaching experience and development (Cornelius & Nagro, 2014; Ferguson, 2011; Göçer, 2016). Feedback is essential for teaching experience and development because it helps pre-service teachers overcome their fears and concerns about teaching practice (Göçer, 2016) and provides an evidence-based practice environment to increase the implementation fidelity of instructional practices (Cornelius & Nagro, 2014) by providing a kind of intensive coaching.

The studies on feedback in teacher education are conducted in face-to-face education environments and primarily focus on the effect of feedback and types of feedback on performance after observing lesson practices of pre-service teachers (e.g., Cornelius & Nagro, 2014; Kurtoglu-Hoton, 2016; Stevens & Lowing, 2008; Sweigart et al., 2016), more specifically on formative feedback (Ellis & Loughland, 2017; Jons, 2019; Stevens & Lowing, 2008). Peer feedback, as another type of feedback, is also a matter of concern in studies in teacher education (e.g., Baran, AlZoubi, & Bahng, 2023; Prilop, Weber, Prins, & Kleinknecht, 2021). The perceptions of pre-service teachers and tutors in teacher education (Carless, 2006; Dowden et al., 2013; Ferguson, 2011; Jin et al., 2022; Ketonen et al., 2022; Scott, 2006). Among those, Ferguson (2011) investigated the perceptions of pre-service teachers on quality assessment feedback in terms of form, detail, and timing. He found that pre-service teachers preferred personalised feedback, especially with clear guidance focusing on how to improve their work. The respondents also wanted detailed feedback on their work, even if it took longer. Some stated feedback before the next assignment time is crucial. The respondents in Scott's (2006) study reported a need for improvement in feedback. The issues to be developed included time problems and a lack of precise requirements and expectations. Dowden et al. (2013) point out the effect of feedback in developing the interaction between teaching and learning context. Participants in their study included both on-campus and distance education group students. The results displayed that the participants wanted feedback to help improve their knowledge and understanding and include explicit guidance on how to improve their future work. These results are consistent with the studies in the field mentioned above.

Jin et al. (2022) conducted a study in a teacher professional development program, the Standard Training Programme for Novice Vocational School Teachers, in China. The program was for the professional development of novice teachers. Expert teachers attended as experts to help novice teachers with professional development. The study focused on novice teachers' appraisal of expert feedback in a teacher training program setting. The study showed that novice teachers gave importance to expert feedback to apply it to their classroom applications. This shows that feedback is valuable for novice teachers when it is helpful to develop teaching applications in the classroom. Grainger (2020) focused on how pre-service teachers respond to assessment feedback in a Graduate Diploma Education program at a local university in Australia. He asked forty pre-service teachers what they value in the assessment feedback process. The study showed that

100% of the students do not read the feedback and focus on feedback on the assessment criteria and the grades they receive. On the other hand, one-third of the students valued the feedback telling what the error was since this type of feedback is useful to learning and meaningful and made them think about their errors. Ketonen et al. (2022) studied teachers' and pre-service teachers' views on agency in feedback in a professional development program at a Finnish university. The study reports that pre-service teachers think that when they receive qualified feedback and have available conditions in the classroom environment to apply this feedback, their teaching quality will increase. This shows that they expect qualified feedback to improve their teaching practices.

Carless (2006) found significant pre-service teacher dissatisfaction with written feedback on their assignments, conducting a large-scale questionnaire survey across eight universities and a later in-depth analysis of fine-grained data from pre-service teachers in a teacher education institute. Carless investigated the pre-service teachers' perceptions of the feedback process, marking, and assessment. Pre-service teachers perceive a lack of useful feedback as a problem in the assessment process. They find the written feedback given to them not useful enough to improve their assignments. They also indicate that some feedback from the tutor is not comprehensible and clear enough. As a result of the findings of the study, Carless points out the lack of enough interaction among the tutors and pre-service teachers and advises conducting assessment dialogues between tutors and pre-service teachers to "mitigate some of the mistrust or misconceptions (Carless, 2006, p. 219)" through feedback and assessment process. The key focus in the studies includes students' and teachers' perceptions of feedback and its efficiency on students' performance, development, and motivation. Moreover, the studies investigating students' views on feedback are based on interview and questionnaire data (Carless, 2006; Dowden et al., 2013; Ferguson, 2011; Hyland F., 2001; Hyland K., 2019; Jin et al., 2022; Ketonen et al., 2022; National Student Survey, 2014; Scott, 2006; Shepherd, 2011; Weaver, 2006).

As it is aforementioned in the previous pages of the current research, language is used not only to convey propositional content but also to present this content by organizing the text, drawing the potential audience to the information presented, and leading the audience through the text to figure out what is meant. Therefore, a text, namely discourse, has also an eloquent side depending on the context and actual or potential audience. Analysing the discourse in use, the linguists broadly categorise it into two sections: transactional use of language, which refers to content, and interactional use

of language, which refers to interactions and attitudes of reader and writer in discourse (Brown & Yule, 1983; Hyland, 2005). The former is the 'informational' aspect of discourse, and the latter is the 'interactional'. When text producers or speakers have something to share with an audience, they should take into account the information and the meaning they aim to share, which is informational (Brown & Yule, 1983; Hyland, 2005) or propositional (Hyland, 2005) content of discourse, and also the ways they prefer to present the information, which is interactional (Brown & Yule, 1983; Hyland, 2005) content of discourse.

The interactional content depends on the audience's background knowledge of the subject, their expectations from the text or speech, and assumed objections or approvals. Thus, while organising the text or speech, the writers or speakers should consider potential objections, expectations, and possible level of background knowledge of their interlocutors.

In asynchronous distance education applications, written feedback on students' works represents a crucial role in the interaction between student and teacher and institution to achieve educational goals through the program. Giving feedback is not only correcting the errors of students but also includes the communication style of the feedback provider that might lead to a wide range of effects in student's mind varying from encouragement to disappointment, from the feeling of success or motivation to continue to the feeling of failure or giving up and also a lightened way through rough surfaces of confusion, etc. Feedback should be in a style to help achieve both informational and pedagogical aims, all in all educational aims. As a result of this aim, the way, or in other terms, the preferred interactional metadiscourse markers that teachers use to present the propositional content in their feedback might vary depending on the potential psychological or pedagogical effect that might occur on the reader's, namely student's, side. Effective feedback depends significantly on how we express our praise or criticism and phrase our suggestions. These aspects are crucial as they serve as critical interpersonal tools for negotiating evaluations and judgments of student writing, according to Hyland and Hyland's (2001) research. When giving feedback on student writing, teachers have to balance their comments to meet multiple objectives, including providing information, supporting learning goals, and fostering positive interpersonal relationships. Criticising can have a decreasing effect on a writer's confidence (Truscott, 1996), while excessively and premature praising work can be confusing and discourage

revisions (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). Ultimately, the interpersonal dynamics of the feedback exchange can either facilitate or hinder a student's writing development. Teachers might also use metadiscourse markers to have a stance or keep their stance in feedback. Writers use some stance features to display their credibility on what they are writing and to establish an interaction with their readers (Hyland, 2005). This can be through lexical items such as attitude markers (appropriately, disagree, unusual), boosters (establish, believe, obviously), hedges (may, apparently, claim, perhaps) or self-mentions (I, me, we, our). In an English proficiency course, teachers mitigate their criticism and suggestions in their feedback on student work by mainly using hedges, question forms and personal attributions (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). Question forms are categorised in engagement markers and personal attributions are categorised in self-mention metadiscourse markers in functional categorisations of metadiscourse markers in Hyland and Tse (2004). Hyland and Hyland (2019b) and Starfield (2019) suggest that this way of mitigating criticism and suggestions is reluctant to address issues directly and might cause students to miss the point of comment and misinterpret the feedback. Although not in the field of teacher education, feedback providers also use lexical items to express their attitude, boosters to express certainty, hedges to withhold commitment, and self-mention markers to make it clear who takes a stance on the propositional content of the feedback. Paltridge (2019) investigated the use of metadiscourse markers in reviewers' feedback reports on submissions of both native and non-native writers' submissions. The study is crucial in showing reviewers' linguistic preferences to indicate their stance in writing feedback. Results showed that regardless of whether the writer of the submission is native or non-native, reviewers used, in the order of frequency of use, self-mentions, attitude markers, hedges, and with the lowest use of frequency, boosters in their feedback. The reviews exhibited a strong sense of accountability, which was evident from the frequent use of self-references. This demonstrates the presence of a voice or discoursal self that conveys a sense of authority in the feedback, leaving minimal room for discussion or negotiation. This aligns with previous research by Tardy (2012) and Matsuda (2015) on the notion of voice, as well as Ivanić's (1998) concept of the discoursal self.

Fortanet-Gomes and Ruiz-Garriado (2010) investigated reviewers' feedback reports on articles in terms of the stance taken by reviewers and the way the stance is expressed, examining the use of hedges, boosters and attitude markers. Fortanet-Gomez and Ruiz-Garrido found attitude markers three times more frequent, boosters slightly

more frequent, and the use of hedges similar, compared to the analysis by Hyland (2005) regarding the usage of metadiscourse markers in research articles. The study is beneficial to indicate how reviewers position themselves and express what they value in the language they use in feedback reports.

The findings of the research above indicate that analysing language in written feedback on works is a precious approach for revealing the preferences of reviewers and the perspectives they adopt when drafting their reports, as well as how they position themselves in relation to their statements through their linguistic choices.

Thus, feedback, more specifically in the current study context, is not only an informational text on a student's work but also an aspect of pedagogical interaction between student and teacher that should lead the student to success. Therefore, the focus goes on the language or the way to use the language utilised by the teacher in feedback. To that extent, the topic to be discussed is how the information is presented par excellence, as what information is included in feedback.

A body of research on written or spoken feedback in teacher education (e.g. Arts, Jaspers, & Brinke, 2016; Carless, 2006; Dowden et al., 2013; Ferguson, 2011; Grainger, 2020; Hyland, 2019; Jin et al., 2022; Ketonen et al., 2022; Scott, 2006) revealed the perceptions of students on the quality and usefulness of feedback to improve their knowledge or future applications, clarity of feedback to understand, guidance in feedback, the inclusion of positive or negative comments in feedback, customisation of feedback for each student. On the other hand, the work in higher education contexts, not specifically in teacher education, focusing on linguistic analysis in terms of functions and types of metadiscourse use in feedback revealed the reflexive function of metadiscourse use (e.g. Ädel, 2017), and the use of some types of metadiscourse by teachers, such as hedges, engagement markers, and self-mention metadiscourse markers to mitigate their criticisms, and suggestions to enhance the teacher-student relationship (e.g. Hyland & Hyland, 2001). On the other hand, while providing on academic issues, teachers prioritise their expert role and choose to give more directive feedback, using engagement markers, except in the case of plagiarism. In the case of plagiarism. They prefer to mitigate their comments in feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2019b).

To determine the written feedback for lesson plans as a genre, it is necessary to study the language in the feedback given for effective purposes. Considering the studies mentioned above on feedback, the studies available focus on specific metadiscourse

markers or types in written feedback but do not focus on and reveal entire metadiscourse markers or types to determine genre-specific use. There is still a need to examine the interactional functions of metadiscourse use in feedback in teacher education. There is also a need to study the effects of this functional use of metadiscourse on the perceptions of pre-service teachers on feedback. Even though there is a body of research on the perceptions of pre-service teachers on feedback, this body of research focuses on usefulness, quality, clarity or vagueness, the positive or the negative face of feedback provider in feedback, generic or individualised characteristics of feedback, etc., but not in relation with the functions of metadiscourse in feedback. The current study is believed to provide insight into metadiscourse functions in feedback as a less widely studied supportive genre in the academy in its own right.

Within the domain of the current study, the focus is on the linguistic analysis of written authentic samples of feedback in a teacher education context in terms of functions of metadiscourse use and perceptions of pre-service teachers on feedback regarding these functions of metadiscourse.

CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY

The primary purpose of the study is to reveal metadiscourse markers and their functions in written supervisor feedback for lesson plans of pre-service teachers in distance education and to reveal the opinions of pre-service teachers about the effect and use of metadiscourse markers in the feedback they received from their supervisors.

Concerning this aim, this chapter presents the design of the study, the participants, the data collection instruments, the procedure of data collection and data analysis, and the reliability evidence of the study.

3.1. Research Design

Embedded mixed methods design is the design of the study. Considering the study's aim, qualitative and quantitative data were collected. Qualitative data consists of the responses of pre-service teachers during the interviews. Analysis to determine the metadiscourse markers and their functions in their context in feedback sentences is also a part of the qualitative data. Quantitative data consists of descriptive statistics such as the frequencies of metadiscourse markers in feedback texts. According to scholars, quantitative and qualitative research designs have limitations and strengths (Creswell, 2014, p. 215), so why not combine the strengths of both designs, that is, mixing the designs? Mixing both designs when well-designed gives “value to a research effort above and beyond that is accomplished by using a single method alone (Clark, Creswell, Green, & Shope, 2008, p. 385)”

According to Creswell (2012), some of the core characteristics of mixed methods research are the collection of both qualitative (open-ended) and quantitative (close-ended) data in response to research questions or hypotheses and the analysis of both forms of data. To that extent, since both quantitative and qualitative data were used to support each other to reach the aims of the present study, the research method used in the study is a mixed-method research design.

Mixed methods research methods are also divided into six categories by Creswell (2012 and 2014): convergent parallel (Mixed) design, explanatory sequential design, exploratory sequential design, embedded design, transformative design and multiphase design. Among these types, quantitative and qualitative data is collected simultaneously

or sequentially in embedded design. One form of data is collected to support the other form of data (Creswell, 2012). That is, one type of data does not need to follow and might be collected before, after or during the other type of data collection. One type of data (qualitative or quantitative) is collected and used to support the other type of data. In the current study, quantitative data plays a supportive role in strengthening the qualitative data. Hence, using quantitative and qualitative data that do not need to follow but support each other indicates that this study is embedded design as a sub-category of mixed methods design studies (Cresswell, 2012).

The phases to collect and interpret quantitative and qualitative data in embedded design are illustrated in Figure 3.1. below:

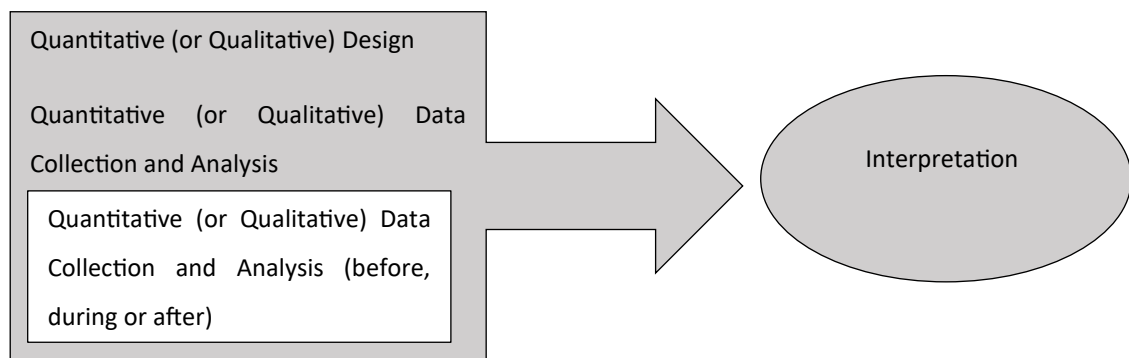


Figure 3.1. *Embedded design (Creswell, 2012, p. 541)*

3.2. Context of the Study

The study was conducted with the participants who attended the Distance English Language Teacher Training (DELTT) program at Anadolu University during the research. DELTT was a blended four-year program initiated at Anadolu University in 2000 to address the growing demand for language teachers in Turkey (Keçik & Aydın, 2011). The program's first two years are conducted in a traditional classroom setting, focusing on enhancing students' language proficiency (Anadolu University, 2022). Although the students already have an upper intermediate level of English when they join the program, they need to develop their language skills further to serve as effective role models for their future students. Therefore, the initial years concentrate primarily on language improvement, taking advantage of face-to-face interactions between pre-service teachers and teachers at the university in a regular classroom environment. This approach

provides natural opportunities for realistic communication among the pre-service teachers.

During the final two years of the program (i.e., the third and fourth years), students engage in courses that aim to enhance their knowledge and skills in literature, linguistics, methodology, and teaching practice. These courses are delivered through distance education methods: Web CT, which includes content explanations, self-practice tests and a discussion forum “where the students can consult their teachers at the university about points, they are unclear or have discussions with the other students on various topics, such as study skills and content (Keçik & Aydın, 2011, p. 74)” besides books and CDs were given to the students.

Teaching Practice in DELLT (Department of English Language and Literature Teaching) is primarily built on a solid partnership between the faculty and schools, mirroring typical teacher training programs. This approach involves specific schools, roles, and criteria for pre-service teachers, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors. At the start of the academic year, pre-service teachers are assigned to state schools in their hometowns within the country. They are expected to adhere to the school schedules for five hours a week throughout their 25-week placement and take similar responsibilities as their cooperating teachers. Cooperating teachers are English language educators in state primary, secondary, or high schools. They are selected based on having at least three years of teaching experience and scoring 85 or higher on a national English proficiency examination. These cooperating teachers receive training at the beginning of the teaching practice, where the entire process and participant responsibilities are explained. Regular meetings are held during this period. University teachers within the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department or School of Foreign Languages serve as supervisors. Supervisors were given a book that was specifically written to explain the procedure and how to give feedback to lesson plans and to preservice teachers after the observation. They gave feedback using this resource, their academic knowledge and their experiences in teacher training and lesson plan writing. They did not receive any special training in giving feedback to pre-service teachers. Furthermore, two experienced university teacher trainers are appointed as Academic Coordinators, responsible for all academic decisions and organising the teaching practice program (Keçik & Aydın, 2011).

Over the 25-week duration, pre-service teachers are supposed to both observe and actively teach in natural classroom settings. This teaching practice consists of two phases:

Micro Teaching and Macro Teaching. In both phases, pre-service teachers are mandated to prepare lesson plans and upload them to the system. Then they receive feedback from their supervisors. Subsequently, they make necessary adjustments based on this feedback and conduct the lessons in actual classroom settings. After the teaching practice session, the pre-service teachers were also supposed to write a reflection report to evaluate their teaching performance and upload it to the system.

Micro and Macro Teaching were the practices of teaching conducted in the 4th grade of the program. The first was conducted during the Fall semester, and the latter was during the Spring semester of the 4th year. Micro Teaching spans the first ten weeks when student teachers prepare lesson plans featuring activities lasting 15 to 20 minutes within a 40-minute lesson. The remaining portion of the lesson is taught either by another pre-service teacher or the cooperating teacher. The purpose of Micro Teaching is to gradually acclimate student teachers to the role of a teacher, allowing them to assume responsibility for part of a class hour before taking on an entire lesson. They are expected to plan and teach 18 micro lessons, each focusing on various skills. The macro teaching sessions were five teaching practice sessions which pre-service teachers conducted within the scope of the program's 'Teaching Practicum and School Experience' course. The pre-service teachers were supposed to prepare 40-minute lesson plans, receive feedback for each lesson plan from their supervisors and make necessary adjustments before delivering each of the five lessons in an actual classroom. The process of sending the lesson plans by the pre-service teachers and providing feedback on the lesson plan document by the supervisors was conducted via the program's online platform. This process was the same for all five teaching practice sessions during the semester (see Figure 3.2 below).

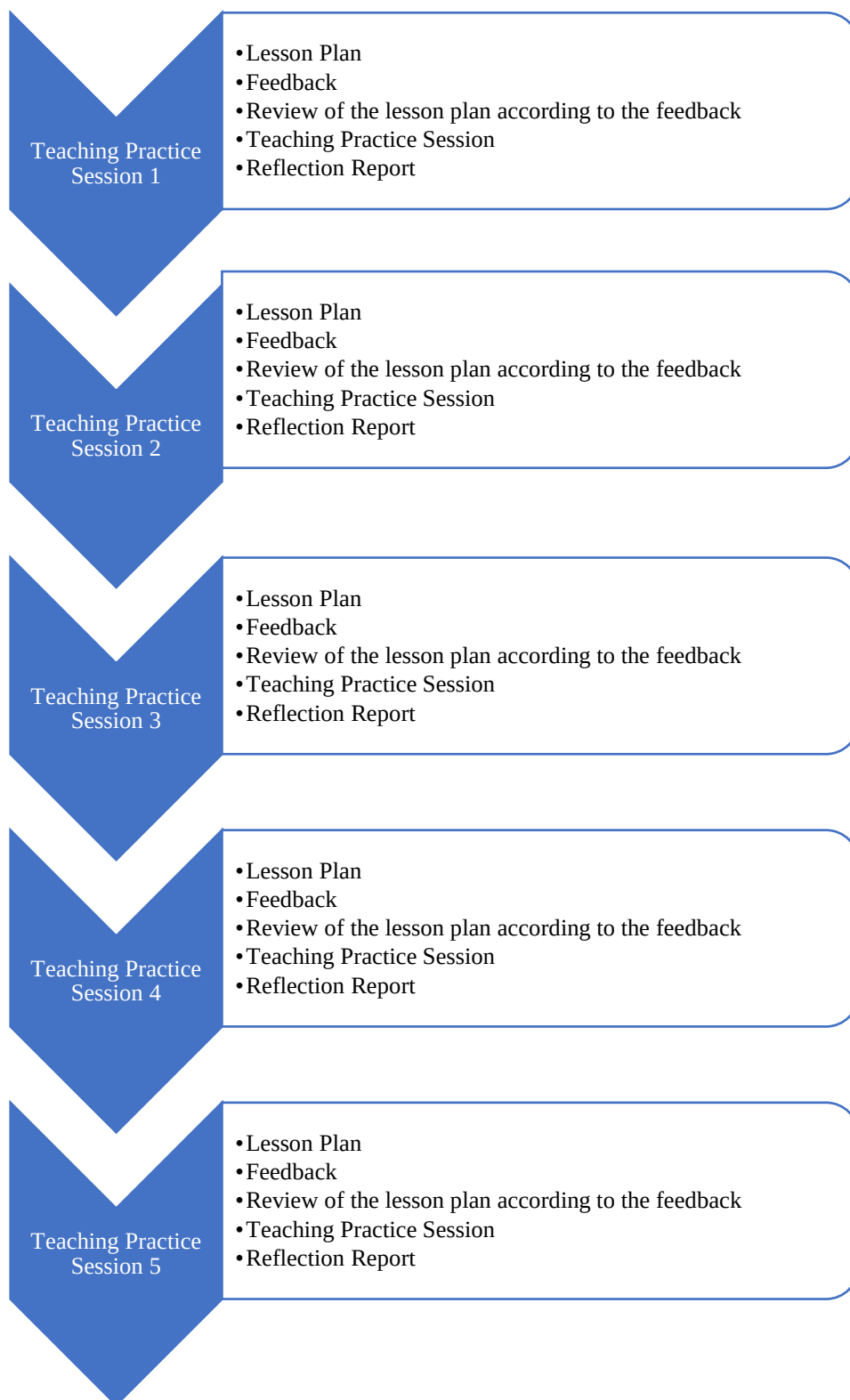


Figure 3.2. *Flow diagram of teaching practice session procedure*

3.3. Participants

The participants of the study were the pre-service teachers, who were in the fourth year of the program and attending the ‘Teaching Practicum and School Experience’ course at the Distance English Language Teacher Training (DELTT) program at Anadolu University. The pre-service teachers were non-native speakers of English who were living in their hometown countrywide and attending the program online due to time and distance concerns. The total number of pre-service teachers who enrolled on the course was 147. The pre-service teachers were supposed to conduct five teaching practice sessions in state high schools and write lesson plans before each session however 16 of them did not write any lesson plans even though they were enrolled in the course. So, the participants of the study were 131 pre-service teachers who enrolled and attended the course, wrote at least one lesson plan and received written feedback on their lesson plans from their supervisors. The ones who wrote at least one lesson plan and received written feedback were 94 female (%71) and 38 male (%29) pre-service teachers. Eighteen of the pre-service teachers voluntarily attended interviews. Due to the distance and time concerns, two of the pre-service teachers were interviewed face-to-face and the others via voice and video call.

This group of participants would provide helpful information and contribute to the research about the phenomenon studied; therefore, it can be assumed that this way of sampling is a purposeful sampling method. At the beginning of the data collection procedure, a consent form was sent to the students (see the consent form in Appendix A).

3.4. Data Collection Instruments and Procedure

The primary data collection instruments used in the study were written feedback from supervisors for lesson plans of preservice teachers and interviews with pre-service teachers conducted face-to-face, via phone call or online audio or video call.

3.4.1. Written authentic feedback and data collection procedure

As aforementioned above, the participants had the ‘Teaching Practicum and School Experience’ course in the second semester of the senior grade. The pre-service teachers practised their teaching experience by teaching the English Language to students in high schools in their cities in natural classroom environments as a course requirement.

Conducting five teaching practice sessions and writing lesson plans before each session is one of the course requirements. Most pre-service teachers wrote five lesson

plans, but the others wrote less than five lesson plans. All in all, 579 lesson plans were uploaded to the system by 131 pre-service teachers.

The data of the study are authentic feedback given to 579 lesson plans. After the course ended, 579 lesson plans, which were provided with written authentic feedback, were downloaded from the online platform of DELTT. While providing feedback for 579 lesson plans, the supervisors sometimes gave feedback for words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs, and parts in the lesson plan., A total amount of 3629 authentic feedback was given by supervisors to these 579 lesson plans. Some feedback consisted only of a word, some was a sentence, and some was a paragraph length. The Figure 3.3. shows examples of written feedback by a supervisor for a lesson plan of a pre-service teacher.

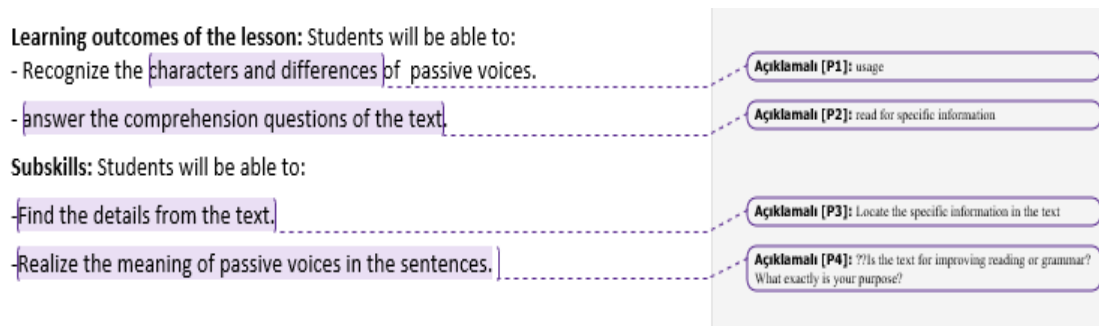


Figure 3.3. *Samples of written feedback for a lesson plan*

As an academic genre, these authentic written feedback samples on students' work offered a valuable context to analyse to reveal how certain discourse elements were utilised to establish the interaction between the supervisor and the pre-service teacher in the context of asynchronous distance education in the present study.

All the written authentic feedback from supervisors for lesson plans was retrieved from the distance education platform of DELTT program with access to the platform as a guest user.

During the data collection process, each pre-service teacher was initially given a number to identify his/her during the analysis. Then, with access to the platform, each written feedback given during the 'Teaching Practicum and School Experience' course in the spring semester of the 2017-2018 academic year to the pre-service teachers was downloaded. As described in Figure 3.2, the pre-service teachers uploaded their plans in Microsoft Word format to the online platform. The supervisors downloaded the lesson plan, added their feedback on the plan and uploaded the final document back to the

platform. The researcher downloaded these final documents which were the lesson plans on which feedback was added. This allowed us to see the feedback and the extracts of the lesson plan for which feedback was given together on the same document. A sample lesson plan, which was given feedback, is shown in Figure 3.4 below.

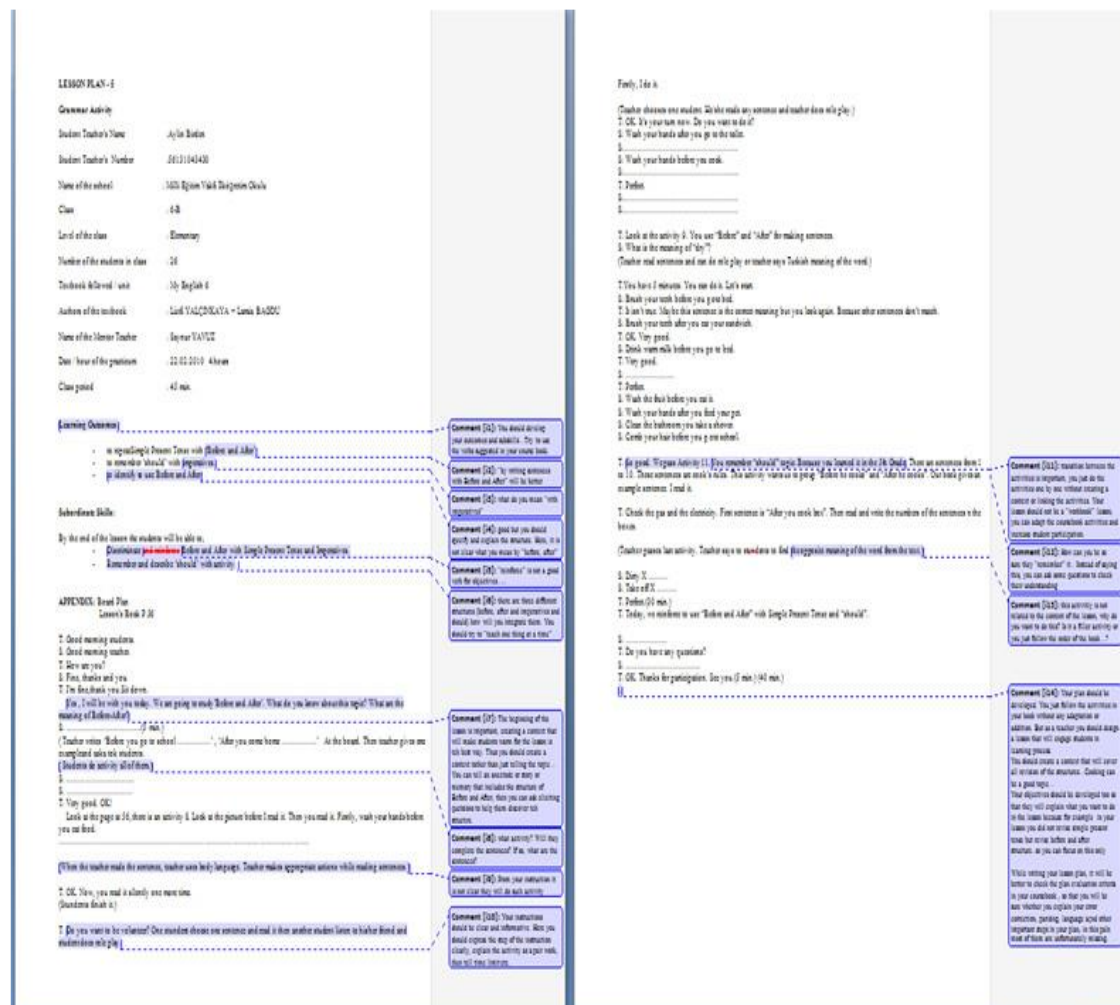


Figure 3.4. A sample lesson plan that was given feedback by university supervisors (Keçik et al., 2012, p.

166)

A corpus was needed to be prepared with the entire written authentic feedback samples for lesson plans to conduct linguistic research for the current study with a concordance tool.

According to McEnery and Wilson (2001), the definition of the corpus is “a finite-sized body of machine-readable text, sampled to be maximally representative of the language variety under consideration (McEnery & Wilson, 2001, p. 32)”. Thus, a

machine-readable text, including the written authentic feedback in our study, was needed. Although the study was not based on a strict metadiscourse markers list, a ‘List of Investigated Metadiscourse Markers’ (See Appendix C) was prepared as the first step, including metadiscourse markers studied by scholars in the academic discourse. The metadiscourse elements in the list included entire ‘Metadiscourse items investigated’ by Hyland (2005) and also the words investigated by Ädel (2017) such as, *paragraph, phrase, sentence, word, here, now*, by Schiffrin (1987), Croucher (2004) and Bussman (1984) such as *like, you know*, and by Vande Kopple (1997) such as *so called, what some people call, what I mean*. Indeed, this list of investigated metadiscourse items was not the only focus of the present research. With the help of the list, we aimed to determine whether these markers are used in written feedback for lesson plans and their frequency at the first step. Then, the research on our samples of written feedback continued to determine whether they included other metadiscourse markers and their frequency. According to the definition by Hunston (2002), this type of corpus is a specialised corpus;

“Specialised corpus: A corpus of texts of a particular type, such as newspaper editorials, geography textbooks, academic articles in a particular subject, lectures, casual conversations, essays written by students etc. It aims to be representative of a given type of text. It is used to investigate a particular type of language. Researchers often collect their own specialised corpora to reflect the kind of language they want to investigate. There is no limit to the degree of specialisation involved, but the parameters are set to limit the kind of texts included (Hunston, 2002, p. 14).”

While preparing the corpus document, the labelling order of the pre-service teachers and the order of the written feedback for each lesson plan of each pre-service teacher were taken into consideration. The pages of each lesson plan were labelled with the number (1 to 131) given to the pre-service teacher, who is the writer, and then the pages were given a second label for the order of the lesson plan. The corpus page included entire written feedback in rows in the second column and the extracts of the lesson plans for which feedback was given in the first column (see Figure 3.5. below).

Pre-service Teacher Number 1					Sent
Nuber of Lesson Plan	Feedback given extracts from lesson plan	Feedback from the supervisor	Findings of WordSmith 4.0 concordance tool	Sat	
1st Plan	Students will be able to recycle language from across the unit	I could not understand ☹	I could not understand L	I	
			I could not understand L	could	
	Students will be able to enrich their vocabulary	This is very broad. Be more specific	This is very broad. Be more specific	this	
			This is very broad. Be more specific	be	
	Students will be able to avoid repetition in both writing and speaking	this is not clear. Learning outcomes are very important so they should be specific and	this is not clear. Learning outcomes are very important so they should be specific and clear.	this	
			this is not clear. Learning outcomes are very important so they should be specific and clear.	clear	
			this is not clear. Learning outcomes are very important so they should be specific and clear.	so	
			this is not clear. Learning outcomes are very important so they should be specific and clear.	should	
	Students will match the words working in pairs. Students will practice some words to complete the task. Students will practise verbs that are easily confused. Students will focus on words that have subtle differences/ collocations.	☹ These are nice. they lead us to learning outcomes as practical exercises and activities	☹ These are nice. they lead us to learning outcomes as practical exercises and activities	us	
			☹ These are nice. they lead us to learning outcomes as practical exercises and activities	these	
	T: I'm fine too. Actually, we should be familiar with most of the words but we are likely to confuse them, often due to interference from our own language. (attempts to built motivation and to keep students engaged and involved) I suggest you not to be afraid of making mistakes while learning English. That's to say that "I can move through by my mistakes".	Don't you think your instructions are a bit difficult and complex?	Don't you think your instructions are a bit difficult and complex?	?	
			Don't you think your instructions are a bit difficult and complex?	and	
			Don't you think your instructions are a bit difficult and complex?	a bit	
		Don't you think your instructions are a bit difficult and complex?	(in) your instruction		
	Focus on the pictures of a robber and burglar. Pay attention that the meanings are very similar. Both words refer to someone who steals something but they are slightly different. "a burglar" breaks into people's houses to steal something, "a robber" steals money from a bank or shop, or from someone in the street.	here I could not understand the activity. It might be better to give some information beforehand.	here I could not understand the activity. It might be better to give some information beforehand.	here	
		here I could not understand the activity. It might be better to give some information beforehand.		I	
		here I could not understand the activity. It might be better to give some information beforehand.		could	
		here I could not understand the activity. It might be better to give some information beforehand.		might	
	gives students time to check the answers in pairs before checking with the class	This is a good idea ☹	This is a good idea ☹	this	
	T: The following exercise leads us to study the words that have subtle differences in meaning or slightly different uses or collocations. (elicits answers to the first pair of examples) Choose the correct word to the first example.	The lesson flows in a very complex way. I cannot follow. ☹ they seem to be independent activities. Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using ☹ Also give examples of error correction ..	The lesson flows in a very complex way. I cannot follow. ☹ they seem to be independent activities. Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using ☹ Also give examples of error correction ..	I	
			The lesson flows in a very complex way. I cannot follow. ☹ they seem to be independent activities. Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using ☹ Also give examples of error correction ..	soon	
			The lesson flows in a very complex way. I cannot follow. ☹ they seem to be independent activities. Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using ☹ Also give examples of error correction ..	maybe	
			The lesson flows in a very complex way. I cannot follow. ☹ they seem to be independent activities. Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using ☹ Also give examples of error correction ..	I	
			The lesson flows in a very complex way. I cannot follow. ☹ they seem to be independent activities. Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using ☹ Also give examples of error correction ..	also	
			The lesson flows in a very complex way. I cannot follow. ☹ they seem to be independent activities. Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using ☹ Also give examples of error correction ..	give	
	T: Congratulations! Thank you for your attitude and agency. That was a great work.	Do you think that this lesson will last 45 minutes ☹ I think it will finish earlier ..	Do you think that this lesson will last 45 minutes ☹ I think it will finish earlier ..	?	
			Do you think that this lesson will last 45 minutes ☹ I think it will finish earlier ..	last	
			Do you think that this lesson will last 45 minutes ☹ I think it will finish earlier ..	earlier	
			Do you think that this lesson will last 45 minutes ☹ I think it will finish earlier ..	think	
2nd plan	Students will be able to make predictions about Restorative Justice and about the text based	This part is not necessary	This part is not necessary	(in) this part	
	Students will read different sections of the article	Not clear	Not clear	clear	
	T: I'm fine too. Today we will read an article on burglary (Encourage students to use the context to guess the meaning of new vocabulary or pre-teach the items) Use the context to guess the meaning of new vocabulary. You can use dictionary. Focus attention on;	What about showing them a related news article or a photograph to prepare them for the reading	What about showing them a related news article or a photograph to prepare them for the reading	?	

Figure 3.5. A screenshot of a page of the document, including extracts from lesson plans and feedback for each extract

The intention of preparing the document was that after the concordance tool found the words in the 'List of Metadiscourse Markers' in the feedback samples, we would need to match these feedback samples back again with the relevant extracts from lesson plans to decide whether they have a metadiscourse function or not. To do this, we needed to see the part from the lesson plan to understand the context in which feedback was given.

Thus, having an ordered feedback samples document would help us match the feedback samples again with related extracts from lesson plans without difficulty.

3.4.2. Interviews with pre-service teachers and data collection procedure

In qualitative research settings, interviewing is a data collection method and is as popular as conducting observations. During qualitative interviews, researchers ask open-ended questions to the participant(s) (Creswell, 2012). To collect data to answer the research question on pre-service teachers' opinions on the feedback they received, interviews with pre-service teachers were conducted. The interviews were conducted in Turkish, the native language of the participants.

A consent form asking whether they would like to attend an interview on the feedback they received was sent to all pre-service teachers who received written feedback from supervisors. Interviews were conducted with 18 voluntary pre-service teachers. During the interviews, 11 semi-structured open-ended questions (See 'Interview with Pre-Service Teacher' document in Appendix B) were asked of each participant. Asking open-ended questions helped the researcher ask more specific questions to elicit detailed information. The open-ended questions aimed to allow participants to express their experiences freely, without any constraints or influence from the researcher's perspective or previous research. The questions aimed to elicit their opinions about things such as their lesson plans, satisfaction with the feedback they received, qualified feedback, expectations from feedback, the type of feedback they prefer, what they thought after they read the feedback, and whether feedback helped to develop their lesson plans. The questions were developed with the help of the opinions of expert researchers working in the English Language Teaching department of the university. The questions were:

1. What are your opinions about your lesson plans?
2. Do you think your lesson plans are qualified enough?
3. What points do you think you should develop in your lesson plans?
4. How did written feedback from your supervisor help you develop lesson plans?
5. What kinds of things/words in your supervisor's written feedback help you understand and develop your lesson plans?
6. How do you define qualified feedback?

7. What type of feedback was more helpful for your lessons: feedback in which text organising elements are used well or feedback in which the writer somehow includes the reader?
8. How can feedback help you interact with your supervisor?
9. Do you think you had a good interaction with your supervisor through feedback? How?
10. What did you think while you were reading this feedback sentence?
11. How did it help your lesson plan development?

To aid transcription, researchers often use audiotapes of the conversation (Creswell, 2012). The exact process was applied in the present study, and the participants' responses were recorded, then transcribed and typed into the documents on a computer for analysis.

3.5. Data Analysis

In this section, the data analysis procedure of the study is described in detail.

3.5.1. Analysis of written authentic feedback data

Wordsmith 4.0 corpus analysis tool was utilised to reveal the frequency of the metadiscourse markers. The 'List of Investigated Metadiscourse Markers' was transferred in '.txt' file format and uploaded in the tool as a 'Wordlist'. The 'Wordlist was uploaded in Wordsmith 4.0 concordance software.

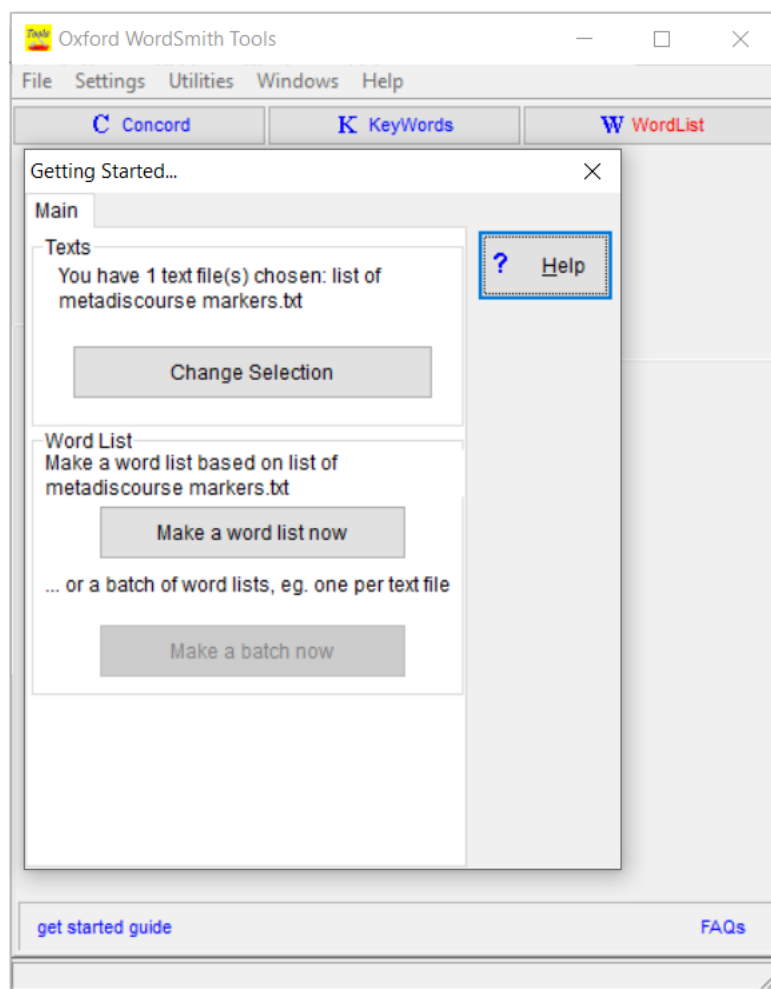


Figure 3.6. Screenshot of wordlist page of Wordsmith 4.0 concordance software

For the concordance document to search the linguistic items of the ‘Wordlist’, the written feedback samples from the Excel document were copied into another ‘.txt’ file format. The samples of the feedback given in Turkish, which was the native language of the pre-service teachers and the supervisors, were discarded from the search and the list since feedback in Turkish was out of the scope of the study. The ‘.txt’ format document, including written feedback samples, was uploaded to the Wordsmith 4.0 concordance tool. In some feedback, the supervisors added emojis such as smiley faces and frowning faces. As seen in the screenshot below (Figure 3.7.), these emojis were symbolised by the concordance tool with letters such as ‘J’ for smiley face and ‘L’ for frowning face. Figure 3.7. below is the screenshot of concordance based on sentence number in written feedback samples.

Oxford WordSmith Tools

File Settings Utilities Windows Help

C Concord K KeyWords W WordList

Concord

File Edit View Compute Settings Windows Help

N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sent. #	Pos. #	Para. #	Pos. #	d. #	os. #	File	%
1	I could not understand L. This is very broad. Be more	I		1	0	10%	0	17%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
2	I could not understand L. This is very broad. Be more	could		2	0	20%	0	33%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
3	I could not understand L. This is very broad. Be more specific. this is not	this		7	0	70%	1	22%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
4	understand L. This is very broad. Be more specific. this is not clear. Learning outcomes are very	this		15	1	67%	2	11%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
5	L. This is very broad. Be more specific. this is not clear. Learning outcomes are very important so they	clear		18	1	00%	2	28%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
6	this is not clear. Learning outcomes are very important so they should be specific and clear. J	important		23	2	46%	2	56%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
7	is not clear. Learning outcomes are very important so they should be specific and clear. J These are	so		24	2	54%	2	61%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
8	is not clear. Learning outcomes are very important so they should be specific and clear. J These are	so		24	2	54%	2	61%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
9	Learning outcomes are very important so they should be specific and clear. J These are nice. they	should		26	2	69%	2	72%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
10	Learning outcomes are very important so they should be specific and clear. J These are nice. they	should		26	2	69%	2	72%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
11	are very important so they should be specific and clear. J These are nice. they lead us to learning	and		29	2	92%	2	89%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
12	are very important so they should be specific and clear. J These are nice. they lead us to learning	clear		30	2	00%	2	94%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
13	be specific and clear. J These are nice. they lead us to learning outcomes as practical exercises and	Us		38	3	33%	3	47%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
14	be specific and clear. J These are nice. they lead us to learning outcomes as practical exercises and	us		38	3	33%	3	47%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
15	lead us to learning outcomes as practical exercises and activities. Don't you think your instructions area	and		45	3	59%	3	88%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
16	as practical exercises and activities. Don't you think your instructions area bit difficult and	You		48	3	70%	4	18%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
17	as practical exercises and activities. Don't you think your instructions area bit difficult and complex?	think		49	3	74%	4	27%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
18	as practical exercises and activities. Don't you think your instructions area bit difficult and complex? here	your		50	3	78%	4	36%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
19	Don't you think your instructions area bit difficult and complex? here I could not understand the	and		55	3	96%	4	82%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
20	your instructions area bit difficult and complex? here I could not understand the activity. It might be	here		58	4	33%	5	11%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
21	instructions area bit difficult and complex? here I could not understand the activity. It might be better	I		59	4	44%	5	17%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
22	here I could not understand the activity. It might be better to give some information beforehand.	might		66	5	30%	5	56%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
23	be better to give some information beforehand. This is a good idea J The lesson flows in a very	this		75	6	18%	6	25%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
24	idea J The lesson flows in a very complex way. I cannot follow. L They seem to be independent	I		90	7	50%	7	26%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%
25	The lesson flows in a very complex way. I cannot follow. L They seem to be independent activities.	follow		92	7	00%	7	31%	0	0%	feedback samples.txt	0%

concordance collocates plot patterns clusters filenames source text notes

11,137 Set 0%

Figure 3.7. Screenshot of the concordance page of Wordsmith 4.0 concordance software

The results were transferred to the Microsoft Excel document, which has lesson plan extracts to which feedback was given. That way, the metadiscourse markers were controlled to determine whether they had any metadiscourse function and, if they had, what function they had by assessing them in their context in the lesson plans. While assessing the markers and their context, other linguistic elements not included in the 'List of Metadiscourse Markers' but had a metadiscourse function were revealed and reported in the study's results section.

Within their context in the lesson plans, the study assessed linguistic elements in each authentic feedback and potential metadiscourse markers in feedback found by the Wordsmith 4.0 concordance tool. It identified whether they had a metadiscourse function and afterwards calculated their frequency. The concordance tool found 11412 linguistic elements from the 'List of Investigated Metadiscourse Markers' in written feedback samples. The findings of the concordance tool were downloaded and transferred into the Microsoft Excel document into another column. In the document, the parts of the lesson plan for which feedback was given were in the second column. The written feedback samples were in the third column, and the findings of the concordance tool were in the

fourth column. Each lesson plan extract, its feedback, and the findings of the concordance tool were in different columns but in the same row, side by side. Having the results and the context in which feedback was given side by side helped to efficiently conduct the manual analysis of findings and feedback within its context.

Each linguistic item found by the concordance tool in the feedback samples was analysed within their context manually by the researcher to reveal whether they had a metadiscourse function. The items referring to the feedback's propositional content were not coded as metadiscourse markers. For example, the findings of the concordance tool showed all the first-person pronouns 'I' in feedback samples, but, as aforementioned, a linguistic item could have both propositional functions by referring to the informational content of the feedback and metadiscourse function by referring to the writer of the feedback. See the example feedback below;

- “You cannot give them exercises without making grammar presentation first. First give contextual sentences as an example and give the meaning. Then work on the grammatical forms such as I wish I were. Finally, give the exercises.”

Two pronouns, 'I', in '... such as I wish I were.' in the feedback context do not refer to the writer and thus are not metadiscourse markers. The first-person pronouns that refer to the feedback's writer are coded as metadiscourse markers. See the example below;

- “Don't you think your instructions are a bit difficult and complex? here I could not understand the activity.”

By using the first-person pronoun 'I' in the feedback, the supervisor referred herself/himself and aimed to engage the pre-service teacher in the feedback. This use of the first-person pronoun was coded as an engagement marker in metadiscourse marker types.

The metadiscourse markers were labelled according to their types in the following columns. The frequency of using each metadiscourse marker in the entire written feedback samples was determined, normalised to occurrences per 10,000 words and then noted in a list of frequency of use.

An interrater reliability process was conducted to check the analysis's reliability. Two researchers who were specialists in linguistic analysis and studied metadiscourse markers helped the study as peer debriefers. Out of 11412 found linguistic items, 2853 items, which refer to %25 of the entire items, were analysed within their contexts by the two other researchers considering their context in feedback and lesson plans. Fleiss'

Kappa analysis was conducted on the researchers' findings to check the interrater reliability. The benchmark suggested by Landis and Koch (1977, p. 165) was used to comment on the acceptability of the agreement. A Fleiss' Kappa value over 0.80 is an almost perfect agreement between the raters. A native speaker who teaches English in a language course assisted in analysing metadiscourse markers that could not be identified as having metadiscourse or propositional function. Table 3.1 below displays the reference Kappa value for the interpretation of an agreement.

Table 3.1. *Interpretation of agreement in Kappa value (Landis and Koch (1977, p. 165)*

Kappa Value	Interpretation of the Agreement
< 0	Poor agreement
0.01 – 0.20	Slight agreement
0.21 – 0.40	Fair agreement
0.41 – 0.60	Moderate agreement
0.61 – 0.80	Substantial agreement
0.81 – 1.00	Almost perfect agreement

In the present study, according to the calculations, the Kappa value is 0.87, which shows almost perfect agreement. The metadiscourse markers and their types, which the researchers disagreed on, were discussed. After discussions on disagreed items, the agreed items were recoded in the analysis. The disagreed ones were evaluated with a native speaker teacher of English in a language course and coded in accordance with the opinion of the native speaker.

3.5.2. Analysis of interview data

As the first step to analyse the data from the responses in the interviews, eighteen interviews were initially transcribed into separate Microsoft Word documents and labelled with the related pre-service teacher. Transcription of the interviews were translated into English. The translation was peer-checked by two native English speakers. Two cycles were conducted to analyse the qualitative data from the interviews. In the first cycle, each transcribed interview text was divided into data segments. To determine the segments of data, the entire responses of each interview were read thoroughly. Verbatim, the phrases from the interviews, including data representing the flourishing ideas and experiences of interviewees, were transferred into a Microsoft Excel document. The data chunks were labelled with descriptive and where necessary simultaneous codes. Descriptive coding represents the coding method of labelling the data chunk to summarize

in a word or short phrase (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014). Simultaneous coding means applying “two or more different codes to a single qualitative datum (Miles, et al., 2014, p. 85)”. Simultaneous codes were given to the chunks of data including or representing more than one phenomenon. The derived codes in the present study “assign symbolic meaning to the descriptive or inferential information (Miles et al., 2014, p. 71)” from the data chunks in the interviews. Table 3.2 below includes a phrase of an interviewee with one descriptive code and a phrase with descriptive simultaneous codes.

Table 3.2. *Sample phrases and codes*

Phrase	Code
Feedback is not just two words and is more detailed and descriptive. So it is better (than a short feedback).	Detailed
It says there is a problem, but it is not clear what the problem is. This feedback does not offer me a solution. While saying “give examples to students, they may not understand”, she expects me to understand without giving me any examples.	Not clear Not detailed

The overlaps in the codes were analysed, and the number of codes was reduced. As the second cycle and the last phase of generating themes from codes, considering the commonalities among the codes, they were grouped under categories. These categories were named as sub-themes. The sub-themes were categorised under main themes. According to Creswell, “the use of themes is another way to analyse qualitative data. Because themes are similar codes aggregated together to form a major idea in the database (Creswell, 2012, p. 248)”. The themes and the codes grouped under themes will be presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS

The current study examined metadiscourse markers in written feedback in distance teacher education. Concerning this aim, 3629 authentic written feedback samples, including 50113 words and 125 emojis from the supervisors for 579 lesson plans were analysed by addressing the following research questions:

1. What are the metadiscourse markers and their functions used by supervisors in their written feedback for pre-service teachers' lesson plans in distance teacher education?
 - a. What are the frequencies of metadiscourse markers used by supervisors in their lesson plan feedback in distance education?
 - b. What are the functions of metadiscourse markers used by supervisors in their lesson plan feedback in distance education?
2. What do pre-service teachers think about the use of metadiscourse markers in written feedback?

Every written feedback sample for each pre-service teacher and the extract of the lesson plan for which the feedback was given were transferred into a Microsoft Excel document by creating a page for each pre-service teacher. The data of entire feedback samples were analysed with the help of the Wordsmith 4.0 concordance tool. The written feedback samples were transferred into a *.txt.* document to create a concordance document. To create a keyword list for the concordance tool, the metadiscourse markers in the academic discourse community investigated by scholars such as Hyland (2005), Ädel (2017), Schiffrin (1987), Croucher (2004), Bussman (1984), and Vande Kople (1997), were used and a 'List of Investigated Metadiscourse Markers' (see Appendix C) was created (see section 3.4.1). First, the linguistic items in the list were searched in entire feedback samples by the concordance tool. The tool found 11412 linguistic elements from the list in feedback samples. Each linguistic element found by the concordance tool was analysed, considering its context in the feedback and lesson plan to determine whether it had a metadiscourse function in the feedback. In addition, potential metadiscourse markers not listed in the prepared list were also identified. After analysing each linguistic element in its context, 7489 metadiscourse markers were found.

A certain amount of the researcher's findings was analysed by two researchers, as raters in the present study, to determine the reliability of the analysis. The raters analysed %25 of 11412 linguistic items the concordance tool found to reveal whether they had metadiscourse function in their context in the feedback. Fleiss' Kappa analysis was conducted to demonstrate the inter-rater reliability of the findings of three researchers. The results showed a 0.87 Kappa value, which means an almost perfect agreement between the researchers.

In the following sections, the findings of the study will be explained in the order of the research questions.

4.1. The Frequency of Metadiscourse Markers Used by Supervisors in Their Lesson Plan Feedback in Distance Education

The first research question in the study includes two sub-questions. The first subquestion seeks answers for the frequency of metadiscourse markers in written feedback for lesson plans. Among the entire metadiscourse markers, interactional metadiscourse markers (%75,08) are used more frequently than interactive metadiscourse markers (%24,92) in written feedback for lesson plans. Among interactional metadiscourse markers, engagement markers (%62,13) such as reader pronouns '*You*', '*your*', '*inclusive we*' and directives, such as '*use*', '*do not + imperative*', '*show*', '*choose*' are the most frequent ones. These types of metadiscourse markers '*which explicitly refer to or build a relationship with the reader*' (Hyland, 2005) in feedback occur with the highest frequency in total among entire discourse markers while attitude markers such as exclamation marker '*!*', '*important*', and '*appropriate*' which express the writer's attitude to the proposition are the least frequent (%1,86). On the other hand, among interactive metadiscourse markers, endophoric markers (%9,91) such as '*here*', '*this part*', '*(in) this example*', '*(in) this explanation*', '*(in) this expression*', '*(in) this passage*', '*(in) this plan*', '*(in) your outcome*', and '*(in) your plan*' which refer to information in other parts of the text, are the most frequent, while announce goals (%0,20) such as '*aim*', '*propose*', and '*want to*', which announce goals in the text, are the least frequent. The descriptive statistics of 7489 Metadiscourse markers found in feedback samples are displayed in Table 4.1. below.

Table 4.1. *Frequency of metadiscourse markers in written feedback for lesson plans*

Category	Function	Count	%	F/10,000
Interactional	Involve the reader in the argument	5626	75.08	1123
Engagement Markers	explicitly refer to or build a relationship with the reader	4629	62.13	929
Hedges	withhold the writer's full commitment to the proposition	380	5.07	76
Self-Mention	explicit reference to author(s)	247	3.29	49
Boosters	emphasise force or writer's certainty in the proposition	203	2.70	41
Attitude Markers	express the writer's attitude to the proposition	140	1.86	28
Interactive	Help to guide the reader through the text	1863	24.92	373
Endophoric Markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	743	9.91	148
Transition Markers	express semantic relation between main clauses	576	7.67	115
Code Glosses	help readers grasp the meanings of ideational material	419	5,59	84
Frame Markers	Sequencing	31	0,41	6
	Label Stages	41	0.54	8
	refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages	22	0.36	4
	Announce Goals	15	0.20	3
Evidentials	refer to the source of information from other texts	10	0,15	2

4.2. Metadiscourse Markers Used for Different Functions by Supervisors in Their Lesson Plan Feedback in Distance Education

The second sub-question seeks answers to the functions of metadiscourse markers in written feedback. The revealed metadiscourse markers and their categorisation according to their functions in written feedback are presented in this section.

Concerning this question, the functions and categories of metadiscourse markers and feedback samples representing this function are presented below from the most frequent to the least frequent function. While presenting the results, two main categories of metadiscourse markers, i.e., '*interactional*' and '*interactive*' metadiscourse markers and their functions are presented in different sections below. Since interactional metadiscourse markers are found to be more frequent, they are presented first.

For each type of metadiscourse function and category, the markers in the investigated metadiscourse markers list reported at the beginning and the metadiscourse markers that the study revealed but not included in the list reported later.

Metadiscourse markers used in feedback are presented in the following sections with extracts from the feedback samples. The quotes from feedback samples are presented without correcting writing mistakes but highlighting the exemplified metadiscourse marker in feedback.

4.2.1. Interactional metadiscourse markers

Interactional metadiscourse markers are used in written feedback to attract or involve pre-service teachers in the study to the argument presented in the feedback. Compared to interactive metadiscourse markers (%24.92), interactional metadiscourse markers (%75.08) were used more in our corpus of written feedback samples. Sub-categories of interactional metadiscourse markers are displayed in the sections below from the most frequent to the least.

4.2.1.1. *Engagement markers*

Supervisors, who are the feedback writers, used engagement markers most frequently (%62.13) among all the other metadiscourse markers. The supervisors use engagement markers in the feedback samples to build an interaction with the reader. While creating this interaction, supervisors aim to engage pre-service teachers in the argument or into what is meant in the feedback. As seen in the examples from the feedback samples, the supervisors used linguistic elements such as questions, rhetorical questions (941 times, 187.8/10,000), reader pronouns ‘*You*’ (1858 times, 370.8/10,000), ‘*your*’ (452 times, 90.2/10,000), calling the supervisors by their names in feedback (135 times, 26.9/10,000), ‘*inclusive we*’ (47 times, 9.4/10,000), ‘*let’s*’ (2 times in total), ‘*thank you*’ (22 times, 4.4/10,000), imperatives (527 times, 105/10,000) such as ‘*use*’, ‘*do not + imperative*’, ‘*be*’, ‘*show*’, ‘*choose*’, ‘*let*’, ‘*remember*’, ‘*prepare*’, ‘*connect*’, ‘*pay*’, ‘*review*’, ‘*see*’, ‘*set*’, ‘*state*’, and ‘*take*’, modals (580 times, 116/10,000) such as ‘*should*’, ‘*must*’, ‘*have to*’, ‘*need to*’ and ‘*had better*’. The engagement marker ‘*you*’ was used the most frequently, while some specific imperatives such as ‘*connect*’, ‘*pay*’, ‘*review*’, ‘*see*’, ‘*take*’, ‘*believe*’, ‘*correct*’, ‘*minimize*’, and ‘*reorganize*’ the least. It is considerable to observe that while addressing their argument to pre-service teachers, supervisors used ‘*please + imperatives*’ (90 times, 18/10,000) in addition to reader pronouns. To sum up, among engagement markers, markers addressing the pre-service teacher, such as by using reader pronouns and calling pre-service teachers by name, were the most frequent,

followed by questions and imperatives. The count of engagement markers, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. *The count of engagement markers, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Engagement Markers	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
You	1858	370.8	Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using ☺
Your	452	90.2	Your aim is to use the text as a language tool to review passive voice.
Name of the reader	135	26.9	THIS IS NOT A SUBORDINATE SKILL (the name of the pre-service teacher). YOU SHOULD WRITE AN OBSERVABLE ACTIVITY HERE.
We (inclusive)	47	9.4	Here we use present perfect tense don't we ?
Thank you	22	4.4	Thank you for this good lesson plan ☺
?	941	187.8	Don't you think your instructions are a bit difficult and complex?
Should	399	79.6	According to the criteria, you should also give the answers to the tasks.
Need to	85	16.9	As I said, they need to practice the words with a vocabulary exercise first.
Have to	37	7.4	You have to specify it. How will you achieve it?
Had better	32	6.4	You had better consider the difficulties they may encounter
Must	27	5.4	No error correction. You must have at least /try two different error correction techniques in your plans
Please + imperative	90	18	Please provide more examples of correction
By the way	2	0.4	pictures you stick on the board (I assume you will stick them on the board by the way ☺)
Let's	2	0.4	This is not a language-related objective. Let's make it more clear.
Imperatives			
Use	147	29.3	Focus on pre-reading a bit more. Use some visuals when
Ask	78	15.6	Do not announce it. Just ask your question.
Do not	49	9.8	Make them guess the words with a vocabulary exercise. Do not give them the meanings.
Write	31	6.2	what is the purpose of this pair or group work? Write down here
Check	28	5.6	Too broad. Check your book to practice your outcome writing.
Be	27	5.4	Be careful that is not a very well organised lesson plan....
Try	23	4.6	Try to do such things with the other examples.
Show	22	4.4	Don't explain the rules to them. On the chart show the suffixes and ask them questions like "What do we add if..."
Omit	16	3.2	Omit this part please.
Choose	14	2.8	Choose simpler verbs
Let	11	2.2	You talk a lot. As a teacher, let students speak more.
Focus	10	2	Choose some of the important ones and focus on them.

Table 4.2. (Continuing) *The count of engagement markers, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Remember	8	1.6	Remember to use regular and, irregular verbs in your sentences.
Keep	8	1.6	Keep your classroom language simple.
Rewrite	7	1.4	REWRITE THE LEARNING OUTCOME. YOUR WORDING HAS SOME PROBLEMS.
Prepare	6	1.2	Prepare them a worksheet. Ask them to match the pictures with the words.
Do	6	1.2	Intead of saying what you will do, do it
Make	5	1	Make them guess the words with a vocabulary exercise.
Add	4	0.8	Either focus on grammar or add some reading skill activities. Otherwise, it may take shorter than you plan.
Set	3	0.6	Set a time limit whenever you give them an exercise to do
State	3	0.6	State your ideas more simply.
Practice	3	0.6	Focus on just one use and practice the form
Simplify	3	0.6	This is a really long and cofusing instruction.... Simplify it and then add asample to your worksheets to make...
Go	2	0.4	Do you think this is a lesson plan? I don't. Go back and read what you did.
Give	2	0.4	Give them a task. They will think about what?
Say	2	0.4	JUST SAY " REWRITE THESE SENTENCES BY USING SIMPLE PAST TENSE"
Take	1	0.2	THIS PART MAY TAKE MORE TIME I GUESS. TAKE THIS INTO CONSIDERATION BEFORE YOUR LESSON.
Review	1	0.2	Review how to write objectives and subordinate skills
See	1	0.2	See books or websites about wrm-up and lead-in acvities.
Connect	1	0.2	Connect your chat with the topic smoothly- instead of saying "We'll do a Writing activity" all of a sudden.
Believe	1	0.2	Believe me, it will not be clear to them L The definition is too long and confusing.
Correct	1	0.2	Therefore correct your mistakes and focus on using correct grammar.
Minimize	1	0.2	Minimize teacher talking time. Don't start with rules.
Reorganize	1	0.2	Reorganize your lesson or only this part.
Pay	1	0.2	Pay attention to and punctuation.

The abovementioned metadiscourse markers resulted from analysing the linguistic items found by the Wordsmith 4.0 concordance tool in the feedback samples. Our written feedback corpus demonstrates high use of reader and writer pronouns such as 'you', 'your', 'name of the reader' and 'inclusive we'. Some of the markers are the ones not found in the pre-prepared list (List of Investigated Metadiscourse Markers, see Appendix C), such as 'please + imperative', 'thank you' and imperatives such as 'ask', 'be', 'believe', 'check', 'correct', 'do', 'focus', 'give', and 'keep'. The supervisors use imperatives to make the pre-service teachers conduct certain actions against some problematic points in lesson plans. For example, as seen in feedback 1 below, imperatives such as 'simplify' and 'add' refer to an organisational problem in the lesson plan.

Feedback sample 2 includes the same imperative with the requesting word ‘*please*’ before the imperative to mitigate the criticism in feedback. Feedback 3 refers to a content problem in the lesson plan and includes the modal verb ‘*must*’ before an imperative to refer to an obligation. Feedback 4 is advisory using ‘had better’ before imperative.

1. “This is a really long and confusing instruction.... Simplify it and then add a sample to your worksheets to make the sts familiriaz the target structure....”.
2. “Thank you for your lesson plan. The most serious problem with your plan is that your outcomes are mostly based on reading skill but the actual lesson focuses on only grammar and lacks exercises to test it. Either focus on grammar or add some reading skill activities. Otherwise it may take shorter than you plan. Also please add error correction examples and some problem solving scenarios in case students may not understand the content.”
3. “No error correction. You must have at least two different error correction techniques in your plans.”
4. “After PRESENTATION, you had better give them some controlled exercises and make them PRACTISE”

In the authentic written feedback samples of the study, the supervisors also used emojis, such as 😊 (Smiling face emoji) and ☹ (Frowning face emoji), to engage the pre-service teachers in the text. Since they are not linguistic items, they were not accepted as metadiscourse markers, but their role in motivating or demotivating pre-service teachers is unquestionable. The smiling face emoji (😊) was used 104 times, and the frowning face emoji (☹) was used 21 times in the study samples. The discussion on how the supervisors used these emojis and the opinions of pre-service teachers on the use of emojis in feedback by supervisors will be presented in sections 5.1 and 5.2. in Chapter 5. Samples of emoji use and their context are explained below:

😊 (Smiling face emoji)/:); ‘*Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using 😊*’

☹ (Frowning face emoji)/: (; ‘*They are not clear learning outcomes ☹*’

4.2.1.2. Hedges

Hedges are used in written feedback to withhold the supervisors’ commitment to the proposition in the feedback. The hedges of which descriptive statistics are presented

in Table 4.3 are the second common metadiscourse markers (380 times, 76/10,000) in written feedback for lesson plans. To reveal the hedges, the linguistic items found by the concordance tool in our corpus were analysed in their context. According to analysis, the hedges such as ‘*may*’, ‘*would*’, ‘*could*’, ‘*supposed*’, ‘*maybe*’, ‘*seems*’, ‘*might*’, ‘*unclear*’, and ‘*guess*’ were used more frequently than the other hedges. Among entire hedges, ‘*may*’ (102 times, 20.4/10,000) is the most frequent hedge in feedback samples. Hedges used in feedback within their contexts and their number of occurrences, frequency per 10,000 words and examples from the quotes of feedback are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. *The count of hedges, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Hedges	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
May	102	20.4	THIS PART MAY TAKE TOO MUCH TIME. SO MAKE IT SHORTER OK?
Would	54	0.4	This is not a very good idea.. No one would do it in class
Could	28	5.6	Very good activity. But you could distribute the grids on a piece of paper rather than having them copy it.
Supposed	28	0.2	This activity should be the first one. Then they are supposed to fill in the blanks activity.
Maybe	25	5	I cannot follow.. ☹ They seem to be independent activities. Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using ☺
Seems	23	0.2	Perhaps you would like to say “like or liked?” this seems more polite.
Might	22	4.4	here I couldn not understand the activity. It might be better to give some information beforehand.
Unclear	16	5.6	This is a bit unclear and not language-related.
Guess	12	2.4	THIS PART MAY TAKE MORE TIME I GUESS . TAKE THIS INTO CONSIDERATION BEFORE YOUR LESSON.
Couldn't	7	1.4	I couldn't see this pattern in your plan. What about the new words in the text?
Look Like	7	0.2	Your warm-up activity was so short, it looks like you just started doing the exercise.
A bit	6	10.8	Don't you think your instructions are a bit difficult and complex?
Almost	5	1	A student's aloud reading is even worse as neither the reader nor the listeners may understand almost nothing.
Possible	5	0.8	It's not possible to achieve in only one lesson.
Perhaps	4	0.2	Perhaps you would like to say “like or liked?”
Generally	4	0.8	Grammar lessons are generally divided into three stages: Presentation-Practice-Production.
Sound	4	0.4	This sounds like a subordinate skill rather than an outcome of your plan. It is a reading plan.
Not sure	4	0.8	I AM NOT SURE IF YOU HAVE TIME FOR THE SECOND EXERCISE.
Mostly	3	0.6	Subordinate skills tel us how we plan to achieve out learning outcomes. They are mostly activities you use
From an overall perspective	3	1.4	From an overall perspective , your plan is nice and coherent. But you should be careful about your grammar.
Usually	2	3.2	We usually state the function here rather than the term.

Table 4.3. (Continuing) *The count of hedges, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Should	2	4.6	Comprehend should be something more observable I guess.
Sometimes	2	0.4	Peer-feedback is an effective part in writing; however, sometimes even advanced students may not do it effectively because they don't know how to do.
Suggest	1	0.4	One thing I would suggest you would be to prepare a checklist for students to check each other's works.
Suggested	1	0.2	In the literature, it is suggested that teachers should focus on one grammar point in one lesson.
Suggests	1	0.2	As the Question suggests , such pictures are better when teaching Present Continuous .
Possibly	1	1	Students highly possibly don't know him.
Probably	1	0.2	You can give examples here. You will most probably need more time at this stage considering the worksheet.
Quite	1	0.2	Before each musical instrument, you should have used a definite article. This is a quite well-known grammar rule.
As far as I know	1	1.2	Is there something wrong with the date. As far as I know , your teaching practices are on this week.
Look as if	1	0.2	It looks as if there are some missing parts of your plan. That is to say, the rest of the plan wasn't written clearly.
Around	1	0.2	Your plain must be around 40-45 minutes!
Assume	1	0.2	Will you write the words you see on the board under the pictures you stick on the board (I assume you will stick them on the board by the way ☺)
In general	1	0.2	In general , it is a well-organized lesson plan.
Indicate	1	0.2	These learning outcomes (main aims of the lesson) indicate a speaking lesson (there is no sign of a written task, etc); however, your lesson plan is for a writing lesson

Hedges in our corpus are the second most common metadiscourse markers among interactional metadiscourse markers but fifth among all the types of metadiscourse.

1. 'here I **could** not understand the activity. It **might** be better to give some information beforehand.'
2. "I cannot follow.. ☹ They **seem** to be independent activities. **Maybe** I do not know the technology system you are using ☺"
3. "Spelling mistakes are also Mistakes ☺"
4. "What do you wonder about? You already gave the answers ☺"

In examples 1 and 2 above, while criticizing problematic and unclear points, hedges (in bold) let the supervisors withhold their commitment to the proposition. As seen in examples 2, and 3, using smiling face emoji is also a way of mitigating the criticism. On the other hand, by using a frowning face emoji after 'I cannot follow', the supervisor displays her/his emotional status to the pre-service teacher while presenting the propositional content in feedback.

Some of the hedges are the ones not found in the pre-prepared list (List of Investigated Metadiscourse Markers, see Appendix C), such as ‘*a bit*’, ‘*as far as I know*’, ‘*look as if*’, ‘*look like*’, ‘*from overall perspective*’, ‘*sound*’, and ‘*not sure*’.

4.2.1.3. *Self-mentions*

Self-mentions represent explicit references to the supervisor, who is the writer of the feedback (see Table 4.4). The analysis found 247 self-mentions (49/10,000) such as ‘*I*’, ‘*me*’, ‘*my*’, ‘*our*’, ‘*us*’, and ‘*we*’ in feedback samples. The use of ‘*I*’ as a self-mention is considerably high (214 times, 427/10,000) and the most frequent among the other self-mentions in feedback. Self-mentions within their contexts in feedback, the number of occurrences, and frequency are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. *The count of self-mentions, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Self-mentions	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
I	214	4.27	I could not understand ☹
Me	19	3.8	Are you kidding me ? This is not an observable verb!
My	4	0.8	Are you sure she is your lecturer? My name is supposed to be here.
Our	5	1	On the basis of our outcome, we first teach students the target function through a listening or a reading text.
Us	3	0.6	Subordinate skills tel us how we plan to achieve out learning outcomes.
We	2	0.4	You should Show all these in teacher-student format because we need to see how you give instructions, make explanations, make corrections or...

4.2.1.4. *Boosters*

Boosters in written feedback are used to emphasise force or the supervisor’s certainty in the propositional message conveyed in the feedback. The analysis found boosters such as ‘*clear*’, ‘*think*’, ‘*always*’, ‘*really*’, ‘*never*’, ‘*show*’, ‘*actually*’, ‘*believe*’, ‘*true*’, ‘*clearly*’, ‘*consider*’, ‘*find*’, ‘*in fact*’, ‘*know*’, ‘*must*’, ‘*obvious*’, ‘*of course*’, and ‘*shown*’ in feedback samples. The first booster, ‘*clear*’, was the most frequent (77 times, 15,4/10,000), while each of the last eight boosters appeared once in feedback. Boosters within their contexts, the number of occurrences and frequency per 10,000 words are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. *The count of boosters, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Boosters	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
Clear	77	15.4	You don't have to give the translations of the phrases as the pictures are clear .
Think	53	10.6	I think the presentation part is too long.
Always	20	4	HAVING B PLAN IS ALWAYS NECESSARY FOR TEACHERS AND YOU HAVE IT. THIS IS GOOD.
Really	13	2.6	This is a really long and confusing instruction.... Simplify it and then add a sample
Never	8	1.6	THIS QUESTION MAY CONFUSE THE STUDENTS BECAUSE THEY MIGHT THINK THAT THEY NEVER USE THEM IN BASE FORMS!!!! WATCH OUT WITH YOUR INSTRUCTIONS!!!
Show	8	1.6	It is good to remind them of the certain vocabulary by visuals. That also show us you are prepared for some expected difficulties.
Actually	5	1	Your start is good actually , how you explain the structure is satisfying too...
Believe	4	0.8	Well-written! However, there is nothing about can't in your lesson. I believe it shouldn't since you have 40 minutes and it may not be enough to teach
True	3	0.6	There is no clue for the meaning of this Word in the listening text, so you can't ask the meaning of this Word as an activity. This is also true for the rest of the words and the activity.
Clearly	2	0.4	That is to say, the rest of the plan wasn't written clearly .
Sure	2	0.4	It is a great idea for sure ; however, you should design the activity very carefully, and as far as I see..
Consider	1	0.2	I do not consider this an activity.
Find	1	0.2	Dear (pre-service teacher's name) , I find your plan very confusing.
In fact	1	0.2	In fact they haven't because you don't ask about what the text is about; you ask about these people's lives. So ask your question accordingly.
Know	1	0.2	So far, you have just asked many questions but these questions have no focus at all. I know that this is a speaking plan but that does not mean that students should just speak without having any specific function.
Must	1	0.2	It must be 12.04.2018, I guess?
Obvious	1	0.2	Isn't it obvious ? You showed the Picture.
Of course	1	0.2	Your plan is more like the practice part of a grammar lesson rather than speaking. Of course they speak but this is a speaking activity not a speaking lesson.
Shown	1	0.2	Spelling mistakes are shown in red by corrected version.

4.2.1.5. *Attitude markers*

As the name refers, attitude markers represent the supervisor's attitude towards the propositional content in the written feedback. The revealed attitude markers from the feedback samples were exclamation marker (!), 'important', 'appropriate', 'prefer',

‘even x’, ‘preferred’, ‘expected’, ‘unfortunately’, ‘appropriately’, ‘surprised’, ‘understandable’, and ‘essential’. Exclamation marker (!) was the most frequent (72 times, 14.4/10,000,) and each of the last four markers appeared once in the feedback samples. The exclamation marker ‘!’ was used after some expressions such as “*Well done!*”, “*Oppss!*” or also after sentences to show the writer’s attitude such as “*THIS IS MORE LIKE A LEARNING OUTCOME !!! “READ FOR THE MAIN IDEA”*”. Attitude markers, their context in feedback samples, the number of occurrences and frequency statistics are in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6. *The count of attitude markers, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Attitude Markers	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
!	72	14.4	THIS IS MORE LIKE A LEARNING OUTCOME !!! “READ FOR THE MAIN IDEA”
Important	35	7	Limiting the time is very important since you have 3 steps.
Appropriate	15	3	YOUR WORDING IS NOT APPROPRIATE TO LEARNING OUTCOMES.
Prefer	4	0.8	No, we don’t prefer using translation technique in vocabulary teaching.
Even x	3	0.6	You need a post activity where the students will do some production by using the phrasal verbs you taught them. It can be game, speaking activity or even listening.
Preferred	3	0.6	Such NON-ACTION VERBS as ‘comprehend, understand, know, etc.’ are NOT used in outcomes – instead ACTION VERBS are preferred (talk, write, skim, scan, use, find, express, narrate, predict, etc.)
Expected	2	0.4	(calls pre-service teacher’s name) YOUR LESSON PLAN IS A GRAMMAR PLAN. BUT YOU ARE EXPECTED TO WRITE A WRITING PLAN.
Unfortunately	2	0.4	So you think previous 20-25 minutes will be enough for them to get familiar with the subject and practise, don’t you? Unfortunately , it’s not possible
Appropriately	1	0.2	Not appropriately written. Two verbs in one sentence, example question, and just the topic but not the target skill.
Surprised	1	0.2	I’m surprised to learn that your students are foreigners!
Understandable	1	0.2	You don’t have to do whole class check. It may not be understandable .
Essential	1	0.2	Positive feedbacks are essential .

4.2.2. Interactive metadiscourse markers

Interactive metadiscourse markers are used in written feedback to organise the text to help the reader through it. Compared to interactional metadiscourse markers (%75,08),

interactive metadiscourse markers (%24.92) were used less in our corpus of written feedback samples. Sub-categories of interactive metadiscourse markers are displayed in the sections below from the most frequent to the least.

4.2.2.1. *Endophoric markers*

Endophoric markers refer to the information in the other parts of the written feedback (see Table 4.7). Endophoric markers were the most frequent among interactive metadiscourse markers (743 times, 149/10,000). The study revealed a high number of references to the parts of the lesson plan which should be determined as endophoric markers. Even though written feedback and lesson plans are individual texts, written feedback in our context is provided on the lesson plan document by highlighting or underlining the relevant part in the lesson plan and adding a feedback text aside. Thus, in the final version, there comes a document including feedback and the lesson plan together. Therefore, the references in feedback which mention the parts of the lesson plan are evaluated as endophoric markers and reported below. This is one of the issues observed through the analysis in the study and which might differ in written feedback for lesson plans from the other genres in the academic discourse community.

The most common endophoric markers in feedback samples were, in the order of frequency, ‘*this*’, ‘*here*’, ‘*(in) your plan*’, ‘*(in) this activity*’, ‘*(in) this part*’, ‘*(in) this question*’, and ‘*(in) your outcome*’. The marker ‘*this*’ (332 times, 66.2/10,000) was the most frequent and used without adding a part of the lesson plan following it; ‘*This is not a good question to lead the students to the focused point.*’. ‘*Here*’ was the second most common (68 times, 13.6/10,000). See the samples of the endophoric markers in their context;

1. “**This** is not a good question to lead the students to the focused point.”
2. “You can also ask and get their opinions **here** as well so that they can participate in the lesson more and more ☺”
3. “I cannot see how you handle this activity in **your plan**.”
4. “**This activity** is not related to the activity about Shakespeare.”
5. “The aim of **this part** is to attract students’ attention ok ☺”
6. “Give **this question** before students read.”

In the examples from 1 to 6 above, endophoric markers do not refer to parts of the written feedback but refer to the commented parts of the lesson plans. Endophoric

markers within their contexts, the number of occurrences, and frequency per 10,000 words are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7. *The count of endophoric markers, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Endophoric Markers	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
This	332	66.2	This is not a good question to lead the students to the focused point.
Here	68	13.6	You can also ask and get their opinions here as well so that they can participate in the lesson more and more ☺
(in) your plan	51	10.2	I cannot see how you handle this activity in your plan .
(in) this activity	36	7.2	This activity is not related to the activity about Shakespeare.
(in) this part	30	6	The aim of this part is to attract students' attention ok ☺
(in) this question	29	5.6	Give this question before students read.
(in) your outcome	22	4.4	Your learning outcomes and your activity seem not to match with each other.
(in) this plan	19	3.8	You need at least two classes to apply this lesson plan , a 40minute lesson is not enough to do all of these things.
That	15	3	Be careful that is not a very well organised lesson plan...
(in) this sentence	14	2.8	This sentence includes misinformation, I'm afraid.
(in) this word	11	2.2	Your students are elementary level studenys so can they know this B1 level Word ?
x above	9	1.8	I think these activities are about another reading passage because they are not related to the passage you attached above .
(in) x part	8	1.6	I think the presentation part is too long.
(in) your instruction	8	1.6	Your instruction and parts of your plan is difficult to understand.
(in) this exercise	8	1.6	There is no transition between presentation and this exercise .
(in) this instruction	8	1.6	The warm-up and this instuction do not follow each other.
(in) this one	7	1.4	This one is not clear. Is the student eliciting the words? Why?
(in) this outcome	5	1	The verb "get" is not appropriate here. As it is explained in the guide book you are given, you should rewrite this outcome with another verb, such as "identify".(guide book pgs:67-68)
(in) this picture	5	1	In this Picture they don't seem to be friends
(in) your sentence	5	1	Type 2 is not necessart here because there isn't an imaginart situation. Also, your sentence needs simpification.
(in) your sub-skills	4	0.8	Why do you directly give the word and its meaning? Remember one of your sub-skills is "to guess the word by looking at the picture."
(in) your warm-up	4	0.8	Your warm up , introduction and transitions between the parts are good.
(in) this dialogue / conversation	4	0.8	This conversation is just a warm-up. You need to do something specific to your learning outcomes.
(in) picture	3	0.6	What's the connection of the Picture with the warm-up?

Table 4.7. (Continuing) *The count of endophoric markers, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

(in) this structure	3	0.6	Your class is beginner level, don't forget so this structure is hard for them to understand.
(in) this song	2	0.4	You could use this song as a fill in the blank activity to review the adjectives.
(in) this statement	2	0.4	This statement is correct. If you use the verb go in a going to statement you can drop the second go. Check the rules again.
(in) this task	2	0.4	I wish you had given this task before they listen.
(in) this text	2	0.4	In this text , there may be some examples of the if-clauses.
(in) this topic	2	0.4	Your outcome is to teach this topic , so you can't expect students to answer these questions.
(in) x section	2	0.4	This is already stated in the learning outcomes section .
x below	2	0.4	Start the lesson asking the question below to attract their attention.
(in) this expression	2	0.4	Ss don't know this expression .
(in) this passage	2	0.4	Did you get this passage from their coursebook? It seems a bit difficult for them to understand.
(in) this	1	0.2	The level of the students is elementary. It is difficult for them to understand this long explanation .
(in) this phrase	1	0.2	Do they know the meaning of this phrase
(in) this practice	1	0.2	Again you have to present the target vocabulary before this practice .
(in) this purpose	1	2	This purpose is too vague.
(in) x comment	1	0.2	Too much for his plan; check my last comment at the end of the plan.
(in) x picture	1	0.2	The activity in the second picture is about "must", not the present continuous tense and there is no answer key.
(in) your examples	1	0.2	your examples about must and have to are not enough.
Earlier x	1	0.2	This had better be the first activity because it is more simple than the earlier one .
x page	1	0.2	Try to give simple instructions or ask simple questions. Your students' level is elementary (as you state on your cover page), so they can't understand a combined sentence which also has a noun clause in it.
(in) that activity	1	0.2	Where is the skill needed for that activity ?
(in) that question	1	0.2	I have a suggestion here. Instead of asking that question , why don't you start the lesson with a photo of a pet that you have or a friend of yours has? (If you don't like or have a pet, say that one of your friends has a pet.)
(in) that verb	1	0.2	Why don't you use a visual for that verb ?
(in) that word	1	0.2	They have already told you that they don't know the meaning of that word .
(in) these activities	1	0.2	These activities may take shorter than you think.
(in) this answer	1	0.2	In order to get this answer you had better write two sentences like: My sister has long hair. (Adjective modifying something).
(in) this chart	1	0.2	There is no activity to fill in this chart ?
(in) this example	1	0.2	This is an example of a transitive- separable phrasal verb. Instead of this example , you can use a sentence without separating the verb.

While most endophoric markers refer to and include specific parts' names of the lesson plan (mentioned in the above paragraph and can be seen in Table 4.7), the

endophoric markers in examples 1, 2, and 5 refer to the parts of the plan without mentioning their names but by pointing out them. The least frequent endophoric markers, each appeared in feedback samples once, were the markers referring to the specific parts of the lesson plan such as ‘*picture*’, ‘*question*’, ‘*(in) this explanation*’, ‘*(in) this example*’, ‘*(in) this chart*’.

4.2.2.2. Transition markers

The supervisors used transition markers to refer to the semantic relation between the main clauses in written feedback (see Table 4.8). Transition markers, their context in feedback samples, the number of occurrences, and their frequencies per 10,000 words are presented in Table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8. *The count of transition markers, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Transition Marker	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
But	100	20	THERE ARE IRREGULAR VERBS TOO. BUT YOUR LESSON INCLUDES JUST THE REGULAR VERBS?????
And	81	16.2	Your focus should be suggestions and you should focus on how to organize seeing a movie together.
So	85	17	Learning outcomes are very ,important so they should be specific and clear.
Also	63	12.6	Don’t you think the activities below are too much for 45-minute lesson? Also you do not give any examples of error correction.
Because	43	8.6	THIS QUESTION MAY CONFUSE THE STUDENTS BECAUSE THEY MIGHT THINK THAT TEHY NEVER USE THEM IN BASE FORMS!!!!
However	31	6.2	I guess your job in this plan is to revişe, otherwise the students couldn’t make such an accurate sentence. However , if so, the outcomes seem wrong.
So that	26	5.2	You can also ask and get their opinions here as well so that they can participate in the lesson more and more ☺
Since	24	4.8	For this task, since you have limited time, it is better to ake them work in pairs.
(by-in) this way	22	4.4	At the end of the lesson, you can write five common mistakes on the board and make them find the errors. In this way , no one would be self-conscious.
Then	15	3	This is not the concern of a reading lesson plan. If you want to show them the pronunciation, then you should prepare a lesson plan accordingly.
If so	9	1.8	I guess your job in this plan is to revişe, otherwise the students couldn’t make such an accurate sentence. However, if so , the outcomes seem wrong.
Again	8	1.6	Good exercise,, but again please try not to use physical adjectives.
Therefore	8	1.6	Yellow parts will Show your mistakes about grammar. Therefore correct your mistakes and focus on using correct grammar.

Table 4.8. (Continuing) *The count of transition markers, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Otherwise	7	1.4	I guess your job in this plan is to revise, otherwise the students couldn't make such an accurate sentence. However, if so, the outcomes seem wrong.
Moreover	7	1.4	These are too specific to be overall objectives. Moreover second objective is not referred to students
Even if	6	1.2	It is a good idea to check understanding after giving the instruction even if it is very simple.
As	6	1.2	You don't have to give the translations of the phrases as the pictures are clear
While	6	1.2	Do not forget to walk around the class while they are doing their activities.
Thus	3	0.6	They do not make sentences, just fill in the blanks and crossword Thus , these subskills do not belong to this plan.
In addition	3	0.6	I do not understand how this is related to describing people and things. In addition , there is too much teacher talk here not allowing students to discover
If not	3	0.6	Why are they reading it? To answer some questions? If so, give them the questions beforehand. If not , tell them a reason to read the paragraph
Plus	3	0.6	This should be the main outcome of the lesson, not a subskill. Plus , what information are you talking about? What are they going to write? Sentences, a paragraph, a letter??
Alternatively	2	0.4	Is this a pair work or a group work. That is not clear. Alternatively , instead of dividing the class into two big groups as boys and girls
Even so	2	0.4	Do they already know if-clause type 2? Even so , you should check it before you do this activity.
Even	2	0.4	Do not ask such questions; students might say yes even though they don't understand anything.
On the other hand	2	0.4	Using peer correction is good, on the other hand I want to see one more technique, such as self or teacher correction.
Yet	2	0.4	The video is just for teaching the target structure, yet it might intrigue Ss.
Although	1	0.2	Although Turkish can be used under some circumstances, it is better not to use it as the second option. That is, you may give examples, tell what you do etc.
As if	1	0.2	You could ask when their birthdays are or you can talk about yours as if it is on the day you are teaching
As I said	1	0.2	Make them guess the words with a vocabulary exercise. Do not give them the meanings. Unless your focus is on pronunciation or language focus, do not conduct reading aloud. Give them the questions before they read. As I said , they need to practice the words with a vocabulary exercise first. They cannot understand the text and answer the questions unless they work on the words first.
Besides	1	0.2	You also need to give vocabulary in a context. Besides , you need a production stage in your lesson.
Rather	1	0.2	The purpose is NOT to do an exercise easily and quickly – rather , to USE PERSONALITY ADJECTIVES APPROPRIATELY AND ACCURATELY!
That	1	0.2	Good job, but I want to remind you that at this level and age group, students may not speak as much as you expect.
When	1	0.2	When you involve students, then ask a question like "Well, did you go to the cinema last Saturday?"

Transition markers were the second most frequent interactive metadiscourse markers (576 times, 115/10,000) following endophoric markers. The most frequent transition marker was ‘*but*’ (100 times, 20/10,000), and the least frequent were ‘*although*’, ‘*besides*’, ‘*rather*’, ‘*as if*’, ‘*that*’ and ‘*when*’ in feedback samples. Some of the markers are the ones not found in the pre-prepared list (List of Investigated Metadiscourse Markers, see Appendix C), such as ‘as I said’, ‘(by-in) *this way*’, ‘*as*’, ‘*as if*’, ‘*even if*’, ‘*even so*’, ‘*if not*’, ‘*if so*’, ‘*otherwise*’, ‘*plus*’, ‘*so that*’, ‘*that*’, ‘*then*’, and ‘*when*’.

4.2.2.3. Code glosses

Supervisors used code glosses to help the pre-service teacher grasp the meaning of the ideational material in the written feedback (see Table 4.9). Code glosses were the second salient type of metadiscourse in the corpus of the current study among interactive metadiscourse markers. The study revealed code glosses such as ‘()’, ‘*called*’, ‘*e.g.*’, ‘*for example*’, ‘*for instance*’, ‘*I mean*’, ‘*i.e.*’, ‘*in other words*’, ‘*or*’, ‘*say*’, ‘*such as*’, ‘*that is*’, ‘*that is to say*’, ‘*that means*’, ‘*this means*’, ‘’ ‘’’, ‘*like*’, ‘*like that*’, ‘*like this*’, and ‘*something like*’. The most frequent code gloss was ‘*or*’ (218 times, 43.5/10,000), and the least frequent code glosses were, ‘*e.g.*’, ‘*i.e.*’, ‘*in other words*’, ‘*say*’, ‘*that is to say*’, ‘*that means*’, ‘*this means*’ and ‘*something like*’ with once occurrence for each. The count of code glosses, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. *The count of code glosses, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Code Glosses	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
Or	218	43.5	What about showing them a related news article or a photograph to prepare them for the reading
Such as	55	11	They may get bored. Or prepare a guessing vocabulary activity such as a multiple choice or matching.
For example	43	8.6	Please ask more specific questions instead of this general one. For exm: What tiem does the train arrive? Etc.
()	39	7.8	*tried it (After some verbs we should write a noun, “try” is one of those words just like “know”)
Like	27	5.4	On the chart show the suffixes and ask them questions like “What do we add if there is “y” at the end?”
for instance	10	2	You should have written the activity types. For instance: By the end of the lesson students will be

" "	5	1	THIS IS MORE LIKE A LEARNING OUTCOME !!! "READ FOR THE MAIN IDEA"
I mean	4	0.8	What if they are not? I mean do you have any plans in case they are not?
Like this	3	0.6	Warm up is very important. Instead of announcing the topic, you can start like this : Let's look at this worksheet, and try to find the verbs on the.....guided discovery.
Called	3	0.6	This stage is called while-listening. We do not have a practice stage in listening lessons.
That is	2	0.4	Although Turkish can be used under some circumstances, it is better not to use it as the second option. That is , you may give examples, tell what you do etc.
Like that	2	0.4	NO SMOOTH TRANSITION AGAIN. CHECK THEIR UNDERSTANDING FIRST WITH A QUESTION LIKE THAT " WHICH TIME EXPRESSION DO YOU SEE IN THE TEXT?"
That is to say	1	0.2	It looks as if there are some missing parts of your plan. That is to say , the rest of the plan wasn't written clearly.
That means	1	0.2	That means giving feedback...
This means	1	0.2	Oppss!! Wrong tense Is this conversation meaningful? If she likes skiing, this means she knows how to ski.
Say	1	0.2	Why don't you form smaller groups? Say , groups of 3 or 4?
i.e.	1	0.2	Because you are asking about a past experience, the students do not need to use the target structure, i.e. the present continuous tense.
in other words	1	0.2	Why have you shown those photos? Tell that to students before you go on with the next stage. In other words , make a meaningful link between this discussion and the following activity (reading a text)
e.g.	1	0.2	Subskills should require using skills other than reading skills, e.g. speaking, writing, etc.
Something like	1	0.2	Do not write student talk. You can never know that. (write sth. Like ss. agree, disagree, understand, do not understand)

4.2.2.4. *Frame markers*

To conduct discourse acts, make sequences or label text stages, the supervisors used frame markers in written feedback for lesson plans. The results of frame markers, which include sequencing markers, shift topic, announce goals and label stages, are displayed below sections from the most to the least frequent. The overall frequency of frame markers in the samples of written feedback was 114 times and 23 per 10,000 words. Types of frame markers from the most frequent in feedback samples to the least; markers to label stages (41 times, 8/10,000), sequencing markers (31 times, 6/10,000), shift topic (25 times, 5/10,000) and announce goals (15 times, 3/10,000).

4.2.2.4.1. Label stages

To label stages while presenting propositional content in written feedback, the supervisors used label stages. Among the types of frame markers, markers to label stages were utilised the most frequently (41 times). The most frequent marker to label stages was ‘*here*’ (18 times, 3.6/10,000), and each of the least frequent markers such as ‘*in short*’, ‘*on the whole*’, ‘*at this step*’, ‘*from this part on*’, ‘*until here*’, and ‘*up to this point*’ appeared 1. Some of the markers are the ones not found in the pre-prepared list (List of Investigated Metadiscourse Markers, see Appendix C), such as ‘*at this step*’, ‘*from this part on*’, ‘*on the whole*’, ‘*until here*’, and ‘*in short*’. Samples of markers to label stages within their contexts, the number of occurrences and frequency per 10,000 words are shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. *The count of markers for labelling stages, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Label Stages	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
Here	18	3.6	For example, you can ask them to make an example sentence here .
Now	4	0.8	You have not checked their words. Maybe they have incorrect guesses. Now , they are making sentences but they may not know the real meanings. It is a waste of time.
At this stage	4	0.8	Ask them to work in pairs and make some predictions about the text. At this stage ask more structured questions and the questions should also be related to the text. The questions you ask here are not related to the text so how can students predict and how can they see whether their predictions are confirmed in the text?
Up to now	3	0.6	very good up to now but I have just a few concerns,, firstly Atepböceði Ercan is not a contemporary person
At this point	3	0.6	Giving an example means production and without any given context it could be difficult for students to produce meaningful sentences at this point .
Shortly	2	0.4	This can be the second activity. Shortly , organize your exercises from easier to more complicated.
So far	2	0.4	So far , you have asked some questions but as you do it as a whole class activity, only a few students could answer your questions. Instead, write the questions on the board and ask students answer the questions in pairs.
At this step	1	0.2	PRESENTATION-PRACTICE-PRODUCTION. You had better use your production exercise at this step after practice. 2nd You are supposed to write the outcomes and subskills
From this part on	1	0.2	From this part on , IS THIS A SELF-REGULATED LESSON?
On the whole	1	0.2	on the whole it is a good lesson plan, but I have some doubts if you may have problems about the different genres your students are supposed to write. I mean the difficulty levels of these genres are different.

Until here	1	0.2	UNTIL HERE , this plan seems to be a grammar one on “future simple forms”?
In short	1	0.2	You just tell them to write a paragraph in the last ten minutes, but do not explain/revise how a paragraph is written, what the components of a paragraph are etc. You also do not give them an example paragraph so that they get what is expected of them and so that they feel safe about what to do. In short , please try to read some books on how to teach writing.
Up to this point	1	0.2	Very good up to this point . What about post reading stage? This plan is incomplete!

4.2.2.4.2. *Sequencing*

The supervisors used sequencing markers to make sequences in the propositional content of the written feedback. The most frequent sequencing marker in feedback samples was ‘*first*’ (7 times, 8/10,000); each of the least frequent markers, such as ‘*finally*’ and ‘*initially*’, appeared once. The marker ‘*initially*’ is not in the pre-prepared list (List of Investigated Metadiscourse Markers, see Appendix C).

Even though these are sequencing linguistic items, so-called sequencing markers, they must “order arguments in the text rather than events in time (Hyland, 2005, p. 51)”. Thus, these event-ordering linguistic items were not taken into consideration while identifying in the analysis of the present study. See the examples below;

1. “Ask the title first; you told the students to think of a title while reading, get their answer first, and then ask comprehension questions to see if they really understand the text. Then work on language.”
2. “you can plan your lesson in this order; 1.warm-up (talking about the jobs in general) 2. reading (showing them the model text) 3. pre writing (brainstorming) 4. writing and peer-feedback 5.post-writing (talking about each other’s text/speaking)”

Example 1 has an order of events to be conducted by the pre-service teacher while the numbers in example 2 sequence the arguments in the propositional content of the feedback. Thus, sequencing linguistic items such as in example 2 were accepted as metadiscourse markers.

Sequencing markers in feedback samples within their contexts, the number of occurrences and frequency per 10,000 are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11. *The count of sequencing markers, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Sequencing Markers	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
First	7	8	First, this is not clear. Second, it is not language-related.
First of all	7	1.4	Let them read and understand it first of all . Focus on the language later on. And rewrite this instruction
Firstly	3	0.6	You need to revise the learning outcome. Firstly , it should explain what students will be able to do by the end of the lesson. Secondly, it should be an observable behavior. Therefore, you may write, By the end of the lesson students will be able to identify regular verbs...
Numbering (1, 2, 3, etc.)	3	0.6	you can plan your lesson in this order; 1. warm-up (talking about the jobs in general) 2. reading (showing them the model text) 3. pre writing (brainstorming) 4. writing and peer-feedback 5. post-writing (talking about each other's text/speaking)
Secondly	3	0.6	You need to revise the learning outcome. Firstly, it should explain what students will be able to do by the end of the lesson. Secondly , it should include an observable behavior. Therefore, you may write, By the end of the lesson students will be able to identify....
Lastly	2	0.4	??? We don't prefer to announce what we are going to do like this. Also I can't see any transition between the speaking part and grammar part of the lesson. You should link the "Pre" part of the lesson to "During" part softly. For example you can say: "I have listened to your ideas about the monuments, now there are some other statements about them but they are missing, let's read them try to fill in them with the appropriate tense. Lastly , you should've reminded them about past tense, when and why we use it and so on.
Second	2	0.4	First, this is not clear. Second , it is not language-related. Third, it is not achievable.
Third	2	0.4	Initially, you need to work on your grammar as you have made many mistakes. You are the model in the classroom, you will show students how to use English well. Second, While writing outcomes, you cannot use the verbs you cannot observe like understand, recognize etc. Third , while planning your lessons, you need to be thorough, think about details and be realistic
Finally	1	1.4	very good up to now but I have just a few concerns,, firstly Ateşböceği Ercan is not a contemporary person, so they may not know them,, and Akasya Durağı is a finished programme,, you may have chosen a new one. Finally you should always write your checking part,, how will you check the crossword and will there be a prize ora im of the activity?
Initially	1	0.2	Initially , you need to work on your grammar as you have made many mistakes. You are the model in the classroom, you will show students how to use English well. Second, While writing outcomes, you cannot use the verbs you cannot observe like understand, recognize etc. Third, while planning your lessons, you need to be thorough, think about details and be ready

4.2.2.4.3. *Shift topic*

To change the topic while presenting ideational content, markers of shift topic were used in feedback samples (see Table 4.12). The most frequent marker to shift topic was 'so' (16 times, 3.2/10,000), and each of the least frequent markers to shift topic, such as

‘now’ and ‘the other thing is’, appeared once in feedback samples. Metadiscourse markers to shift topics within their context in feedback, the number of occurrences and frequency per 10,000 words are presented in Table 4.12. samples and sample extracts from feedback are in the following table.

Table 4.12. *The count of markers for shifting topic, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Shift Topic	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
So	16	3.2	(Supervisor referring to the outcomes of the lesson) So they are not the same, maybe you can say “they are almost the same.”
Now	5	1	Well done. Now choose random students to repeat after you, or Show the Word and ask them to read aloud.
The other thing is	1	0.2	What you do is only practice. The other thing is there are too many parts and too many words and most of these not not connected.

4.2.2.4.4. *Announce goal*

Metadiscourse markers for announcing goals in feedback samples were ‘aim’, ‘purpose’, and ‘want to’. Announce goals within their context; the number of occurrences and frequency per 10,000 words are shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13. *The count of markers for announcing goals, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Announce Goals	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
Aim	8	1.6	The aim of this part is to attract students’ attention
Purpose	5	1	The purpose of the first reading may be checking the predictions.
Want to	2	0.4	I want to make a few comments about your lesson plan.

‘Aim’ was the most frequent (8 times, 1.6/10,000) and ‘want to’ was the least frequent marker (2 times, 0.4/10,000) in feedback samples.

4.2.2.5. *Evidentials*

To refer to outside sources, the supervisors used evidentials in written feedback (see Table 4.1.4). Evidentials in feedback samples were used 10 times (2/10,000) by the

supervisors. The most frequent evidential was ‘(ref. No.) / (name)’ (5 times, 1/10,000). The least frequent was the ‘quoted’ (2 times/0.4/10,000). Sample evidentials within their context, the number of occurrences and frequency per 10,000 words are presented in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14. *The count of evidentials, frequency per 10,000 words and samples from the extracts of feedback*

Evidentials	Count	Per 10,000 Words	Sample Extract from Feedback
(ref. No.) / (name)	5	1	NOT OBSERVABLE! SEE PAGES 67-68 ON YOUR BOOK.
according to x	3	0.6	According to your application program, you are supposed to teach on 24-27 April
Quoted	2	0.4	These can’t be subskills. “The language skills of speaking, listening, writing and reading are often divided into sub-skills, which are specific behaviours that language users do in order to be effective in each of the skills. Example: Learners developing the skill of listening need to have the sub-skill of being able to recognise contracted forms in connected speech.” www.teachingenglish.co.uk

4.3. Opinions of Pre-service Teachers on Supervisors’ Feedback

The analysis results of the interviews with pre-service teachers are presented in this section to answer the second research question in the study.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, 18 interviews were conducted with pre-service teachers. 11 open-ended questions were posed during the interviews to the pre-service teachers. The interviews were transcribed into documents on the computer. The content analysis method was applied. The answers of the pre-service teachers were analysed in two cycles using descriptive coding.

Some answers included complaints, expectations or suggestions for qualified feedback or lesson plan-feedback procedure overall. Some answers displayed the confusion, challenges pre-service teachers faced, and solutions they found during the feedback process. Some answers were in the form of reflecting satisfaction or dissatisfaction from feedback and the overall process.

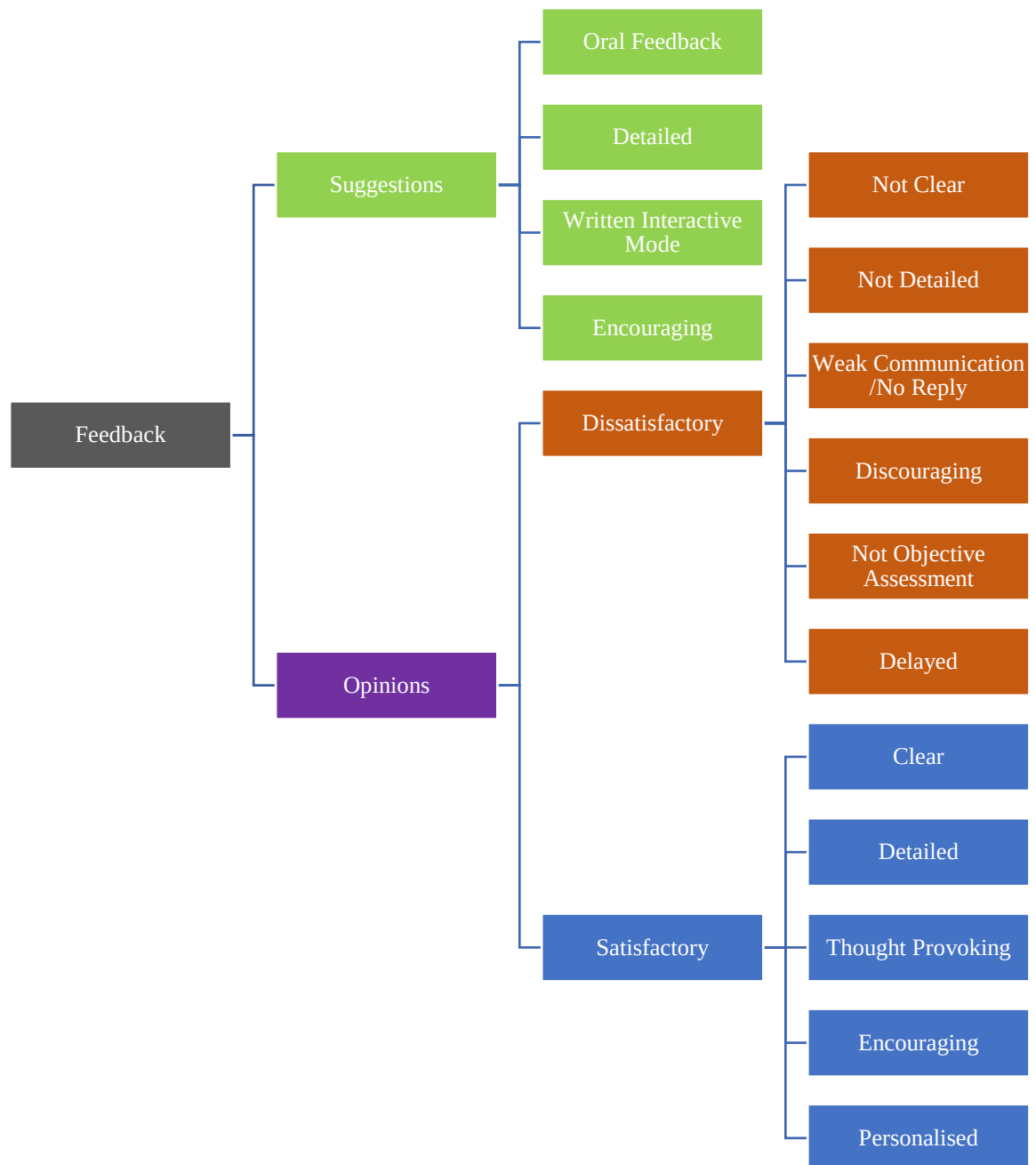
With the help of recurring keywords from the analysis of the responses, the codes reflecting the commonalities in the responses were determined. And then, by investigating the commonalities and grouping the codes, sub-themes and two themes were identified.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, some responses were described with one code, but others were described with more than one code. For example, the response “‘Feedback is not just two words and is more detailed and descriptive. So it is better (than a short feedback).’” is described with one code, ‘Detailed’. On the other hand, the response “‘It says there is a problem, but it is not clear what the problem is. This feedback does not offer me a solution. While saying, ‘give examples to students, they may not understand’, she expects me to understand without giving me any examples.’” is described with two codes simultaneously, ‘Not clear’ and ‘Not Detailed’.

In the end, two themes emerged from the data are ‘Opinions’ and ‘Suggestions’ about feedback. Under the opinions, two sub-themes emerged: satisfactory and dissatisfactory. Codes under each sub-theme and theme are labelled in the following table (Table 4.15).

The explanations related to themes and codes, together with the example extracts from the interviews are presented below in Table 4.15

Table 4.15. *The codes, sub-themes and themes emerged from the analysis of interviews*



4.3.1. Opinions

The theme ‘opinions’ includes two sub-themes: Satisfactory and Dissatisfactory. The codes and samples of the answers grouped in this theme are presented below. The sample responses referring to the codes are given under each code. Pre-service teachers who gave the response are represented as PST and with the number assigned to the pre-service teacher. As mentioned in Chapter 3, interviews were conducted in Turkish, the native language of the participants. The following samples of pre-service teachers’ responses are translations of the original responses which are in Turkish. The responses and their English translations presented below can be seen in Appendix D.

4.3.1.1. *Satisfactory*

Under the satisfactory sub-theme, the codes referring to the satisfactory points in feedback are grouped. The codes under this sub-theme are ‘Clear’, ‘Detailed’, ‘Thought-provoking’, ‘Encouraging’ and ‘Personalised’.

4.3.1.1.1. *Clear*

The pre-service teachers are mainly satisfied with the feedback when it is ‘Clear’, in other words, understandable. The pre-service teachers find feedback clear when the feedback is understandable enough, even if it contains relatively fewer words.

“It’s clearer than the previous feedback “unclear”. At least, I realise what I wrote was general, and I need to write something more specific.” PST 8

In the above excerpt, PST 8 refers to the feedback from the supervisor (“Too general”) for one of the lesson outcomes at the beginning of the lesson plan. The previous feedback for the last outcome is “Unclear”. PST 8 says the second feedback is clearer compared to the previous feedback.

“It was a good and clear explanation. I remember that feedback. It was nice and was understandable. ‘Comprehend is not observable’. I have always kept this in mind. It has become like a rule for me.” PST 2

The feedback above excerpt refers to is “Comprehend is not an observable outcome, however learning outcome must be observable.”. PST 2 finds the explanation in the feedback clear and understandable.

4.3.1.1.2. Detailed

The pre-service teachers are also satisfied with the feedback when it is detailed.

“Well, it was useful. I saw my mistakes. With the detailed explanation in this feedback, I had a better understanding what I had to do.” PST 8

The feedback PST 8 refers to in the above excerpt is “Too long technical instructions. Study each rule on the board by providing examples. The best way to elicit the rules from the students is by writing example sentences for each rule.”. PST 8 finds the feedback detailed. The feedback states the problem in the lesson plan and suggests a solution.

“The feedback is not just a couple of words. It is more detailed and explanatory. So, it's better.” PST 15

PST 15 finds the feedback more detailed and better than the other feedback sentences.

The pre-service teachers find feedback guiding when the feedback explains the problem in the lesson plan and provides solutions, examples and suggestions to solve the problem.

“This feedback also guides. It provides both the problem and the solution.” PST 16

In the above excerpt, the feedback PST 16 refers to is “The instruction is too technical. Instead, elicit the rules from the students.”. PST 16 is satisfied with the feedback since it defines the problem and suggests a solution.

4.3.1.1.3. Thought-provoking

Pre-service teachers are also satisfied with the feedback when it makes them think about the mistakes, they made or missing parts in lesson plans.

“The fact that she asked like this made me wonder if it was enough or whether I should do it that way.” PST 3

The feedback PST 3 refers to in the above excerpt is “Do you think they have comprehended the concept of superlatives?” for a grammar part about superlatives in the lesson plan. PST 3 says this feedback made her think about whether what she has written is enough for students to comprehend the grammatical concept.

Some pre-service teachers report that some feedback made them review the plan for the missing part mentioned in the feedback.

“Asking me ‘Where is it?’ made me review the plan.” PST4

In the above excerpt, PST 4 refers to the feedback given by his supervisor to the instruction (“Good. Here are examples. Look at the picture. They’ve fought.”), he has written in his plan. PST 4 says what he did after receiving this feedback and finds this feedback useful because it made him review the plan.

“I can say that this is short but clear feedback. He made me find my mistakes by asking questions.” PST 16

The feedback PST refers to in the above excerpt is “How will you respond to the errors.”. With the help of the question in the feedback, PST 16 realized that she did not include any solution for such an anticipated problem in the lesson plan.

Questions are represented with question sign (?) in the engagement markers category that attract the readers’ attention and engage them with the text.

4.3.1.1.4. Encouraging

The pre-service teachers are also satisfied with the feedback when they receive an appreciation, motivating approach or smiling face emojis in feedback sentences and find this encouraging.

“His (the supervisor) feedback was more encouraging with the smiling emojis he used. I like that.” PST 1

In the above excerpt, PST 1 refers to feedback including smiling emojis from the supervisor, and finds this feedback encouraging.

“‘These are nice 😊’ he wrote. Ah, I did it!’ I said. ‘Yes! He wrote positive feedback and also added an emoji’ PST 6

The feedback PST 6 refers to in the above excerpt is “These are nice 😊”. The feedback includes appreciating words and a smiling face emoji.

“He meant to say that this was not a lesson outcome to be aimed at. Then he gave an example in the feedback to show what he meant. It became more encouraging. You know, I received advice from the supervisor as if he were a friend of mine.” PST 7

The feedback PST 7 refers to in the above excerpt is “This is not a language related object, let’s make it more clear”. The word ‘let’s’ makes PST 7 feel as if he was behaved as a friend by his supervisor.

“We feel motivated when we see such encouraging comments rather than just correcting our mistakes.” PST 10

The feedback PST 10 refers to in the above excerpt is “Thank you” for an activity in the lesson plan.

Facial expression symbol ‘:)', ‘Let’s’ and ‘you’ in feedback sentences are engagement markers in metadiscourse markers taxonomy. As mentioned before, engagement markers are used to engage the reader in the text.

4.3.1.1.5. *Personalized*

Rather than generalised feedback, the pre-service teachers find feedback addressing them better to meet their expectations.

“Only when I get feedback which is personalised do I feel I am interacting with the supervisor. The third feedback met my expectations because it was personalised.” PST 5

PST 5 says feedback creates an interaction with her supervisor when it is personalized. The feedback she refers to is “Your instruction is not clear enough. You can say “Read the text and answer the question”. You should write the question on the board. You should also check understanding.”.

“I am the named receiver of this feedback. So, compared with the generalised feedback, this feedback addressed to me is more effective.” PST 4

The feedback PST 4 refers to in the above excerpt is “The previous activity you do is not related with this activity: Your focus should be suggestions and you should focus on how to organize seeing a movie together.”. She says she is satisfied with the feedback because it is personalized for her.

4.3.1.2. *Dissatisfactory*

Under the dissatisfactory sub-theme, the codes are ‘Not Clear’, ‘Not Detailed’, ‘Weak Communication/No reply’, ‘Discouraging’ and ‘Not Objective Assessment’, and ‘Delayed’.

4.3.1.2.1. *Not clear*

One of the complaints of unsatisfied pre-service teachers was receiving ‘unclear’ feedback from the supervisors. Pre-service teachers reported that when they received

feedback such as ‘Unclear’, ‘too broad’, ‘not good’, ‘??’, they did not understand what was not clear and not good at the parts of the lesson plan, so they did not know what to change in this commented piece.

“I didn't understand that, either. So, I had the same reaction.” PST 6

“Students will be able to recycle language from across the unit” as an outcome of the lesson in the lesson plan. The feedback for this part of the lesson plan and PST 6 refers to in the above excerpt is “I could not understand ☹ ”. As a reaction to this feedback, PST 6 says she also does not understand the feedback from the supervisor.

“It's (referring to the part in her plan) pretty obvious, actually. How could it be more specific? So, I don't see this as a very justified piece of criticism. I don't understand it, frankly. What does “broad” mean here? What does “non-specific” mean?” PTS 17

PST 17 wrote, “Students will be able to enrich their vocabulary” as an outcome of the lesson plan. The feedback PST receives and refers to in the above excerpt is “This is very broad. Be more specific”. PST 17 says this feedback is not understandable and does not agree with the supervisor.

“Not very comprehensible feedback. It makes the student (sic. referring to the pre-service teacher) a little nervous. ... Having comprehensible feedback makes me aware of what I've done.” PST 8

As for the time and date of the lesson, PST 8 wrote “Date / Hour Of The Practicum : 10/04/2018” in the lesson plan. The feedback PST 8 receives and refers to in the above excerpt is “This is not possible”. PST 8 says the feedback is not understandable, and the feedback makes the one who reads it (pre-service teacher) nervous. PST 8 also states the type of feedback he prefers.

“When I received feedback like ‘Unclear’ for the outcome, I deleted it and rewrote it. I didn't understand what was wrong or unclear with the outcome. After all, you don't know whether what you rewrite is exactly as the supervisor wants. The feedback did not help this issue.” PST 4

The feedback PST 4 refers to in the above excerpt is “Unclear”. PST 4 says she does not understand the feedback since it is not clear.

Feedback sentences stating ‘Unclear’ are given mainly for the lesson outcome and subskills parts of the lesson plans. When the pre-service teachers talked about the

problematic and to-be-developed parts of their lesson plans, they mentioned mainly lesson outcomes and subskills.

4.3.1.2.2. *Not detailed*

One of the unsatisfied issues faced by pre-service teachers was receiving ‘Not Detailed’ feedback from the supervisors. Pre-service teachers reported that when they received feedback such as, ‘THIS IS NOT A GOOD SUBSKILL’, ‘THIS IS NOT A LEARNING OUTCOME.’, ‘REWRITE IT PLEASE’, and ‘rewrite the outcome’, they are not satisfied with the feedback because such feedback sentences are not detailed enough, do not clarify what the problem is and consist of solutions and examples.

“It says there is a problem, but it is not clear what the problem is. This feedback does not exactly offer me a solution. “Give examples to the students. They might not understand,” he says, but he expects me to understand without giving any examples.” PST 4

PST 4 says the feedback she refers to in the above excerpt does not tell what the problem is, offer a solution and provide examples.

“Should I read it from the book, the teacher’s guide? Should I write it here? Or should I have the children read something different? He didn't give any information here.” PST 11

The feedback PST 11 received for a part of the lesson plan and refers to in the above excerpt is “Read for specific information”. She emphasises the lack of enough information in the feedback.

“When she underlined both lesson outcomes, I thought I had made a mistake again and wrote the outcomes over again. If you notice, she gives feedback with very few words.” PST 4

The feedback PST 4 receives for a lesson outcome she wrote and refers to in the above excerpt is “recognize the characters and differences”. She finds the feedback not detailed enough.

“There’s not much detail in the feedback. I think that's the problem.” PST 6

PST 6 states the written feedback she received is not detailed.

“The plan I sent is many pages long, but the feedback I received was only 3-5 lines. I think this is a big problem. I got a few sentences of feedback on a huge lesson plan.” PST 18

PST 18 agrees with PST 6 and is not satisfied with not detailed feedback.

4.3.1.2.3. *Weak communication/No reply*

The pre-service teachers said they needed to communicate with their supervisors to ask about the feedback they received and lesson plan writing. The pre-service teachers who do not live in the city where the program is conducted reported that they sent emails or called their supervisors but could not get any reply.

“We had a lot of communication problems because none of my emails were answered.” PST 1

PST 1 says she sent emails asking about the assessment criteria and feedback she received but did not get any response.

“No, definitely not even one answer came. And I had to send emails. There was no response to my emails either.” PST 2

PST 2 says he did not receive any reply to his emails to the supervisor about assessment criteria.

“During term time, I tried to contact my supervisor by phone. I even searched for her on Facebook. I had questions about my lesson plan writing and the assessment criteria.” PST 3

PST 3 had questions and wanted to contact her supervisor to ask.

4.3.1.2.4. *Discouraging*

Feedback sentences consisting of criticism, imperatives and demotivating words are found discouraging by the pre-service teachers. The first three samples of pre-service teachers below emphasise the discouraging effect of imperative in feedback sentences. The others are about criticism and demotivating words in feedback.

“I felt like I had made such a big mistake.” PST 2

PST 2 wrote examples of various uses of the present perfect tense in her lesson plan. The feedback PST 2 refers to in the above excerpt is “Don't talk about all uses of present perfect.”. He says the feedback, including imperative, made her feel she had made a big mistake in the lesson plan.

“When you read the feedback, it is clear what she said, but unfortunately, she gave her feedback using an imperative again.” PST 10

The feedback PST 10 receives for a lesson outcome she wrote in her lesson plan and refers to in the above excerpt is “Omit this”. She emphasizes that the feedback is clear but is not happy with the imperative in the feedback.

“Actually, it would have been better if she had written “Why don't you omit this?” The supervisor is more direct writing “omit this”, and “unclear”. So, it seemed a bit like harsh feedback.” PST 14

PST 14 received the same feedback for the outcome in the lesson plan. He says He finds such feedback harsh and prefers feedback suggesting a solution by giving him a chance to think about it.

“but it hurt me a lot, and I'm trying to explain the effect it had on me. I lost my self-confidence when I went to teach my lesson.” PST 3

PST 3 says she got plenty of discouraging feedback, causing her to lose her self-confidence.

““Do you think that this lesson will last 45 minutes? I think it will finish earlier.” Do you know what impression this feedback leaves on me? It's as if he is punishing you. There's a comment here as if he is waving his finger. This sentence, as if he is judging you here.” PST 5

PST 5 received feedback “Do you think that this lesson will last 45 minutes ☹ I think it will finish earlier.” for the timing of her lesson plan. She expresses how she felt when she had such criticising feedback and says,

“I know my supervisor. I have met her in person. She is gentle and professional, so such feedback does not demotivate me.” PST 4

On the other hand, feedback, including imperatives, is not discouraging for the pre-service teachers who met their supervisors in person. PST 4 received feedback, including imperatives but such feedback did not demotivate her.

“The feedback I received on my first lesson plan was a little saddening. Because, at that time, it seemed to me that she was someone who was difficult to please. Before our meeting, after seeing her feedback for the first time, until meeting her, she made an impression on me, as if she was a harsh high school teacher wearing glasses. But after I met her, I saw how friendly she was and did not feel this way when I read the same type of feedback.” PST 4

PST 4 states how her thoughts about the demotivating feedback and her supervisor changed after she met the supervisor.

4.3.1.2.5. *Not objective assessment*

Some pre-service teachers find feedback assessments not objective.

“I got 15. And then I got 92, 96, 96 and 100. And this seems very contradictory. ... A student who gets 15 cannot later get 100!” PST 1

PST 1 got contradictory marks during the semester, and she doubts whether the assessment criteria are applied well.

“After seeing grades like twenty-five and forty given to my first plans, I didn't upload my plans to the system any longer. Because after a certain point, you lose your enthusiasm. I don't know under what criteria I was given those grades.” PST 7

PST 7 thinks the assessment criteria are not applied well, and the grades he got demotivated him.

4.3.1.2.6. *Delayed*

In some interviews, the pre-service teachers report they could not use the feedback for lesson plans since they receive it after they conduct teaching practice sessions.

“If I had received this feedback before the lesson, it would have been meaningful. After the application of the lesson, I didn't care because I had already delivered it.” PST 5

“She gives her feedback late. She gives feedback after I conduct teaching practice sessions.” PST 7

4.3.1.3. *Suggestions*

The pre-service teachers expressed their opinions on qualified feedback and applications to use the feedback process better. The codes referring to these expressions are grouped under the theme ‘Suggestions’. The theme includes three codes; ‘Oral Feedback’, ‘Preferred Feedback’ and ‘Written Interactive Mode’.

4.3.1.3.1. *Oral feedback*

The pre-service teachers state that they need extra oral feedback to understand the written feedback better and deal with the problematic issues in their lesson plans. The

pre-service teachers who live in the city where the program is conducted meet their supervisors face-to-face.

“During term time, I tried to contact my supervisor by phone. I even searched for her on Facebook. I wanted to ask her my questions about lesson plan writing and assessment criteria. A meeting with the supervisors to ask the things we don’t understand about the process in person at the beginning of the term would have been good for us.” PST 2

PST 2 suggests a meeting with the supervisor at the beginning of the semester to ask questions on how to write lesson plans and processes.

“I couldn’t understand exactly from the feedback what the supervisor wanted. It got a little better when I met her face-to-face. I asked her in person. It became better then when she told me the lesson plan style she wanted. So, I can say that this written feedback gave me an idea, but she told me the whole truth in person.” PST 4

PST 4 also emphasizes the benefits of oral feedback when she had the opportunity to ask her questions in person.

“It may be better to answer questions raised by the student (sic. referring to the pre-service teacher) about feedback, for example, by phone, by meeting online or face-to-face more often.” PST 15

PST 17 states the need to get in touch with the supervisor to ask questions.

4.3.1.3.2. Detailed

The pre-service teachers' opinions on qualified feedback vary. Some pre-service teachers state that feedback should be detailed. Their responses on the issue are reported below.

“Feedback should be detailed and understandable enough to correct the mistakes I had made.” PST 2

“It should have been more detailed.” PST 7

The feedback PST 7 refers to in the above excerpt is “This is a bit unclear and not language related”. PST 7 emphasizes his suggestions for detailed feedback.

Telling the problem, consisting of solutions, examples and suggestions, are some other preferred issues in feedback.

“Feedback should definitely offer guidance. This can be not only showing pre-service teachers by indicating their shortcomings but also telling them how to correct them, or I don't know, by making us think and giving little hints, etc.” PST 9

PST 9 emphasises that feedback should be guiding, tell the problem, and give solutions in a thought-provoking way.

“‘You could teach in this way.’, ‘Well, if you had used this method, maybe the flow of the lesson would not have been as complex.’ Maybe he could give such suggestions. I would expect this here.” PST 3

The feedback PST 3 received is “‘The lesson flows in a very complex way. I cannot follow. ☹ They seem to be independent activities. Maybe I do not know the technology system you are using ☺ Also give examples of error correction’”. She finds the feedback not useful and states that feedback should include suggestions on how to be used while teaching the lesson.

“‘You could do it like this.’, ‘It would be better if it were like this.’, ‘This might be more effective for your students.’, ‘Here, the following method is more effective.’, ‘You may need to use this.’ or ‘This method could cause problems.’. I always expect such feedback comments.” PST 5

PST 5 says she finds the feedback she received useless and that feedback should include solutions for the problem in the lesson plan and suggestions.

“Feedback should tell me what to do. It should tell me why I should do it. If I know why I should do it as much as what I should do, I will remember it and learn. Because when we learn the reasons for something, it becomes much more effective. I think this is what quality feedback should be like. I think they should not focus on our spelling mistakes. But they should definitely correct the syntactic errors.” PST 6

PST 6 also prefers feedback telling what to do and why to do it. She also says that feedback sentences should not focus on spelling mistakes.

4.3.1.3.3. *Written interactive mode*

The pre-service teachers state that they prefer their supervisors use more interactional words and expressions in written feedback to create more interaction with them in written feedback.

“She used to criticise me a lot. I even used to cry when I saw some of her feedback. But it was very important that she called me by name. For example, she used to start by calling me by name. She used to put exclamation marks. And then she used to say ‘It can't be like this!’, ‘How did you write that?’ etc. That is, she criticised me very harshly. You know, we see in the methodology books that it is very important to address the students by their names. This is very important for me. There's no face-to-face interaction or anything like that between us. But that's how I know she cares about me and my lesson plan.” PST 6

PST 6 emphasises using the reader's name while addressing an issue in a text. PST 6 got harshly criticising feedback, but being called by name made her feel the interaction with her supervisor. Calling the reader by name in a text is categorised in engagement markers in metadiscourse markers taxonomy.

“At first, getting feedback like ‘give an example’, ‘omit this’ or ‘unclear’ was as if the computer was sending feedback. It seemed like there was not a real person on the other end.” PST 4

PST 4 states that short feedback and feedback consisting of imperatives made her think a computer gives the feedback. She says,

“Of course, it could have been guiding. He could have said ‘It is better if you do it this way.’, ‘You should...’, ‘You had better...’. Or he could have said ‘I suggest this...’, ‘My suggestion is...’.” PST 11

PST 11 offers a solution instead of short feedback. She prefers feedback, which includes expressions giving suggestions by using reader and writer pronouns and modal verbs such as ‘you should’ and ‘you had better’ and ‘my suggestion’. When reader and writer pronouns and modal verbs have metadiscourse functions, as in the examples, they are categorised in engagement markers as calling the reader by name.

“The feedback is judgemental here. Well, you know, I'm not against ‘Don't you think...?’. As I said, I use it too. But I wink and laugh a little. And then I make a joke in the sentence. For example, he could say: ‘That lesson might not finish in 45 minutes,’ or ‘You may have to pay attention to the timetable.’ or something like this.” PST 1

The feedback PST 1 refers to in the above excerpt is “Don't you think the activities below are too much for 45-minute lesson?”. Even if the feedback is a question sentence, PST 1 states that she finds it as if it is judging her. She says she would use words such as

‘may’, ‘might’ and emojis which are examples of hedges to mitigate the criticism in the feedback.

“He (referring to her supervisor) could have said ‘You should not use the imperative form *write*.’” PST 7

PST 7 prepared a lesson plan for a lesson practising reading. He used instructions including imperative ‘write’. The feedback he received from the supervisor was “‘is it a reading lesson? Don’t use write’”. PST 7 finds the wording in the feedback not good. The feedback he does not like consists of imperative and a question sentence. The wording in the feedback he suggests consists of the reader pronoun ‘you’ and the modal verb ‘should’, which are engagement markers in the functional categorisation of metadiscourse markers.

4.3.1.3.4. *Encouraging*

Encouraging feedback is also preferred by pre-service teachers.

“It should encourage the student (referring to the pre-service teacher). It should be guiding. It should be written with more polite language. It should consist of examples. The student should not be nervous when s/he reads. It should be in a style that makes you feel comfortable. The student (sic) should be motivated.” PST 10

PST 10 emphasizes how feedback should be. One of the issues she mentions is that feedback should be motivating.

“It should definitely be in clear and understandable language. There might be a smiley and that could have a positive impact. This might motivate.” PST 3

PST 3 says using smiley can be motivating when used in feedback.

CHAPTER 5

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Feedback is used to close the gap between the current knowledge or productivity performance and the desired one. In this sense, it is important for teaching experience and development because it helps pre-service teachers overcome their fears and concerns about teaching practice, to put into evidence-based practice to increase the implementation of instructional practices (Cornelius & Nagro, 2014) by providing a kind of intensive coaching.

Besides, feedback differs in terms of specifications, such as audience which is not anonymous but specific and text length which includes fewer amounts of words compared to other types of genres in the academic discourse community. Thus, the language used in written feedback on a 'work' is designed basically to address and to attract the attention of the individual who performs the 'work', and shows differences from other academic genres. So written feedback for lesson plans in distance education could reveal more insight into the genre-specific properties of feedback.

Along this line, the present study was designed to explore the use of metadiscourse markers in written feedback for lesson plans in distance education and the opinions of pre-service teachers on written feedback given by their supervisors.

In this chapter, the discussion of the results and the summary of the study followed by the conclusion, the implications and limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are presented.

5.1. Discussion of the Results

The results of the current study led us to three significant observations that are interrelated and carry implications for the way we conceptualize and structure written feedback for lesson plans in distance education. The first observation is that written feedback for lesson plans can be categorized into three groups depending on whether feedback includes the guidance and details needed to develop the final product, and the metadiscourse use of the supervisors seems to mark each category. The second observation is that feedback is a response from the supervisor to the pre-service teacher's lesson plan in a problem/solution-oriented way to develop the lesson plan. This response, as a text, depends on the lesson plan making the written feedback a dependent text, a

supporting genre. The language in this responsive text to present its propositional content differs from other types of academic discourse genres. The third observation is that the satisfaction of pre-service teachers varies not only depending on what feedback includes but also on the language used in it.

5.1.1. Categorization of feedback and metadiscourse markers

According to the first observation we can classify the feedback into three categories taking the definition of written feedback for a lesson plan as a text which helps and guides the pre-service teacher to develop the final product, the lesson plan, by defining the problem and suggesting a solution, sometimes with examples, as basis.

These categories are ‘+ feedback’, ‘-feedback’ and ‘pseudo feedback’. ‘+ feedback’ points out the problem in the lesson plan and/or offers solutions, and suggestions, sometimes with examples, and thus contributes to developing the final product, the lesson plan. As seen in the example ‘*Do you think this will be a meaningful activity? There are many words. Choose some of the important ones and focus on them. They may get bored. Or prepare a guessing vocabulary activity such as a multiple choice or matching*’, the supervisor draws the attention of the pre-service teacher by using an engagement marker and suggests a solution. This category corresponds to the four types of feedback, (i.e., corrective, epistemic, suggestive and epistemic +suggestive) stated by Alvarez, Espasa and Guasch (2011). Epistemic +suggestive is accepted as the most effective because it reflects the student’s current performance and how he can improve his future performance (Alvarez et al.2011).

The second category, ‘-feedback’ feedback, includes examples that do not indicate a problem or suggest a solution. This kind of feedback reflected either the supervisor’s feelings only, like ‘*I’m getting confused*’ or vague, unclear comments without a specific reference like ‘*there is a grammar mistake*’.

The last category, ‘pseudo feedback’, verbally looks like feedback but does not expressly reveal the problem in the lesson plan when examined in detail, the suggestion for a solution in the feedback is not explicitly presented, or the suggestion does not lead the pre-service teacher to a meaningful solution. Pseudo-feedback sometimes includes only criticism or phrases indicating the negative attitude of the supervisor to the excerpt of the lesson plan commented on while trying to define the problem. As an example of pseudo-feedback, the feedback phrase “THERE ARE OTHER WAYS TO CHECK

UNDERSTANDING. PLEASE READ METHODOLOGY!!!!!!” is a suggestion. However, it does not define the problem and does not direct the student to a solution for the problematic point in the lesson plan. This suggestion fails to contribute to developing the pre-service teacher's product. Because the student does not understand which book to read and what to do.

Another sample of pseudo-feedback is observed in expressing unclear points in the lesson plan by using short phrases or only a word. When a single word ‘unclear’ is used while pointing to a part or underlining word/phrase in a lesson plan, without clarifying the problem, is found confusing by pre-service teachers. So, we labelled such feedback pseudo-feedback since it does not bring to the fore expressly what the problem is.

The aim of withholding commitment while using hedges can be questioned depending on the context. For example, using ‘*unclear*’ while referring to a proposition in the context of written feedback is accepted to be hedges. Expressing unclear points in the lesson plan is observed frequently in our corpus. Adel (2017) suggests that pointing out problematic and unclear points in students’ work is a typical comment in teachers’ feedback.

In the literature, studies mainly focused on quality feedback (Uribe & Vaughan, 2017; Alvarez et al., 2011; Kurtoglu-Hoton, 2016; Lemley et al., 2007) and based their classifications accordingly. However, in this study looking through the language perspective, we made our classification to include what cannot be counted as feedback because as mentioned above we also observe that metadiscourse markers serve a marking function in making this classification.

Engagement markers, the most frequently used metadiscourse markers in our study, mainly marked ‘+ *feedback*’. In + feedback samples, while posing the problem in a lesson plan, suggesting a solution or providing examples, supervisors emphasise involving the reader, i.e., pre-service teachers. In such feedback, they employ engagement markers by calling the pre-service teachers by name and using modal verbs, and imperatives to lead them. For example, engagement markers such as ‘we (inclusive)’, ‘have to’, ‘should’, and ‘must’, are used to suggest solutions to problems and lead pre-service teachers to conduct specific actions to deal with the problem. Among the items that are used as engagement markers some items mark not only + *feedback* but also - *feedback* and/or *pseudo feedback*. For example, the reader pronoun ‘you’ marked - *feedback and pseudo feedback* besides

+ *feedback* and does not mark any specific feedback type. Whereas the use of imperatives, detailed below, mostly marked *pseudo feedback*.

Even if the supervisor suggests a solution by using imperatives in expressions such as “rewrite your outcome” or “omit this” (outcome), it is not clear what the problem with the outcome is. If the pre-service teacher does not know what the problem with the excerpt of feedback is, s/he cannot rewrite a new appropriate outcome of the lesson in the plan. Such use of imperatives marks feedback phrases as pseudo-feedback., though they look like feedback samples they don’t clearly identify the problem and do not provide a solution.

Questions in a text are categorised as engagement markers in the interactional metadiscourse model and used to engage the reader in the text. Thought-provoking questions which guide pre-service teachers to think and find out the problem or a solution to the problematic part of the lesson plan are observed in feedback phrases. Such questions mark feedback phrases as + *feedback*. However, not all the questions are thought-provoking and lead pre-service teachers to a solution. For example, criticising questions do not lead pre-service teachers to any solution or do not help them to find out what the problem is. Such questions mainly display the negative attitude of the supervisor to the part of the lesson plan. Thus, such criticising questions mark the feedback as *pseudo-feedback* since it does not lead to a solution and does not contribute to developing the lesson plan. Another point that draws attention here is that instead of writing a question statement or phrase, there are also places where supervisors add only a question mark (?) in feedback examples. Although posing a question with only a question mark without a question statement looks like feedback and displays dialogic characteristics of written feedback for lesson plans, it serves as pseudo-feedback and doesn’t clarify the point of the supervisor. Such uses are observed in feedback studies by Xu (2017, cited in Starfield, 2019) and Han (2017, cited in Han and Hyland, 2019), and the participants of these studies found the use of a question mark without a question statement uninterpretable. In our case, consistent with the opinions of the participants of these available studies, during the interviews, pre-service teachers stated that the use of short feedback, such as including only a question mark or a word, is incomprehensible.

‘Thank you’ is mainly used to appreciate the pre-service teacher for the whole or part of the lesson plan or just for sending the lesson plan. Some supervisors wrote “Thank you for this good lesson plan” without specifying which parts of the lesson plan are

appreciated and why or just wrote “thank you” underlying a sentence, e.g., outcome sentence, in the plan without specifying the reason for appreciation. Although this type of feedback can be motivating, appreciating it without explicitly stating the section and the reason will not contribute to reinforcing the pre-service teacher’s behaviour of writing a good lesson plan. Thus, such use of ‘thank you’ marks – *feedback* regarding the results of the current study. However, the use of ‘thank you’ with specifying the reason for appreciation reinforces the behaviour and marks feedback as + *feedback*, as observed in only three feedback sentences in our corpus.

As text-organizing metadiscourse markers, frame markers are indicators of + *feedback*. Supervisors use frame markers to label the stages of their arguments, sequence them, announce goals and shift between topics while giving detailed feedback to pre-service teachers.

Among interactional metadiscourse markers, attitude markers mark both + *feedback* and *pseudo-feedback* sentences. Attitude markers used by supervisors, which indicate their negative attitude towards the problematic points in lesson plans without clearly defining what the problem is, are considered as pseudo-feedback. These markers indicate + *feedback*, when the supervisors display their negative attitude towards the problematic points using attitude markers, but at the same time they tend to define the problem or provide solutions.

Transition markers, hedges and code glosses mostly mark ‘+ feedback’. The use of code glosses, transitions and hedges revealed the feedback defining the problems and offering their solutions and reasons to do them.

Evidentials, which “refer to information from other texts (Hyland, 2005, p.49)” or from other outside resources to support the propositional content in the text are the least frequent metadiscourse markers and mark pseudo-feedback in our context. In a research article, for instance, evidentials can be utilised to establish connections between the research article and other studies (Amiryousefi & Rasekh, 2010). According to Çapar (2014), researchers use them for interactional purposes in research articles because they pay “attention to constructing dialogue with their readers and engaging their readers with their texts (Çapar, 2014, p. 151)”. In written feedback for lesson plans, while supporting the argument giving references to outside resources such as other lesson plans by the pre-service teacher, previous feedback from the supervisor, the books used in the course, online teaching materials, and other academic sources evidentials are used. However, the

current study reveals that in written feedback for lesson plans, referring to outside resources is not always used to support the argument in feedback. For example, the use of evidentials following imperatives such as ‘see’, ‘study’, ‘check’, ‘read’ and ‘look at’ is observed when supervisors recommend pre-service teachers study their books or read online sources to deal with those problems after detecting problematic points in the lesson plans. That way, supervisors direct pre-service teachers to outside resources as a suggestion to revise their knowledge or to learn something new to develop their lesson plans. This use of evidentials is different from the use in other academic texts. Further while, recommending a book, an online resource or an indefinite source, as in the example of ‘THERE ARE OTHER WAYS TO CHECK UNDERSTANDING. PLEASE READ METHODOLOGY!!!!’, without suggesting a solution or specifying the problem with the commented part of the lesson plan does not contribute to development. While referring to outside resources, when written feedback does not specify the outside source and what to read in the referred outside sources, it is not found useful but rather confusing and useless by the pre-service teachers for their development in lesson plan writing. Such common use of evidentials in feedback phrases of the current corpus is genre-specific for written feedback for lesson plans and indicates pseudo-feedback.

5.1.2. Feedback as a problem-solution-oriented dependent text

The way feedback typically employs metadiscourse does not align with the usual form of metadiscourse found in academic writing. In academic writing, the authors typically manage their discussion and direct the reader on how to respond to the discussion, while in feedback, this is not the case. On the contrary, the metadiscourse within the feedback content is usually characterized by a conversational and context-driven nature, involving references and responses to the discourse (the lesson plan in our case) of the pre-service teacher and specific elements of it. These factors have effects on the language items used in feedback, such as the distribution of the types and frequency of metadiscourse markers, which can be used to analyse and classify texts according to the various interactions they create with readers and the persuasive strategies employed by writers or speakers (Ädel, 2006). Accordingly, the results of the current study indicate that the written feedback for lesson plans in asynchronous distance teacher training programs shows some similarities and differences in the use of metadiscourse markers

with the other samples of feedback genre. In this discussion, three basic characteristics of feedback are taken for granted.

One of the characteristics of written feedback for lesson plans is the dialogic characteristic of the feedback. In asynchronous distance teacher education, it can be considered as the writer's, the supervisor in our context, part of an *asynchronous dialogue* with the reader, i.e., the pre-service teacher. The term *asynchronous communication* is used in computer-mediated communication and borrowed and used by Ädel (2017, 65) to describe the dialogue between the writer and the reader of the feedback. Thus, feedback is formed as if it is the speaker's part of a dialogue (as mentioned above) between the writer and a particular reader. In the present study more outnumbered use of interactional metadiscourse markers over interactive metadiscourse markers shows the dialogic characteristics of written feedback. The interactional metadiscourse markers in the genre of written feedback for lesson plans in asynchronous distance teacher education are more than three times higher than the use of interactive metadiscourse markers. This finding is in line with the results of the oral discourse such as the study on the language used by EAP (English for Academic Purposes) teachers in lessons and university lectures demonstrated a higher prevalence of interactional metadiscourse markers than interactive markers (Lee & Subtirelu, 2015). Similarly, another study on postgraduate dissertations in the 'soft sciences' revealed a more significant presence of interactional metadiscourse markers (Hyland, 2004).

However, contradictory findings were observed in research on other genres of the academic discourse community (graduate research articles, Hyland, 2004; textbooks in various academic disciplines, Hyland, 2004; postgraduate dissertations, Hyland and Tse, 2004; coursebooks in 8 disciplines Hyland, 2000). These studies report that in these academic discourse genres, the use of interactive metadiscourse outnumbers the use of interactional metadiscourse. On the other hand, according to the results of the current study, interactional metadiscourse markers are 3 times more frequently used than interactive metadiscourse markers.

Not only among interactional metadiscourse markers but among all the marker types, engagement markers are the most frequently used markers in written feedback for lesson plans. Hyland suggests that the heavy use of "engagement markers (particularly rhetorical questions, inclusive we, and reader pronouns) all suggest the personal, direct and involved communication of face-to-face conversation (Hyland, 2005, p. 177).".

Heavy use of engagement markers is a reflection of dialogic, targeting the defined audience, characteristic of written feedback besides its being solution-oriented and lesson plan-centred. The supervisor, the feedback provider, addresses the entire feedback content to the sole audience, the pre-service teacher. In other genres of the academic discourse community, even though the writer has a perception of the background of the potential readers, s/he addresses a relatively undefined audience. However, in written feedback for a lesson plan, the receiver, who is addressed with the feedback, is the one who wrote the lesson plan. Therefore, the content of the feedback is dialogic and designed to engage the definite reader in the feedback. As a result of the dialogic characteristic of the feedback, the supervisors addressed the pre-service teacher frequently in written feedback by using reader pronouns '*You*', '*your*', '*we (inclusive)*', and '*thank you*' and calling the pre-service by their names in feedback sentences.

As stated in Ädel's (2017) study on the writer, reader and text reflexivity in feedback reports, the engagement marker '*you*' is used more than the self-mention '*I*' in feedback. According to the result of the current study, the engagement marker '*You*' is almost nine times more frequent (1858 - 214) than self-mention '*I*'. This result also displays dialogic characteristics of written feedback for lesson plans because it is a text addressed to the reader '*You*' to develop his/her lesson plan rather than emphasising the supervisor's argument using the writer pronoun '*I*'. As reported by Ädel (2017), the self-mention '*I*' is more frequent than the reader pronoun '*You*' in L1 student essays (AmE), L1 proficiency student texts, and university lectures. The audience of these text genres is not a defined interlocutor as the audience of written feedback. These academic texts are not written as a response to an interlocutor's discourse. They present arguments and the language in the text is organised with key linguistic functions, i.e., metadiscourse functions, telling the reader how to respond to the text. In our written feedback samples for lesson plans, the text is a response to excerpts of the lesson plan to develop them better. Thus, the main purpose of the feedback is to convince the defined interlocutor, the pre-service teacher, to understand the problematic point and to conduct an action to develop it rather than to present the writer. To that extent, written feedback for lesson plans, as a genre, is different from the other genres in the academic discourse community.

The use of some items as boosters and attitude markers contributes to the dialogic characteristic of feedback in our data. One of these items is '*actually*' which is used as a booster. Depending on the context and place in a sentence, '*actually*' can be used as a

shift topic marker. However, in 5 contexts of written feedback samples in this study, it is used as a booster by which supervisors emphasise their certainty in the proposition in the feedback. See the example below;

*‘Your start is good **actually**, how you explain the structure is satisfying too...’*

Besides, exclamation marks, as an attitude marker, in written feedback might refer to a proposition not only in feedback but also in the lesson plan. For example, the exclamation marker in feedback “a sentences? come on!” emphasizes a mistake in the lesson plan and shows the supervisor’s attitude towards that mistake and it is dialogic by using a colloquial expression like ‘come on’ before the exclamation mark. As seen in our corpus the use of ‘well done’, ‘oppss’, and “‘come on’” following exclamation marks also shows a dialogic atmosphere because the feedback was written as if both writer and reader are having a face-to-face conversation.

Likewise, the supervisors use smiling face emojis not only to engage the pre-service teachers in the feedback but also as a way of mitigating the criticism. On the other hand, using a frowning face emoji in feedback is a way for the supervisors to display their negative attitude towards the commented part in the lesson plan. Using emojis in such cases shows the need to use more media to convey the message when words are not enough to do so. In the context of the current study, feedback was given only in a written way. However, nowadays in distance education, feedback can be given using more media via modern technological means of communication.

The second characteristic of feedback is that it is a text written “in a problem/solution-oriented way (Ädel, 2017, p. 64)” which aims to close the gap between the current and the desired lesson plan. One of the indicators of this is the use of the questions i.e., withholding commitment and asking thought-provoking questions which let pre-service teachers think over the problems and find intrinsic solutions to the problems faced and ways to develop their final product. Posing a question in academic discourse is a way to “encourage the reader to explore an issue with the writer as an equal (Hyland, 2005, p. 153)”. Since written feedback focuses on the problem and provides a solution, posing a question in the written feedback genre is used to lead the reader to explore the problem or create a solution. By asking questions, supervisors draw pre-service teachers' attention to their viewpoint on the problem. The supervisors pose standard and rhetorical questions while giving feedback to put the problematic points forward and lead the pre-service teachers to think about what is written or missing in the

lesson plans. Posing a question to elicit an answer or a rhetorical question to lead to thinking about an issue and to particular and aimed interpretations has primarily an interactional purpose. In the corpus of Hyland (2005, p. 153), almost all the questions were rhetorical. In our corpus, while we have rhetorical questions such as “Don't you think your instructions are a bit difficult and complex?”, we also have thought-provoking questions such as “How will you respond to the errors?” which lead the pre-service teacher to create a solution. As seen in the example, rhetorical questions are used by supervisors in written feedback for lesson plans to mitigate their criticism of the part of the lesson plan. This is also observed by Hyland and Hyland (2001).

Another indicator of problem-solution-orientedness is the use of directives- stating what to do to solve the problem immediately when detected. Imperatives and modals of obligation are used to “instruct the reader to perform an action (Hyland, 2005, p. 154)” in the real world. With imperatives, supervisors not only engage but even pull pre-service teachers into feedback by requiring them to conduct specific actions. This positioning intention of the supervisor with imperatives is far stronger regarding reader engagement in the text than using reader pronouns. Using reader pronouns, the writer realises the reader, i.e., makes the reader come true in the text. However, using imperatives requires the reader to conduct an action in addition to realisation. By using imperatives, the supervisor wants the pre-service teacher to take action such as deleting a problematic point, writing a new one, and including a missing part to direct the pre-service teacher to improve the lesson plan. For example, as seen in the results of the current study, the supervisors refer to an organisational problem by using imperatives such as ‘*simplify*’ and ‘*add*’ in some feedback.

In addition to imperatives, supervisors use obligation modal verbs, as directives, in feedback to require preservice teachers to conduct an action. By using obligation modals, such as *must*, *have to*, *need* and *should*, CEOs in their letters “express the belief that something should be done (Hyland, 2005, p. 82)”. In our corpus, by using ‘had better’ and ‘need to’, supervisors position themselves as advisors but not as ‘directors’ when they use them with imperatives. By using these, as they do by using ‘please’, they mitigate the strength of using only imperatives. On the other hand, even though obligation modal verbs such as ‘must’ and ‘have to’ are engagement markers to engage the pre-service teacher in the feedback, they also display the certainty of the supervisor of the necessity of the action to be done. Whereas, with a similar aim, ‘*had better*’, ‘*should*’ and ‘*need to*’

are advisory. This is different in other texts such as in CEO's letters, obligation modals express the necessity of conducting an action.

Using directives is an engagement feature which occurs “more frequently in papers in the sciences and engineering (Hyland 2005, p. 155). However, directives are found risky and treated with caution in soft sciences (Hyland, 2005). According to the interviews in the current study, pre-service teachers think that feedback including ‘should’ and ‘had to’ is advisory and lets them be free to conduct actions towards the problematic points in the lesson plans.

According to Starfield (2017), reporting a study on feedback for a dissertation by Xu (2017), “Directive formulations were used to address content and organisation issues, but imperatives were mainly used for organisational issues while advisory comments were used to address content (Starfield, 2019, p. 374)”. Directives in our corpus are not used to address the content of the feedback but to change something in the content of the lesson plan.

According to Hyland (2005), engagement markers have two functions in texts: engaging the readers in the argument by addressing them with reader pronouns, positioning them into critical points and leading them to particular interpretations by using, for example, imperatives such as *see*, *note* and *consider*, asking questions and using obligation modals. However, in the current corpus of written feedback for lesson plans, the verbs *note* and *consider* are not used with the function of engagement marker but with propositional function in the context of feedback. The only exception for ‘*consider*’ is its usage as a hedge in our feedback corpus. Although, ‘*see*’ is used more frequently as an engagement marker in other academic texts, in our corpus it is used only once with this function. Imperatives are used to refer to problematic points and ask the pre-service teacher to conduct an action not to lead them to particular interpretations.

Imperatives and modal verbs such as ‘must’, ‘have to’ and ‘should’ are also used to refer to problematic points and ask the pre-service teacher to conduct an action not to lead them to particular interpretations. When the supervisors emphasise a problem in parts of the lesson plans, giving pre-service teachers an area of freedom by withholding their commitments, they use hedges. According to Hyland and Hyland (2019b), using hedges is also a method of mitigating the full force of the writer's criticism in teacher feedback for students' works. In Hyland and Hyland (2001), besides using interrogatives, using hedges is reported as a way to mitigate criticism and not to threaten the face of the student

in teacher feedback. Using mitigation strategies in criticism may result in students missing the point or misinterpreting the feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2019b).

Apart from these supervisors used code glosses to help the pre-service teachers grasp the propositional meaning in written feedback that indicates either the problem or the solution. ‘*or*’ is the most frequent among the code glosses while giving more than one example for a proposition or giving more than one optional advice to be conducted to change or develop problematic issues in the lesson plans. *For example, such as*, and ‘*()*’ are the following most common uses of code glosses in exemplifying the propositional meaning. Code glosses are found insignificantly more frequent than frame markers and endophoric markers in other academic genres such as master and doctoral dissertations (Hyland & Tse, 2004; Hyland, 2005), research articles, and textbooks (Hyland, 2004), in written feedback for lesson plans. However, they are four times more frequent than frame markers and endophoric markers in our corpus. This means supervisors give importance to exemplifying their arguments or suggestions to develop the problematic part of the lesson plan more than organising their argument in feedback with frame markers. The considerable code glosses to reflect the dialogic characteristics of the written feedback are *like, like this, like that* and *something like* to help the pre-service teachers grasp the meanings of ideational material.

The samples of written feedback include frame markers to conduct discourse acts, to make a sequence of the arguments and to label stages while discussing the arguments. Sequencing linguistic items, which order the events and the markers to label stages in feedback are used significantly more than other frame markers. These ordered events are parts of the advice the supervisors give and are the steps the pre-service teachers should follow or conduct while performing their teaching sessions. On the other hand, while frame markers are employed in our corpus % 1.51 of all metadiscourse markers, in other academic genres they are employed more frequently, for example, %7,6 in research articles (Hyland, 2005) to organise the arguments.

The minimal use of transition markers is also considered to be supporting the problem-solution-orientedness of the lesson plan feedback. These are the second most common marker type among interactive metadiscourse markers. As the name suggests, transition markers are used to “‘express the semantic relation between main clauses (Hyland, 2005, p. 49)’” and also to link the main clauses that are semantically related. The relatively low frequency of transition markers, compared to the other metadiscourse

types, suggests that written feedback consists of more problem-oriented, to-the-point solutions for the parts or points in the lesson plan rather than consisting of relatively frequent propositional knowledge that needs to be combined semantically. By using transition markers such as ‘*as I said*’, ‘*even so*’, ‘*if not*’, and ‘*if so*’, supervisors seem to have made the feedback more dialogic in nature.

As aforementioned in our observations of the analysis, written feedback for lesson plans is a dependent genre. It is not a stand-alone text and independent genre but a supporting genre dependent on the lesson plan. That is to say while investigating the linguistic items in written feedback, they have to be investigated by taking the lesson plan, which is commented on, into consideration. According to Ädel, feedback “‘being a supporting genre, dependent on the original text being commented on (Ädel, 2017, p. 64)’”.

It “‘has implications for how we interpret the criterion of the ‘current’ discourse used to distinguish between metadiscourse and references to other texts (Ädel, 2017, p. 64)’”. The use of endophoric markers supports this idea. Though the use of interactive markers is almost three times less frequent compared to the use of interactional markers, in written feedback for lesson plans the most frequent markers among interactive markers were endophoric markers, as in the study on directors’ reports (Hyland, 2005, p. 77). Endophoric markers “‘refer to information in other parts of the text, (Hyland, 2005, p. 49)’”. This means endophoric markers emphasise the parts of the feedback. However, as stated above, feedback depends on the text or text parts commented on as a supporting genre. Thus, endophoric markers might refer to parts of either written feedback or the lesson plan (Ädel, 2017). In the corpus of the current study, besides being the most salient among interactive metadiscourse markers, endophoric markers mostly refer to the lesson plan.

As for the types of markers used in the current study ‘*here*’ is one of the salient endophoric markers. In Ädel’s study (2017), the feedback corpus included the endophoric marker ‘*here*’ ten times more than L1 (AmE + BrE) students’ essays. The endophoric markers such as ‘*this* (as in ‘*This is not clear.*’)', ‘*this part*’, ‘*(in) this example*’, ‘*(in) this explanation*’, ‘*(in) this expression*’, and ‘*(in) this passage*’ are markers that might be found in other feedback types such as on dissertations, and thesis. However, in the current study endophoric markers such as ‘*(in) this activity*’, ‘*(in) this dialogue/conversation*’, ‘*(in) this exercise*’, ‘*(in) this outcome*’, ‘*(in) this plan*’, ‘*(in) your outcome*’, and ‘*(in) your*

plan' (see the Table 4.8. in Chapter 4 for the others) might be specific to the written feedback for lesson plans.

Written feedback samples include comments on the parts of the lesson plans. The supervisors refer to a part of the lesson plan by using 'this'. Evaluating both feedback and the lesson plan together, not separately, is a crucial requirement to define endophoric markers since written feedback for lesson plans is a lesson plan-dependent genre.

To conclude the comparison above, the reported consistent or contradictory results with the results of the current study suggest that metadiscourse marker use is genre-dependent. As discussed in the previous paragraphs, almost %75 of metadiscourse markers in written feedback for lesson plans are interactional markers. Engagement markers are salient and cover more than %60 of whole metadiscourse markers. This means supervisors focused more on engaging the pre-service teachers in feedback, drawing their attention to the problematic points in lesson plans and leading them to conduct required actions than showing their stance on feedback and organisational aspects of the propositional content of the feedback. The less frequent use of interactive metadiscourse markers in written feedback is because mostly only an argument or suggestion is included in the feedback, thus it is relatively shorter text than other academic genres.

5.1.3. Opinions of pre-service teachers on written feedback

As seen in the results of the available studies in the field, the issues of dissatisfaction concentrate on lack of 'useful' and 'helpful' feedback to improve knowledge, 'vague', 'not clear enough', 'not comprehensible' and 'generalised' but not individualised, 'focusing on negative', 'being unrelated to the assessment criteria' characteristics of feedback, and 'lacking guidance' in feedback (Weaver, 2006; Carless, 2006; Hyland, 2019). In the current study, the reasons for dissatisfaction with the feedback are 'not clear', 'not detailed', 'discouraging', 'delayed', 'not objective assessment', and 'weak communication' during the feedback process. The first three, 'not clear', 'not detailed', and 'discouraging' feedback phrases do not contribute to developing lesson plans and are categorised as 'pseudo-feedback' or '- feedback'.

Even if the feedback consists of fewer words, pre-service teachers find feedback clear if it conveys the message enough to define the problem or to give a suggestion. The important issue for understandable feedback is that the feedback should explain the

problem or missing point in the lesson plan in a way that the pre-service teacher can understand. When pre-service teachers can make sense of the message the feedback is trying to convey, they state satisfaction with the feedback. On the other hand, receiving 'not clear' and vague feedback seems to be a salient factor for dissatisfaction with the feedback. When the feedback is not clear, it is also found incomprehensible and confusing since it carries 'uncertainty' and 'equivocality' in its message. When pre-service teachers receive incomprehensible feedback, they are confused and do not know what to do with the problematic part of the lesson plan. Such feedback that does not satisfactorily define and determine the problem in the lesson plan does not contribute to the determination of the roadmap for the development of the lesson plan and leads to low motivation due to the confusion experienced by the pre-service teacher. As a result, the problematic part remains uncorrected or changed. Pre-service teachers state that to cope with unclear feedback, they need extra oral feedback from their supervisors.

In the studies mentioned above (Weaver, 2006; Carless, 2006; Hyland, 2019), although extra talk with the teacher might provide a solution to the issues in feedback not understood well, some students make use of extra-oral talk with the teacher, some preferred to apply other resources such as dictionaries, and books but some just ignore it. In the current study, pre-service teachers needed to have an extra talk with their supervisors. Almost all the interviewed pre-service teachers reported their attempt to find the contact information of their supervisors with the help of their friends or via searching on social media platforms to meet or at least talk with them on the phone to ask about the issues in the feedback they received. The need for an extra-oral talk with the teacher or supervisor to clarify what is meant in the feedback and to have extra information to make feedback more useful shows that students require more media in the conveyed message in feedback to decrease vagueness.

As discussed in Chapter 2, while discussing the Media Richness theory, including more media in the interaction decreases the *uncertainty* and *equivocality* in the message conveyed to the other side (Daft & Lengel, 1986). The responses of the pre-service teachers show that even one chance of face-to-face interaction with the supervisor bridges an invisible way of interaction between the pre-service teacher and the supervisor through written feedback. The feedback type that carries equivocality and uncertainty in its message is pseudo-feedback in our categorization. The need for clarification and extraoral feedback is observed after receiving pseudo-feedback. Stracke and Kumar (2010) also

used the method of including more media, such as extra-talk, to decrease the comprehension problems in feedback. The result of the current study is also consistent with Kreonidou and Kazamia (2019). In their study, some of the students made extra talk with their tutors for clarification in cases of vagueness and the need for more detail. In Hyland's study (2019), the students who addressed their questions about feedback to the teacher in a face-to-face environment or by telephoning found answers to their questions.

As mentioned before, written feedback in our corpus aims to close the gap between the current and desired levels of the pre-service teachers in writing lesson plans. To close this gap, first of all, pre-service teachers need to understand what is missing or problematic in the current product. Secondly, they need to see what the possible ways to solve the problem are. Lastly, they also might need to see the sample solutions. Depending on the pre-service teachers' current level of knowledge, they might need to see at least one or all three of these details in feedback. As seen in the responses of interviewees (See section 4.3.1.1.2.), when feedback consists of the definition of the problem and/or providing solutions and examples about the issue, in other words, when feedback is detailed, it is satisfactory and contributes to developing the lesson plan. Such feedback is '+ feedback' as our categorisation. On the other hand, the lack of this guidance and details in feedback leads to dissatisfaction (See section 4.3.1.2.2.)

It can be resulted from the above discussion that feedback should include not only what is wrong but also explanations, examples and ways to cope with the problematic issues in the lesson plan. Using more examples and clarifying explanations in a text means using more text-organizing linguistic items, i.e., interactive metadiscourse markers. As stated in the results of the study, consistent with the reasons for dissatisfaction from the feedback, the feedback samples included less interactive metadiscourse markers, i.e., text organising linguistic items, than interactional metadiscourse markers. Including less interactive metadiscourse markers means the text is not long enough to be organised, and this is a sign of short, not detailed feedback.

During the interviews, considerable comments were received from the pre-service teachers about encouraging and discouraging factors in feedback. Written feedback for lesson plans, including smiling face emojis or appreciation, results in satisfaction. On the other hand, some pre-service teachers in the current study reported dissatisfaction with feedback, including imperatives. Instead of imperatives, they prefer feedback which lets them be free in their choices, such as 'It would be better to do ...', 'You may ...', and 'I

think you should ...', more than the ones including imperatives such as 'rewrite', 'revise', 'read the methodology', and 'check your book'. The preferred phrases in feedback instead of imperatives include reader engagement markers such as pronouns, modal verbs and hedges such as may, think and would. Using imperatives in feedback is also a reported reason for dissatisfaction in the field, consistent with the results of the current study. The same consistent results are reported in the study of Stracke and Kumar (2010) on the effects of using imperatives in feedback. Stracke gave feedback for Kumar's dissertation, became aware of the demotivating potential of using imperatives in feedback and started to use a more indirect approach to encourage Kumar to take ownership of the learning process. Not only imperatives but also criticism in feedback is found discouraging and is a reason for dissatisfaction with the feedback. While pre-service teachers who met (the ones who lived in Eskişehir, the city where the university of the program is situated, and met their supervisor in person) or talked on the phone to their supervisors do not find feedback including just imperatives or criticising questions demotivating. Some pre-service teachers who did not meet their supervisors reported having negative emotions after receiving feedback including imperatives and criticising questions such as "Don't you think the activities below are too much for 45-minute lesson?". The pre-service teachers who met or talked on the phone with their supervisors said that since they met their supervisors and found her/him friendly and gentle they do not find such feedback demotivating or aggressive. Meeting with the supervisor eliminates the negative effects of criticism and the use of imperatives. When pre-service teachers meet with their supervisors in person, they say they know the intention of the supervisor and tend to see imperatives or criticism not discouraging. When the feedback receiver is not aware of the intention of the feedback provider, receiving feedback including imperatives or criticising questions results in dissatisfaction with the feedback. However, being aware of the intention of the provider prevents dissatisfaction with such feedback types. Then, instead of changing the use of imperatives, as Stracke did (Stracke & Kumar, 2010), or questions in feedback, having an extra talk with the feedback receiver might provide a solution for vagueness or misunderstandings in feedback.

The use of thought-provoking questions is helpful for pre-service teachers in finding ways to understand or solve the problem in feedback. However, the questions, including criticism, are discouraging. Even if such criticising questions seem to be given as feedback to reveal a problematic point, they do not define explicitly what the problem

is and are pseudo-feedback according to our feedback categorisation. This shows the importance of the proper use of questions while leading them to think about the problem in feedback. On the other hand, even if the feedback includes criticism, calling the pre-service teachers by their names in feedback might eliminate the discouraging effect of such feedback. It is also a way of personalising the feedback, which is another satisfactory issue.

5.2. Conclusion

In this section, the summary of the study, the implications and limitations of the study and suggestions for further research will be presented.

5.2.1. Summary of the study

The current study aimed to shed light on the use of metadiscourse markers in written feedback for lesson plans in asynchronous distance teacher education and the opinions of pre-service teachers about the feedback who wrote the lesson plans and received written feedback from their supervisors. The study focused on the types and frequency of feedback used in written feedback and the opinions of pre-service teachers on the language, particularly metadiscourse markers used in lesson plan feedback. The study used an embedded mixed method study design by analysing both quantitative and qualitative data to answer the research questions of the study. The participants of the study were 4th year students (pre-service teachers) in the Distance English Language Teacher Education program at Anadolu University in Turkey. The participants attended the ‘Teaching Practicum and School Experience’ course in the second semester of the 4th year. During the course, they were supposed to conduct five teaching practice sessions and write lesson plans before the sessions and upload them to the online platform of the program. Supervisors who were lecturers at the program reviewed and gave written feedback on the lesson plans and uploaded them back to the online platform. Written feedback on lesson plan data of 131 pre-service teachers was used to collect quantitative data to answer the first question of the study. Interviews with 18 voluntary pre-service teachers were conducted to collect qualitative data to answer the second question of the study. 579 lesson plans which were commented on were downloaded to investigate the metadiscourse markers in written feedback. The feedback data, together with the lesson plans of 131 pre-service teachers, were transferred into separate Microsoft Office

Document pages. Classification, labelling and numbering process was conducted to store the data. The data was classified by giving numbers to each pre-service teacher and also to the lesson plans on which written feedback was added into separate pages of Microsoft Excel document. First, a ‘List of Metadiscourse Markers’ was prepared to search metadiscourse markers in the data. The list consisted of metadiscourse markers investigated in the academic discourse by scholars such as Hyland (2005), Ädel (2017), Schifffrin (1987), Croucher (2004), Bussman (1984), and Vande Koppe (1997).

The written feedback data consisted of 3629 written authentic feedback samples. The feedback data and the ‘List of Metadiscourse Markers’ were uploaded to the Wordsmith 4.0 concordance tool to find the metadiscourse markers in the feedback data. Indeed, not all the metadiscourse markers do not have metadiscourse function in every context. The aim of doing this was to find out these markers in the feedback data context and investigate whether these markers had a metadiscourse function. The Wordsmith 4.0 concordance tool was used for the extraction of the items. The tool found 11412 linguistic elements from the list in feedback samples. Each linguistic element found by the concordance tool was analysed, considering its context in the feedback and lesson plan to determine whether it had a metadiscourse function in the feedback. %25 of the 11412 linguistic items were also analysed with two peer debriefers. Fleiss’ Kappa analysis of the findings of three researchers revealed a 0.87 value, which refers to ‘almost perfect agreement’ among researchers according to the benchmark suggested by Landis and Koch (1977, p. 165). In addition, potential metadiscourse markers not listed in the prepared list were also identified. After analysing each linguistic element in its context, 7489 metadiscourse markers were found.

The descriptive statistics of the metadiscourse markers found in written feedback samples are presented in Table 5.1 below. The details of statistics of metadiscourse markers in Table 5.1 are also presented with functions of metadiscourse markers in Table 4.1. (See page 88).

Table 5.1. *Frequency of the types of metadiscourse markers in written feedback*

Category of Metadiscourse		Count	% / Metadiscourse		F / 10,000
Interactional Metadiscourse Markers		5626	%	75.08	1123
Engagement Markers		4629	%	62.13	929
Hedges		380	%	5.07	76
Self-Mention		247	%	3.29	49
Boosters		203	%	2.70	41
Attitude Markers		140	%	1.86	28
Interactive Metadiscourse Markers		1863	%	24.92	373
Endophoric Markers		743	%	9.91	148
Transition Markers		576	%	7.67	115
Code Glosses		419	%	5,59	84
Frame Markers	Sequencing	31	%	0,41	6
	Label Stages	41	%	0.54	8
	Shift Topic	22	%	0.36	4
	Announce Goals	15	%	0,20	3
Evidentials		10	%	0,15	2

Interactional metadiscourse markers (%75.08) are used more frequently than interactive metadiscourse markers in written feedback for lesson plans. Among interactional metadiscourse markers, engagement markers (62,13) were the most common and the other interactional metadiscourse types in the decreasing order: hedges (%62,13), self-mention (3,29), boosters (2.70), attitude markers (1.86).

On the other hand, among interactive metadiscourse markers, while endophoric markers (%9,91) were the most frequent, the other interactive metadiscourse types were in decreasing order of frequency; transition markers (%7.67), code glosses (%5.59), frame markers (%1.51), and evidentials (%0,15).

The findings of the present study also indicate that written feedback for lesson plans in asynchronous distance teacher education can be viewed as an asynchronous dialogue between the supervisor (the feedback provider) and the pre-service teacher (the reader). Consequently, metadiscourse markers, particularly engagement markers, play a dominant role in the feedback, addressing the reader and fostering engagement. The focus of the written feedback centres around the lesson plan as a product and the language used by the supervisor is shaped by the objective of addressing issues in the lesson plan, offering

advice, and critiquing problematic points encountered by the pre-service teacher during lesson plan writing. Throughout this process, the supervisors consider possible objections or responses from the pre-service teacher, as well as pedagogical and interpersonal aspects, aiming to assist them in developing their lesson plans. As a result, the prototypical metadiscourse in the feedback involves the supervisor responding to the pre-service teacher's discourse in a problem-solving and solution-oriented manner. Moreover, the feedback is directed towards a specific reader rather than an undefined or potential audience. Thus, the feedback is structured as if it is part of a dialogue between the writer (supervisor) and the reader (pre-service teacher), resembling personal and direct communication akin to face-to-face conversation.

The data to answer the second research question of the study was collected from interviews. Interviews with 18 pre-service teachers were conducted and transcribed on a document on a computer. Two themes were retrieved from the responses after analysis; 'opinions' and 'suggestions' about the feedback.

One of the main gripes of dissatisfied pre-service teachers was that the feedback they received from their supervisors was 'not clear'. According to these pre-service teachers, when they received feedback, they struggled to comprehend which aspects of their lesson plans were unclear or lacking, leaving them unsure about how to improve those areas. The feedback that fails to clearly identify and address problems in the lesson plan not only hampers the development of a roadmap for improvement but also leads to reduced motivation due to the confusion experienced by the pre-service teacher. Some pre-service teachers felt that the feedback they received was not sufficiently detailed to enhance and guide their progress. They complained that the written feedback lacked detail, such as detecting the problem and providing solutions and suggestions. Thus, written feedback provided insufficient guidance on problematic areas within their lesson plans and failed to enhance their understanding of lesson plan writing. Additionally, receiving discouraging and delayed feedback, weak communication with supervisors, and not objective assessment are other dissatisfactory issues reported by pre-service teachers.

The study also revealed that to ask questions about the feedback they received, pre-service teachers needed to contact their supervisors. Thus, they tried to find their contact information either through friends or by searching on social media platforms. Regarding specific feedback samples, many pre-service teachers expressed concerns about imperatives used in feedback. Those who had the opportunity to meet or talk with their

supervisors did not find feedback containing imperatives, criticism or criticising questions discouraging. However, some pre-service teachers who had not met their supervisors in person reported negative emotions upon receiving feedback, including imperatives and criticising questions. Increased personal interaction reduced uncertainty and equivocality in the conveyed message, fostering more effective communication. The responses indicated that even a single opportunity for face-to-face interaction with the supervisor bridged the gap in interaction that exists when relying solely on written feedback.

Satisfied pre-service teachers emphasised that the feedback they received was 'clear' 'detailed', 'thought-provoking', 'encouraging' and 'personalised'. In addition to these issues, pre-service teachers preferred extra-oral feedback and interactional issues in written feedback. Through responses and discussions, it became evident which types of feedback pre-service teachers found satisfying and desired. Detailed feedback should not only highlight what is wrong but also provide explanations, examples, and strategies to address the issues in the lesson plan. Using more examples and clarifying explanations in feedback entails utilising interactive metadiscourse markers that help structure the text. However, the study revealed that the analysed feedback samples contained fewer interactive metadiscourse markers, indicating a lack of detailed feedback.

Lastly, another theme that emerged from the responses concerned problems and expectations related to the teacher education program. Pre-service teachers expressed their inability to seek clarification regarding unclear feedback. They also found the tight and short schedule for writing and receiving feedback on their lesson plans challenging. Consequently, due to time constraints and the lack of opportunity to address unclear feedback, some pre-service teachers reported that they conducted their practice teaching sessions without revising their lesson plans. The need for clarification in feedback led to attempts to communicate with supervisors via email and phone calls. However, some participants reported difficulties in effectively communicating regarding feedback and the course itself. The lack of or weak communication with supervisors contributed to overall dissatisfaction with the feedback process.

5.2.2. Conclusion of the study

The current study has shown that written feedback for lesson plans can be divided into three categories according to its ability to contribute to the development of the lesson

plan: + feedback, pseudo-feedback, and – feedback. + *Feedback* contributes to developing the lesson plan either by defining the problem in the lesson plan or suggesting solutions, sometimes with examples. *Pseudo-feedback* does not contribute to development because it does not *explicitly* define the problem or provide solutions and examples. The message in pseudo-feedback consists of equivocality and uncertainty. The need for clarification and extraoral feedback is frequently seen after receiving such feedback. The last type, -*feedback* does not indicate a problem or suggest a solution and thus does not have a contributing role in development.

Interactional metadiscourse markers, particularly engagement markers, are extremely frequent and used to engage pre-service teachers in problem/solution-oriented feedback sentences. Concerning engagement markers, reader pronouns and cases of calling pre-service teachers by their names outnumbered imperatives and modal verbs in our corpus. Compared to other genres in the academic discourse community, exceptionally high frequent use of interactional metadiscourse markers is observed. Focusing on the problem and solution-oriented characteristics of this type of feedback can be seen in the frequent use of reader pronouns and modal verbs and directives. Written feedback for lesson plans is not a stand-alone but a supporting genre dependent on the commented lesson plan. Investigation of linguistic items in this genre should be conducted by evaluating both texts together. Notably, the highly frequent and diverse use of endophoric markers referring to both parts in feedback and lesson plans makes this genre specific.

Pre-service teachers' satisfaction is observed when they receive + *feedback* which is detailed and contributes to developing their lesson plans. However, when they receive pseudo-feedback which is not detailed and carries equivocal and uncertain messages, they remain confused and unanswered. Thus, they need extraoral feedback from supervisors to eliminate equivocality and uncertainty in feedback messages. It should be also noted that while receiving feedback with imperatives and criticising questions seems to be a reason for discouragement, such feedback does not discourage pre-service teachers who meet their supervisors in person. Knowing the intention of the supervisor eliminates the discouraging effect of feedback with imperatives or criticising content. In other words, including more media into the message conveyed to the other side resulted in a change of attitude towards dissatisfied feedback types.

As aforementioned, when pre-service teachers face issues, they are dissatisfied such as not objective assessment or unclear points in feedback or feedback process and have questions about these issues, they need extra oral feedback or guidance and tend to ask their supervisors or, if it is not possible, discuss with their classmates in social media or online chat groups. This issue, the search for a solution when facing a problem in written feedback or feedback process, remains timeless however much the distance education applications develop with the help of technology. Feedback is not a separate and isolated educational issue used as a response to the assignments or works of students and ignored later. It is efficient and needed for the work of students to be improved.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

Nowadays, with the high development of computer technology and opportunities for the internet, synchronous live lesson options are widely used in distance education. However, in synchronous or asynchronous distance education, in educational environments, where the written feedback for the works of students, such as lesson plans, dissertations, or homework, is given asynchronously, the results of the current study would contribute to giving more efficient and useful written feedback and help students make use of the feedback better.

The first implication to be mentioned is that it is reasonable for the supervisors, the providers of written feedback, to have training to give feedback. Helping supervisors to give more effective written feedback, especially by drawing their attention to the language they use in feedback, and the needs and preferences of pre-service teachers, could be planned.

As indicated while discussing the results, using more media options in educational concepts decreases the ‘uncertainty’ and ‘equivocality’ in the transferred message from teacher to students. Therefore, while giving feedback in the educational environments mentioned above, adding more media to the transferred message would result in pre-service teachers' better understanding of the message in written feedback. With the development of distance education delivery systems, distance education programs have the ability to conduct regular online meetings or office hours to discuss the problematic issues in not only written feedback but also projects, assignments or unclear points in the online lesson. However, for pre-service teachers in the programs not conducting such

applications, the need for extra-oral feedback or guidance and the search for solutions to solve the problematic issues in written feedback remains timeless.

Discussing the process and answering their questions would decrease confusion resulting from written communication on the pre-service teachers' side. In distance education, asynchronous or synchronous, in case regular meetings are not possible, an online meeting at the beginning of the process would also be beneficial or creating an opportunity for calling or instant messaging applications for students to contact their supervisors when they need to ask their questions would decrease incomprehensibility or misunderstanding in written feedback. Giving feedback via video or voice messages or adding a video or audio message to written feedback would also help students understand the message conveyed in feedback better. Not only in distance education but also in face-to-face educational environments, having extra oral feedback opportunities on given written feedback would contribute to the development of the work of students by answering their questions about feedback. These implications can be planned by the admission of educational institutions or to some extent, can be applied by supervisors individually.

5.4. Limitations of the Research

In this section, the following limitations of the study are presented.

- The study was conducted with non-native speakers of English. All the participants were native Turkish speakers. Therefore, findings on the use of metadiscourse markers in written feedback might have been affected by their non-native use of the English language.
- In this study, supervisors are not interviewed. During the interviews with them, questions about the linguistics item, particularly metadiscourse markers preferences they use while writing feedback, could be asked. Doing so would have contributed to revealing more intensive results. Not conducting interviews with the supervisors might have caused the findings of the research to be limited.

5.5. Suggestions for Future Research

First of all, the limitations of the current study can have implications for future research. The other suggestions are as follows;

- Future studies on not specific types but entire metadiscourse types in written feedback on other types of students' work in the academic discourse community and comparison of the results with the result of the current study can provide an idea of whether the mentioned characteristics are unique to this genre.
- In such research, interviewing the feedback givers by asking questions about their preferences of linguistic items while giving written feedback would provide better insight into the written feedback for lesson plans.
- Conducting the research in various teacher training programs would contribute to reaching more diversified participants and get more intensive findings.
- Conducting future research with both native and non-native participants and analysing the results of both groups separately would offer comparative findings and contribute to insight into the genre of written feedback for lesson plans.
- A Likert-scale questionnaire for asking the opinions of pre-service teachers can be used in future research. The results of the questionnaire could be compared with the findings from the interviews with pre-service teachers.
- The corrected lesson plans by pre-service teachers can be investigated to see the result and effect of each type of metadiscourse used in feedback.
- Analysing the feedback writing style of the supervisors individually and the satisfied and dissatisfied feedback type of each supervisor can provide deep insight and contribute to revealing more pedagogical implications.

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APPENDICES

Evrak Kayıt Tarihi: 15.02.2018 Protokol No: 19480

Tarih: 29.03.2018



ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERÎ BİLİMLER BİLİMSEL ARAŞTIRMA VE YAYIN ETİĞİ KURULU
KARAR BELGESİ

ÇALIŞMANIN TÜRÜ:	Doktora Tez Çalışması
KONU:	Eğitim Bilimleri
BAŞLIK:	Bir Türk Üniversitesi Ortamında Uzaktan Eğitimde Öğretmen Adaylarının Ders Planlarına Verilen Uygulama Öğretim Elemanı Geri Bildirimlerdeki Üstsöylem Belirtileri
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APPENDIX A: CONSENT FORM

ARAŞTIRMA GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Bu çalışma, “Bir Türk Üniversitesi Ortamında Uzaktan Eğitimde Öğretmen Adaylarının Ders Planlarına Verilen Uygulama Öğretim Elemanı Geri Bildirimlerindeki Üstsöylem Belirticileri” başlıklı bir araştırma çalışması olup, öğretmen adaylarının yazdığı ders planlarına verilen geri bildirimlerde uygulama öğretim elemanlarının kullandıkları üstsöylem belirticilerinin ve türlerinin öğretmen adayı ile aralarındaki etkileşimdeki işlevini belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma, Adnan YAVUZ tarafından yürütülmekte olup sonuçları ile çalışma kapsamında uygulama öğretim elemanlarının yazdıkları ders planı geri bildirimlerinde kullandıkları üstsöylem belirticileri, türleri, hangi işlevlerde kullanıldıkları, uygulama öğretim elemanlarının üstsöylem belirticilerini kullanım farkındalıkları ve öğretmen adaylarının geri bildirimlerden faydalanabilmelerinde üstsöylem belirticilerinin kullanımın katkısı ortaya konacaktır. Bu bağlamda ders plan geri bildirimlerinin hedef kitle (öğretmen adayları) tarafından daha iyi anlaşılabilmesi ve uygulama öğretim elemanlarının buna yönelik olarak geri bildirimlerde üstsöylem belirticilerini kullanmalarına katkı sunulacaktır. Ayrıca, bu çalışmadan elde edilen sonuçlar çeşitli bilimsel çalışmalarda (tez, makale, bildiri, vb.) kullanılarak bilim dünyasına kazandırılacaktır.

- Bu çalışmaya katılımınız gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır.
- Çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda, karma desen araştırma türü kullanılıp nitel ve nicel araştırmalar yapılarak sizden **görüşme** yoluyla veriler toplanacaktır.
- İsminizi yazmak ya da kimliğinizi açığa çıkaracak bir bilgi vermek zorunda değilsiniz/araştırmada katılımcıların isimleri gizli tutulacaktır.
- Araştırma kapsamında toplanan veriler, sadece bilimsel amaçlar doğrultusunda kullanılacak, araştırmanın amacı dışında ya da bir başka araştırmada kullanılmayacak ve gerekmesi halinde, sizin (yazılı) izniniz olmadan başkalarıyla paylaşılmayacaktır.
- İstemeniz halinde sizden toplanan verileri inceleme hakkınız bulunmaktadır.
- Sizden toplanan veriler arşivleme ve sanal veri depolama yöntemi ile korunacak ve araştırma bitiminde arşivlenecek veya imha edilecektir.
- Veri toplama sürecinde/süreçlerinde size rahatsızlık verebilecek herhangi bir soru/talep olmayacaktır. Yine de katılımınız sırasında herhangi bir sebepten rahatsızlık hissederseniz çalışmadan istediğiniz zamanda ayrılabilirsiniz. Çalışmadan ayrılmanız durumunda sizden toplanan veriler çalışmadan çıkarılacak ve imha edilecektir.

Gönüllü katılım formunu okumak ve değerlendirmek üzere ayırdığınız zaman için teşekkür ederim. Çalışma hakkındaki sorularınızı Anadolu Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümü doktora öğrencisi Adnan YAVUZ’a yöneltebilirsiniz.

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Bu çalışmaya tamamen kendi rızamla, istediğim takdirde çalışmadan ayrılabileceğimi bilerek verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Lütfen bu formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra veri toplayan kişiye veriniz.)

Katılımcı Ad ve Soyadı:

İmza:

Tarih:

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW WITH PRE-SERVICE TEACHER

Study: Metadiscourse Markers in Supervisor Feedback for Lesson Plans of Pre-service Teachers in Distance Education, A Study in a Turkish University Setting

Date of interview:

Place:

Interviewee's name and surname:

Semi-Structured Interview Questions for Pre-Service Teachers

12. What are your opinions about your lesson plans?
13. Do you think your lesson plans are qualified enough?
14. What points do you think you should develop in your lesson plans?
15. How did written feedback from your supervisor help you develop lesson plans?
16. What kinds of things/words in your supervisor's written feedback help you understand and develop your lesson plans?
17. How do you define qualified feedback?
18. What type of feedback was more helpful for your lessons; feedback in which text organizing elements are used well or feedback in which the writer somehow includes the reader?
19. How can feedback help you interact with your supervisor?
20. Do you think you had a good interaction with your supervisor through feedback? How?
21. What do you expect from feedback?
22. Do these feedbacks meet your expectations?

Following the interview questions above, extracts from the written feedback of the supervisor will be shown and the following questions will be asked (**stimulated recall**);

What did you think while you were reading this feedback sentence? How did it help your lesson plan development?

APPENDIX C: LIST OF INVESTIGATED METADISCOURSE MARKERS

Interactional Metadiscourse Markers								
Attitude Markers		Boosters		Self Mention	Engagement Markers		Hedges	
!	hopeful	actually	know	I we	(the) reader's	mark	about	mainly
admittedly	hopefully	always	known	me	add	measure	almost	may
agree	important	believe	must (possibility]	my	allow	mount	apparent	maybe
agrees	importantly	believed	never	our	analyse	must	apparently	might
agreed	inappropriate	believes	no doubt	mine	apply	need to	appear	mostly
amazed	inappropriately	beyond doubt	obvious	us	arrange	note	appeared	often
amazing	interesting	certain	obviously	the author	assess	notice	appears	on the whole
amazingly	interestingly	certainly	of course	the author's	assume	observe	approximately	ought
appropriate	prefer	clear	prove	the writer	by the way	one's	argue	perhaps
appropriately	preferable	clearly	proved	the writer's	calculate	order	argued	plausible
astonished	preferably	conclusively	proves		choose	ought	argues	plausibly
astonishing	preferred	decidedly	realize		classify	our (inclusive)	around	possible
astonishingly	remarkable	definite	realized		compare	pay	assume	possibly
correctly	remarkably	definitely	realizes		connect	picture	assumed	postulate
curious	shocked	demonstrate	really		consider	prepare	broadly	postulated
curiously	shocking	demonstrated	show		consult	recall	certain amount	postulates
desirable	shockingly	demonstrates	showed		contrast	recover	certain extent	presumable
desirably	striking	doubtless	shown		define	refer	certain level	presumably
disappointed	strikingly	establish	shows		demonstrate	regard	claim	probable
disappointing	surprised	established	sure		determine	remember	claimed	probably
disappointingly	surprising	evident	surely		do not	remove	claims	quite
disagree	surprisingly	evidently	think		develop	review	could	rather x
disagreed	unbelievable	find	thinks		employ	see	couldn't	relatively
disagrees	unbelievably	finds	thought		ensure	select	doubt	roughly

dramatic	understandable	found	truly
dramatically	understandably	in fact	true
essential	unexpected	incontestable	undeniable
essentially	unexpectedly	incontestably	undeniably
even x	unfortunate	incontrovertible	undisputedly
expected	unfortunately	incontrovertibly	undoubtedly
expectedly	unusual	indeed	without doubt
fortunate	unusually	indisputable	
fortunately	usual	indisputably	

estimate	set	doubtful	seems
evaluate	should	essentially	should
find	show	estimate	sometimes
follow	suppose	estimated	somewhat
go	state	fairly	suggest
have to	take (a look/as example)	feel	suggested
imagine	think about	feels	suggests
incidentally	think of	felt	suppose
increase	turn	frequently	supposed
		from my /our /	
input	us (inclusive)	this	supposes
		perspective	
insert	use	generally	suspect
integrate	we (inclusive)	guess	suspects
key	you	indicate	tend to
let x = y	your	indicated	tended to
let us	you know	indicates	tends to
let's		in general	to my knowledge
look at		in most cases / instances	typical / ly
		in my opinion	uncertain /ly
		in my view	unclear
		in this view	unclearly
		in our opinion	unlikely
		in our view	usually
		largely	would
		likely	wouldn't

Interactive Metadiscourse Markers								
Code Glosses	Endophoric Markers	Frame Markers			Announce goals	Shift topic	Transition Markers	
		Evidentials	Sequencing	Label stages				
as a matter of fact	(In) Chapter X	(date)/(name)	(in) chapter X	all in all	(in) chapter this	back to	accordingly	moreover
called	(In) Part X	(to) cite X	(in) part X	at this point	(in) this part	digress	additionally	nevertheless
defined as	(In) Section X	(to) quote X	(in) section X	at this stage	(in) section this	in regard to	again	nonetheless
e.g.	(In) the X chapter	[ref. no.]/[name]	(in) the X chapter	by far	aim	move on	also	on the contrary
for example	(In) the X part	according to X	(in) the X part	for the moment	desire to	now	alternatively	on the other hand
for instance	(In) the X section	cited	(in) the X section	in brief	focus	resume	although	rather
I mean	(In) This chapter	quoted	(in) this chapter	in conclusion	goal	return to	and	result in
i.e.	(In) This part		(in) this part	in short	intend to	revisit	as a consequence	similarly
in fact	(In) This section		(in) this section	in sum	intention	shift to	as a result	since
in other words	Example X		finally	in summary	objective	so	at the same time	so
indeed	Fig.X		first	now	purpose	to look more closely	because	so as to
known as	Figure X		first of all	on the whole	seek to	turn to	besides	still
namely	P. X		firstly	overall	want to	well	but	the result is
orX	PageX		last	so far	wish to	with regard to	by contrast	thereby
put another way	Table X		lastly	thus far	would like to		by the same token	therefore

say	X above	listing (a, b, c, etc.)	to conclude	consequently	though
specifically	X before	next	to repeat	conversely	thus
such as	X below	numbering (1, 2, 3, etc.)	to sum up	equally	whereas
that is	X earlier	second	to summarize	even though	while
that is to say	X later	secondly		further	yet
that means	here	subsequently		furthermore	
this means	now	then		hence	
viz	paragraph	third		however	
which means	phrase	thirdly		in addition	
like	sentence	to begin		in contrast	
so called	word	to start with		in the same way	
what some people call				leads to	
what I mean				likewise	

APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW EXCERPTS PRESENTED IN THE RESULTS: ORIGINAL TURKISH AND TRANSLATED VERSIONS

Theme – Satisfaction

Code – Clear

- “Bir önceki “unclear” feedbackine göre daha açık. En azından yazdığımın genel olduğunu, daha specific bir şeyler yazmam gerektiğini anladım.”

“It’s clearer than the previous feedback “unclear”. At least, I realise what I wrote was general, and I need to write something more specific.” PST 8

- “Güzel bir açıklama olmuş. Hatırlıyorum o dönütü. Açıklayıcı olması güzeldi. “‘Comprehend’ observable değildir’. Bu hep aklımda kaldı benim. Bir kural gibi oldu benim için.”

“It was a good and clear explanation. I remember that feedback. It was nice and was understandable. ‘Comprehend is not observable’. I have always kept this in mind. It has become like a rule for me.” PST 2

Code – Detailed

“Yani faydalı oldu **zaten**. Hatalarımı görmüş oldum. Bu feedbackte ayrıntılı açıklama yapması ile ne yapmam gerektiğini daha iyi anladım.”

“Well, it was useful. I saw my mistakes. With the detailed explanation in this feedback, I had a better understanding what I had to do.” PST 8

- “Feedback sadece iki kelimeyle kalmamış. Daha detaylı ve açıklayıcı. Bu yüzden daha iyi.”

“The feedback is not just a couple of words. It is more detailed and explanatory. So, it's better.” PST 15

- “Bu feedback de yol gösterici. Sorunu da çözümü de veriyor feedbackte.”

“This feedback also guides. It provides both the problem and the solution.” PST 16

Code -Thought-provoking

- “Böyle sorması beni acaba bu yeterli mi, böyle mi yapmalıyım diye düşünmeye sevk ediyor.”

“The fact that she asked like this made me wonder if it was enough or whether I should do it that way.” PST 3

- “Bana ‘Where is it’ demesi planı gözden geçirmem sebep oldu.”

“Asking me ‘Where is it?’ made me review the plan.” PST4

- “Kısa ama açıklayıcı bir feedback diyebilirim. Bana soru sorarak hatamı buldurmuş.”

“I can say that this is short but clear feedback. He made me find my mistakes by asking questions.” PST 16

Code – Encouraging

- “Onun dönütleri daha teşvik ediciydi, emojileriyle. Bu hoşuma gitti.”

“His (the supervisor) feedback was more encouraging with the smiling emojis he used. I like that.” PST 1

- ““these are nice 😊’ demiş. ‘Hah, tamam bunu başarmışım!’ dedim. Evet!. Olumlu bir dönüt yazmış ve emoji de koymuş.”

“‘These are nice 😊’ he wrote. ‘Ah, I did it!’ I said. “Yes! He wrote positive feedback and also added an emoji” PST 6

- “‘Bu dersten alınacak bir outcome değildir.’ demiş. Ne demek istediğini de bir örnekle feedbackte vermiş sonra. Daha teşvik edici olmuş. Hani, öğretmenden bir arkadaşım gibi tavsiye almışım.”

“‘He meant to say that this was not a lesson outcome to be aimed at. Then he gave an example in the feedback to show what he meant. It became more encouraging. You know, I received advice from the supervisor as if he were a friend of mine.’” PST 7

- “‘Sadece hatalarımızı düzelten feedbackler yerine, böyle teşvik edici cümleler görünce motive oluyoruz.’”

“‘We feel motivated when we see such encouraging comments rather than just correcting our mistakes.’” PST 10

Code – Personalized

- “‘Sadece bana özel feedback olduğunda supervisor ile bir interaction olduğunu düşünüyorum. Bu açıdan üçüncü feedback benim beklentilerimi karşıladı çünkü bana özeldi.’”

“‘Only when I get feedback which is personalised do I feel I am interacting with the supervisor. The third feedback met my expectations because it was personalised.’” PST 5

- “‘Bu feedback'in doğrudan muhatabı benim orada. Yani orada genel bir feedbackle karşılaştırdınca bu bana hitap eden daha etkili.’”

“I am the named receiver of this feedback. So, compared with the generalised feedback, this feedback addressed to me is more effective.” PST 4

Theme – Dissatisfactory

Code - Not clear

- “Ben de bunu anlamadım. Aynı şekilde tepki de bende var yani.”

“I didn't understand that, either. So, I had the same reaction.” PST 6

- “Gayet açık aslında. Hani daha nasıl spesifik olabilir? Yani, bunu da çok haklı bir eleştiri olarak görmüyorum açıkçası. Hani 'broad' olan nedir burada? Spesifik olmayan nedir?”

“It's (referring to the part in her plan) pretty obvious, actually. How could it be more specific? So, I don't see this as a very justified piece of criticism. I don't understand it, frankly. What does “broad” mean here? What does “non-specific” mean?” PST 17

- “Çok açıklayıcı dönüt değil. Biraz gerer öğrenciyi. Açıklayıcı olması ne yaptığının farkına vardırır.”

“Not very comprehensible feedback. It makes the student (sic. referring to the pre-service teacher) a little nervous. ... Having comprehensible feedback makes me aware of what I've done.” PST 8

- “Outcome için ‘Unclear’ gibi bir feedback alınca, ben outcome'ı silip baştan yazdım. Outcome'da neyin sorun veya unclear olduğunu anlamadım. Sonuçta yeniden yazdığınız şeyin de supervisorın tam istediği şey mi onu da bilmiyorsunuz. Dönüt bu konuda bir katkı sağlamadı.”

“When I received feedback like ‘Unclear’ for the outcome, I deleted it and rewrote it. I didn’t understand what was wrong or unclear with the outcome. After all, you don’t know whether what you rewrite is exactly as the supervisor wants. The feedback did not help this issue.” PST 4

Code - Not detailed

- “Sorun var diyor ama sorunun ne belli değil. Bu feedback tam olarak bana bir çözüm sunmuyor. “Öğrencilere örnek ver. Anlamamış olabilirler” diyor fakat bana hiç örnek vermeden anlamamı bekliyor.”

“It says there is a problem, but it is not clear what the problem is. This feedback does not exactly offer me a solution. “Give examples to the students. They might not understand,” he says, but he expects me to understand without giving any examples.” PST 4

- “Yani kitaptan mı, kılavuzdan mı okuyacağım? Buraya onu mu yazayım? Ya da çocuklara farklı bir şeyler mi okutayım? Bilgi vermemiş burada.”

“Should I read it from the book, the teacher’s guide? Should I write it here? Or should I have the children read something different? He didn’t give any information here.” PST 11

- “İki ders çıktısının (outcome) da altını çizince, ben yine yanlış yaptım diye düşündüm ve baştan yazdım aldım bu çıktıları. Fark ettiyseniz çok az ve kısa kelimelerle veriyor feedbacki.”

“When she underlined both lesson outcomes, I thought I had made a mistake again and wrote the outcomes over again. If you notice, she gives feedback with very few words.” PST 4

- “Çok detay yok dönütlerde. Bence problem bu zaten.”

“There’s not much detail in the feedback. I think that's the problem.” PST 6

- “Benim gönderdiğim plan 3. Sayfa ama aldığım feedback 3-5 satır. Büyük bir sıkıntı bence bu. Koca bir ders planına birkaç cümle feedback aldım sadece.”

“The plan I sent is many pages long, but the feedback I received was only 3-5 lines. I think this is a big problem. I got a few sentences of feedback on a huge lesson plan.” PST 18

Code - Weak communication/No reply

- “İletişimde çok fazla sorun yaşadık çünkü hiçbir emailime cevap yazılmadı.”

“We had a lot of communication problems because none of my emails were answered.” PST 1

- “Yok kesinlikle, bir cevap bile gelmedi yani. Ve email atmak zorunda kaldım. Emaillerime de cevap gelmedi.”

“No, definitely not even one answer came. And I had to send emails. There was no response to my emails either.” PST 2

- “Dönem boyunca hocaya telefonla ulaşmaya çalıştım. Facebook’tan bile bulmaya çalıştım. Ders planlarım ve değerlendirme kriterleriyle ilgili sorularım vardı.”

“During term time, I tried to contact my supervisor by phone. I even searched for her on Facebook. I had questions about my lesson plan writing and the assessment criteria.” PST 3

Code – Discouraging

- “Böyle çok büyük bir yanlış yapmışım gibi hissettim.”

“I felt like I had made such a big mistake.” PST 2

- “Feedback okunduğunda ne dediği anlaşılıyor ama maalesef yine emir kipi (emir kipi imperative demek) kullanarak dönüt vermiş.”

“When you read the feedback, it is clear what she said, but unfortunately, she gave her feedback using an imperative again.” PST 10

- “Aslında ‘Why don’t you omit this?’ diye yazsa iyi daha olurdu. Hoca daha direk, ‘omit this’, ‘unclear’ yazmış. Yani biraz sert feedback gibi olmuş.”

“Actually, it would have been better if she had written “Why don't you omit this?” The supervisor is more direct writing ‘omit this’, and ‘unclear’. So, it seemed a bit like harsh feedback.” PST 14

- “Ama beni çok kırdı ve şöyle bir etkisi olduğu üzerinde onu anlatmaya çalışıyorum. Ben ders anlatmaya gittiğim zaman kendime olan güvenimi kaybettim.”

“but it hurt me a lot, and I'm trying to explain the effect it had on me. I lost my self-confidence when I went to teach my lesson.” PST 3

- ““Do you think that this lesson will last 45 minutes. I think it will finish earlier.’ Böyle bir feedback bende nasıl bir izlenim bırakıyor biliyor musunuz? Sanki; hani böyle cezalandırır gibi. Böyle sanki parmağını sallar gibi bir ifade var burada. Bu cümle sanki seni yargılıyor gibi burada.”

““Do you think that this lesson will last 45 minutes? I think it will finish earlier.’ Do you know what impression this feedback leaves on me? It’s as if he is punishing you. There’s a comment here as if he is waving his finger. This sentence, as if he is judging you here.” PST 5

- “Yani artık danışmanımı tanıyorum. Yüz yüze görüştüm. Çok nazik ve profesyonel birisi. Artı o tip feedbackler beni demotive etmiyor.”

“I know my supervisor. I have met her in person. She is gentle and professional, so such feedback does not demotivate me.” PST 4

- “Bir de ilk ders planım için aldığım feedbackler insanı biraz üzüyordu. Çünkü genelde bana çok az şeyi beğeniyor gibi geldi o zaman. Tanışmadan önce. Yani dönütleri ilk gördüğümde, tanışana kadar böyle eli sopalı, gözlüklü, titiz bir hoca imajı vardı bende. Fakat tanıştıktan sonra nasıl dost canlısı birisi olduğunu gördüm ve aynı tip feedbackleri okuyunca öyle hissetmedim.”

“The feedback I received on my first lesson plan was a little saddening. Because, at that time, it seemed to me that she was someone who was difficult to please. Before our meeting, after seeing her feedback for the first time, until meeting her, she made an impression on me, as if she was a harsh high school teacher wearing glasses. But after I met her, I saw how friendly she was and did not feel this way when I read the same type of feedback.” PST 4

Code - Not objective assessment

- “15 aldım. Sonra 92, 96, 96 ve 100 aldım. Ve bu çok çelişkili. Yani 15 alan bir öğrenci 100 alamaz!”

“I got 15. And then I got 92, 96, 96 and 100. And this seems very contradictory. ... A student who gets 15 cannot later get 100!” PST 1

- “İlk planlarım için yirmi beş, kırk gibi notlar gördükten sonra planlarımı bir daha yüklemedim sisteme. Bir noktadan sonra insanın artık şevki kırılıyor çünkü. Hangi kritere göre o notu aldım bilmiyorum.”

“After seeing grades like twenty-five and forty given to my first plans, I didn't upload my plans to the system any longer. Because after a certain point, you lose your enthusiasm. I don't know under what criteria I was given those grades.” PST 7

Code – Delayed

- “Bu feedbacki dersten önce alsaydım bir anlamı olurdu. Uygulamadan sonra umursamadım çünkü artık dersi yapmıştım.”

“If I had received this feedback before the lesson, it would have been meaningful. After the application of the lesson, I didn’t care because I had already delivered it.” PST 5

- “Dönütünü geç veriyor. Uygulama dersinden sonra veriyor dönütü.”

“She gives her feedback late. She gives feedback after I conduct teaching practice sessions.” PST 7

Theme – Suggestions

Code - Oral feedback

- “Dönem boyunca hocaya telefonla ulaşmaya çalıştım. Facebook’tan bile bulmaya çalıştım. Ders planı ve değerlendirme kriterleriyle ilgili sorularım vardı. Anlamadığımız şeyleri, süreci bizzat sormak için keşke hoca ile semester başlangıcında bir toplantı olsa bizim için güzel olurdu.”

“During term time, I tried to contact my supervisor by phone. I even searched for her on Facebook. I wanted to ask her my questions about lesson plan writing and assessment criteria. A meeting with the supervisors to ask the things we don’t understand about the process in person at the beginning of the term would have been good for us.” PST 3

- “Feedbackten danışmanın tam olarak nasıl bir şey istediğini anlayamamıştım. Bir de hoca ile yüz yüze bir ortamda görüşünce biraz daha iyi oldu. Kendisine bizzat sordum. O da istedikleri tarzda ders planını söyleyince daha iyi oldu o zaman. Yani bu feedbackler fikir verdi, işin aslını da hoca söyledi diyebilirim.”

“I couldn't understand exactly from the feedback what the supervisor wanted. It got a little better when I met her face-to-face. I asked her in person. It became better then when she told me the lesson plan style she wanted. So, I can say that this written feedback gave me an idea, but she told me the whole truth in person.”
PST 4

- “Öğrencinin feedback ile ilgili sorularına, mesela daha sık bir şekilde telefonla, online toplantıyla veya yüz yüze cevap verme daha iyi olabilir.”

“It may be better to answer questions raised by the student (sic. referring to the pre-service teacher) about feedback, for example, by phone, by meeting online or face-to-face more often.” PST 15

Code – Detailed

- “Feedback yaptığım hataları düzeltebilmem için yeterince açıklayıcı ve detaylı olmalı.”

“Feedback should be detailed and understandable enough to correct the mistakes I had made.” PST 2

- “Daha ayrıntılı olmalıydı.”

“It should have been more detailed.” PST 7

- “Feedback kesinlikle yol gösterici olmalı. Öğretmen adaylarına sadece eksikliklerini göstererek değil, o eksiklikleri nasıl tamamlayacaklarını da söyleyerek ya da ne bileyim beni düşünmeye sevk ederek ve ufak ufak ipuçları falan vererek olabilir.”

“Feedback should definitely offer guidance. This can be not only showing pre-service teachers by indicating their shortcomings but also telling them how to correct them, or I don't know, by making us think and giving little hints, etc.”

PST 9

- “‘‘Şu yöntemle ders anlatabilirdin’, ‘Şu yöntemini kullansaydın belki daha kompleks olmayabilirdi dersin akışı’. Belki bana böyle öneriler verebilirdi. Bunu beklerdim burada.’”

“‘‘You could teach in this way.’, ‘Well, if you had used this method, maybe the flow of the lesson would not have been as complex.’ Maybe he could give such suggestions. I would expect this here.’” PST 3

- “‘‘Şöyle yapabilirdin.’, ‘Şöyle de olsa daha iyi olurdu.’, ‘Öğrencilerine bu daha etkili olabilirdi.’, ‘Burada şu yöntem daha etkilidir.’, ‘Bunu kullanman gerekebilir.’. Ya da ‘Bu yöntem yanlış bir şeye sebep olabilir.’. Her zaman böyle feedback cümleleri bekliyorum.’”

“‘‘You could do it like this.’, ‘It would be better if it were like this.’, ‘This might be more effective for your students.’, ‘Here, the following method is more effective.’, ‘You may need to use this.’ or ‘This method could cause problems.’. I always expect such feedback comments.’” PST 5

- “‘‘Feedback ne yapmam gerektiğini söylemeli. Neden yapmam gerektiğini söylemeli. Ne yapmam gerektiği kadar neden yapmam gerektiğini bilirim eğer aklımda kalır, öğrenirim. Çünkü bir şeyin sebeplerini öğrendiğimizde çok daha etkili oluyor. Kaliteli dönüt bence böyle olmalı. Kelimenin yazımı hatalarımıza takılmamaları gerektiğini düşünüyorum. Ama syntactic hataları kesinlikle düzeltmeliler.’”

“‘‘Feedback should tell me what to do. It should tell me why I should do it. If I know why I should do it as much as what I should do, I will remember it and learn. Because when we learn the reasons for something, it becomes much more effective. I think this is what quality feedback should be like. I think they should

not focus on our spelling mistakes. But they should definitely correct the syntactic errors.” PST 6

Code - Written interactive mode

- “Çok eleştirirdi beni. Hatta ağlardım bazı dönütlerini gördüğüm zaman. Ama bana isimle hitap etmesi çok önemliydi. Mesela ‘Duygu’ diye başlıyordu. Ünlemlerini koyuyordu. Sonra diyordu ki 'bu böyle olmaz', 'bunu nasıl yazmışsın' vesaire diye. Yani eleştirse bile, yani çok ağır da eleştiriler yapsa bile. Hani metod kitaplarında da görüyoruz öğrenciye isimle hitap edilmesi çok önemli diye. Ben kesinlikle bunu önemişiyorum. Arada yüz yüze etkileşim vesaire bir şey yok ama benimle ilgilendiğini veya planımla ilgilendiğini böyle anlıyordum.”

“She used to criticise me a lot. I even used to cry when I saw some of her feedback. But it was very important that she called me by name. For example, she used to start by calling me by name. She used to put exclamation marks. And then she used to say “It can't be like this!”, “How did you write that?” etc. That is, she criticised me very harshly. You know, we see in the methodology books that it is very important to address the students by their names. This is very important for me. There's no face-to-face interaction or anything like that between us. But that's how I know she cares about me and my lesson plan.” PST 6

- “İlk başlarda ‘give an example’, 'omit this' or 'unclear' gibi dönütler almak sanki bilgisayar dönüt gönderiyor gibi oluyordu. Karşı tarafta gerçek bir kişi yok gibi oluyordu.”

“At first, getting feedback like 'give an example', 'omit this' or 'unclear' was as if the computer was sending feedback. It seemed like there was not a real person on the other end.” PST 4

- “Tabii yönlendirici olabilirdi. “Şöyle yaparsan daha iyi olur”, “You should...”, “you had better...” diyebilirdi. Ya da “Sana şunu tavsiye ediyorum”, “My suggestion...” diyebilirdi.”

“Of course, it could have been guiding. He could have said “It is better if you do it this way.”, “You should...”, “You had better...”. Or he could have said “I suggest this...” “My suggestion is...”.” PST 11

- “Feedback yargılayıcı burada. Hani ben ‘don’t you think’ e karşı değilim. Yani ben de kullanırım dediğim gibi. Ama şöyle bir göz kırparım, şöyle bir gülerim. Ondan sonra espri yaparım yani bu cümlede. Şunu diyebilirdi meselâ; ‘that lesson might not finish in 45 minutes? You may pay attention to the timetable’ falan diyebilirdi.”

“The feedback is judgemental here. Well, you know, I’m not against “Don’t you think...?”. As I said, I use it too. But I wink and laugh a little. And then I make a joke in the sentence. For example, he could say: “That lesson might not finish in 45 minutes,” or “You may have to pay attention to the timetable.” or something like this.” PST 1

- ““*Write* komutlarını kullanmamalısın.’ Öyle diyebilirdi.”

“He (referring to her supervisor) could have said “You should not use the imperative form *write*’.” PST 7

Code – Encouraging

- “Öğrenciyi teşvik edici olmalı. Yol gösterici olmalı. Daha kibar bir dille yazılmalı. Örnekler içermeli. Öğrenci okuduğu zaman yani gerilmemeli. Kendini daha rahat hissettirici tarzda olmalı. Motive olmalı öğrenci.”

“It should encourage the student (referring to the pre-service teacher). It should be guiding. It should be written with more polite language. It should consist of examples. The student should not be nervous when s/he reads. It should be in a style that makes you feel comfortable. The student (sic) should be motivated.” PST 10

- “Kesinlikle açık ve anlaşılır bir dille olmalı. Smiley falan olabilir ve bu da olumlu yönde etkileyebilir. Motive edebilir.”

“It should definitely be in clear and understandable language. There might be a smiley and that could have a positive impact. This might motivate.” PST 3