

Citation for published version:
Ege, F, Yüksel, D & Curle, S 2022, 'A corpus-based analysis of discourse strategy use by English-Medium Instruction university lecturers in Turkey', *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, vol. 58, 101125. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2022.101125

10.1016/j.jeap.2022.101125

Publication date: 2022

Document Version Peer reviewed version

Link to publication

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A corpus-based analysis of discourse strategy use by English-Medium

Instruction university lecturers in Turkey

3 Abstract:

4	This article reports a descriptive study that analyzed the discourse strategies used by
5	Turkish university lecturers when delivering academic content in English. Through non-
6	participant observation of English-Medium Instruction (EMI) lessons delivered by seven
7	lecturers from five universities, a corpus of 13 hours of recorded data was constructed.
8	The lecturers' strategic language behaviors were identified and categorized based on the
9	taxonomy developed by Dörnyei and Scott (1997, later elaborated by Sánchez-García,
10	2019). Corpus-based analysis revealed that the lecturers employed a wide range of
11	discourse strategies, the majority of which were the use of fillers, self-rephrasing, and
12	code-switching. Thematic analysis showed these discourse strategies offered two chief
13	functions: (i) to cope with linguistic issues, and (ii) to further students' comprehension.
14	The results also revealed that most strategies only have <i>medium communicative</i>
15	potential. This study highlights the necessity and significance of lecturer professional
16	development to enhance the quality of EMI provision through the employment of
17	discourse strategies that warrant greater communicative potential.
18 19	Keywords: English-medium instruction, discourse strategies, communicative potential, EMI lecturers, higher education

1. Introduction

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In the age of globalization, the implementation of English as a medium of instruction has burgeoned, particularly in higher education (HE; Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Macaro et al., 2018). This language policy is defined as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English" (Macaro, 2018:19). Although the swift increase of English-medium instruction (EMI) is observed across the world, universities in Europe have been fertile soil for this phenomenon to achieve the goals of the Bologna Process, particularly in terms of staff and student mobility across the 47 European countries including Turkey (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2012; Tsou & Kao, 2017; Wächter & Maiworm, 2014; Yuksel et al., 2022). Even though EMI is a relatively new research field, a large body of literature has evolved over the last 15 years (Macaro et al., 2018). Several areas of EMI have been investigated such as the perceptions of EMI teachers and students (e.g., Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011; Jiang & Zhang, 2019; Galloway & Curle, 2022), the impact of EMI on English learning (e.g., Byun et al., 2011; Rogier, 2012), and EMI academic success (e.g., Dafouz, Camacho, & Urquia, 2014; Rose et al., 2019; Xie & Curle, 2020; Altay et al., 2022; Curle et al., 2020a; Yuksel et al., 2021). This recent research interest in EMI has gradually been shifting towards the scrutinization of EMI classroom discourse (e.g., Macaro, 2020; Sánchez-García, 2019; Shartierly, 2013; Sahan, Rose & Macaro, 2021; Genc & Yuksel, 2021; Duran & Sert, 2019). In their review of studies on EMI, Curle et al. (2020b), highlight the need for further research focusing on classroom interaction and how successful the delivery of content knowledge is. Detailed analysis of EMI classroom interaction using discourse analysis can help us understand the teaching

and learning practices happening in EMI classes. Portraying what exactly is going on in a classroom can help us reach conclusions about teaching and learning. (Walsh, 2011). Relatively limited research attention has been paid to EMI classroom practices in the Turkish EMI context. Additionally, no studies have explored the strategic language behaviors of EMI lecturers in Turkey. This study, therefore, fills this research gap and makes an original contribution to knowledge by analyzing the use, function, and communicative potential of discourse strategies (DSs) used by content lecturers when delivering academic content through English.

2. Literature Review

2.1. EMI in Turkey

The use of English Medium Instruction in Turkey can be described in terms of phases of implementation: first generation and second (also the newest generation) generation of EMI, these correspond to the time before and after the 21st century (Karakaş & Bayyurt, 2019). The first attempt of EMI in Turkey was made by Robert College, founded as an American enterprise in 1863. At the tertiary level, Middle East Technical University was the first state university that embraced EMI in 1956, which later initiated the provision of EMI in foundation universities. EMI universities of the second generation differ from those of the first in terms of them being the propelling force behind the wide adoption of EMI across Turkey, as well as having a different target student profile they appeal to. In other words, Turkey has changed the direction of the motivation behind EMI programs from giving priority to domestic students, to following a policy of internationalization and globalization. It can therefore be claimed that the inclusion in the Bologna Process in 2001 led to the second upsurge of EMI in Turkey. Purely Englishmedium universities were launched, and existing Turkish-medium universities started

offering partial EMI programs to fulfil the goals set out in the Bologna Process (Arik & Arik, 2014).

Many studies in the Turkish EMI context focus on attitudinal research, exploring the beliefs of stakeholders. Scholars have reported perceptions and the reported challenges of implementing EMI from the point of view of teachers (e.g., Başıbek et al., 2014) and students (e.g., Evans & Morrison, 2011; Kırkgöz, 2009; Macaro & Akincioglu, 2018; Soruç et al., 2021). The strategies to cope with such challenges (e.g., Soruç & Griffiths, 2018) and the required English language skills for EMI students (Inan et al., 2012) have also been investigated. However, few studies have been carried out to shed light on classroom discourse used in the Turkish EMI context (see Sahan, 2020; Sahan & Rose, 2021; Sahan, Rose & Macaro, 2021). By analyzing lecturer discourse strategies, this study makes a significant contribution to this growing body of EMI research.

2.2. Classroom Discourse in EMI

The implementation of English as a medium of instruction (which is neither the native language of the instructors nor that of the majority of the students) demands great cognitive and linguistic effort from teachers and students (Hincks, 2010). Studying EMI classroom discourse provides insights into the actualization and operationalization of EMI. Recent studies have focused mainly on clearly distinct discourse practices in EMI classrooms. For example, Sánchez-García (2016) and Thøgersen and Airey (2011) investigated the effects of the medium of instruction on teachers' speech rate and instructional activities. These studies revealed that lecturers tend to speak more slowly and run over time due to repetitive explanations when teaching through English. The results of studies done by Lo and Macaro (2012) and Yip, Coyle, and Tsang (2007) also indicate that EMI makes the classroom environment less student-centered, that it does

not involve as much negotiation of meaning and scaffolding as lessons through the first language do. This micro-analytic investigation of the interaction between teachers and students is an important aspect of EMI discourse.

Recently, a few studies have investigated the discourse used in EMI classes. One of these studies, Sahan and Rose (2021), focused on the functions of translanguaging in EMI engineering programs in Turkey. Findings revealed that engineering lecturers and students utilized translanguaging practices for a variety of pedagogical purposes including presenting new academic content and asking questions related to academic content. In another study, based on the same dataset, Sahan, Rose and Macaro (2021) explored the differences in pedagogical practices according to type of university (i.e., elite, large, and small). Results showed that first language (L1) use and lecturer-student interaction varied significantly by university type. More specifically, fewer instances of L1 use and interaction were found in EMI classes at elite universities. Finally, Sahan (2020) examined 14 hours of EMI classroom discourse in Turkey through an English as a Lingua Franca lens. Results revealed that lecturers used the L1 a means to enact communicative effectiveness.

In another study in the Turkish EMI context, Genc and Yuksel (2021) investigated EMI lecturers' questioning techniques from a social interactionist perspective. They focused on the scope of talk, typology, contingency, and convergence-divergence as laid out in Boyd's (2015) taxonomy. Their descriptive study revealed that questions were most frequently asked in mathematics and engineering courses. EMI lecturers also used mostly text-based, display, and convergent questions, which resulted in restricted interaction in classes. In another series of studies, Duran, Kurhila, and Sert (2019) focused on students' vocal and visual practices in relation to Word Search in an EMI

university in Turkey. It was observed that the lecturer did not orientate to students' word searches. This revealed that content is prioritized over language in this EMI setting. This finding is supported by Duran and Sert (2019) who highlighted that student participation in EMI can be enhanced through resources such as teachers' embodiment, turn designs, and displaying preference. Similar to these studies, the current study adopts this same type of micro-analytic approach to investigation in order to determine the level of communicativeness of discourse strategies used in EMI lectures.

2.3. Discourse Strategies in EMI

Along with teacher-student interaction, the features of EMI teachers' spoken discourse have recently caught the attention of researchers. Verbal strategies used by EMI content lecturers during their lectures are often researched through the lens of code-switching, one of the most explored strategies in the literature. It has been found that the extent to which the first language (L1) is needed in EMI classes is connected to the proficiency level of the students (Macaro, Tian, & Chu, 2020; Pun & Macaro, 2018; Tarnopolsky & Goodman, 2012). Regardless of the amount of code-switching, many studies (e.g., Al Makoshi, 2014; Macaro, 2020; Sánchez-García, 2016) reported that switching to the native language creates greater clarity and fulfils many purposes such as elicitation, comprehension, and classroom management. Moreover, Sahan et al. (2021) found that the use of the L1 serves mainly pedagogical purposes such as presenting new content and asking questions related to content. These findings suggest that code-switching is not always an indicator of a language barrier but serves a purpose of fostering effective communication.

Unlike the investigation of code-switching, only a handful of studies have investigated discourse strategy (DS) use by EMI lecturers. These studies have shown

that the most frequently employed strategies by EMI teachers are: prosody, code-mixing, and comprehension check (Azian, Abdul Raof, Ismail, & Hamzah, 2013); repetition, questioning, and code-switching (Shartierly, 2013); literal translation and language switch (Zubaidi, 2014); and retrieval, restructuring, and repetition (Sánchez-García, 2019). Conclusions from these studies noted that DSs can vary depending on the student profile, the discipline taught, and the educational setting. The use of L1 did seem to be prevalent in most of these circumstances.

In addition to the use and function of DSs, Sánchez-García's (2019) research categorized the strategies according to *the degree of their communicative potential* namely DSs with *less, medium* and *more* communicative potential.

In this study, <u>less communicative potential</u> DSs involved the use of omission (an example from this study corpus is: *in a research study, deception refers to…* [pause] deception. So sometimes when you do particularly experimental research, we tell or not tell (.) the purpose of the research in order not to impact their feelings, their ideas, their opinions, right – T5).

The <u>medium communicative potential</u> was the use of fillers (e.g., *Your level that you are being exposed to, too many you know like ideas and concepts, you know too much information.* –T2), use of all-purpose words (e.g., *He had he made a lot of documentaries, especially on the oceans, seas, underseas, falan* [TR. and so on], lots of documents documentaries – T2) and code-switching.

More communicative potential DSs included six moves such as comprehension checks, self-paraphrasing (e.g., When I say three, you could put fourth, fifth, sixth. There is no limit, OK. But I say three times doesn't mean the only three types exist in the world, OK. ··· So there is no end. – T6) and restructuring, among others.

Further details and sample excerpts are provided in the Data Analysis section.

Building on previous literature (e.g., Sánchez-García, 2019), this study examines the discourse strategies (and their communicative potential) employed by lecturers in the Turkish EMI context.

3. Methodology

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

3.1. Context of the Study

Five universities offering EMI programs constituted the locus of data collection in this study. Of these five universities, U1, U2, and U3 were state universities while U4 and U5 were foundation universities. The number of EMI programs and international students varied depending on the university. However, on average, 35% of all programs were offered in English and 8% of the students came from various countries across the world; this made the provision of EMI essential as most of those students didn't speak Turkish. Different forms of EMI (i.e., full and partial) were available in U1, U3, and U4. U5 offered only partial EMI programs in which 30% of the courses were taught through English. U2 delivered all degree programs in (full) EMI. In the Turkish context, a 'full' EMI

program refers to an academic program of study where all courses are offered in English (only) and all teaching and assessment practices are carried out in English (only). On the other hand, partial EMI programs offer a minimum of 30% of their courses in English, and the remaining 70% of the courses are delivered in Turkish. Detailed information about the universities in this study is provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Information about the sample universities

Universities	Type (*)	Status (**)	Size (***)	EMI Type
U1	State	Public	Big	Both full and
				partial
U2	State	Public	Big	Full only
U3	State	Public	Big	Both full and
				partial
U4	Foundation	Elite	Small	Both full and
				partial
U5	Foundation	Elite	Small	Partial only

3.2. Participants

Various roles in classroom discourse are attributed to teachers such as: taking control of the communication patterns (Johnson, 1995), controlling the content (Slimani,

^{*}Type: according to funding, **Status: according to the student admissions, ***Size: small: fewer than 10.000 students, medium-sized: between 10.001 and 29.999, big: more than 30.000 students.

1989) and promoting or restraining learning opportunities (Walsh, 2002). EMI lecturers were therefore chosen as the focus of the current study to gain greater insight into EMI classroom discourse. The sample was selected utilizing convenience and purposive sampling (Mackey & Gass, 2012). To illustrate, participants with different teaching backgrounds were chosen from both state and foundation universities, to which the researchers had access. Also, the data were collected from different disciplines (i.e., hard vs. soft sciences (Dafouz, Camacho & Urquia, 2014)) and different educational levels (i.e., undergraduate vs. graduate) to obtain a comprehensive overview of EMI provision. However, it is worth noting that this study did not primarily aim to investigate the role of the type of university, discipline, level of education, and teacher experience in the investigation of discourse strategies. These are therefore possible avenues for future research. The background information of lecturers is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Participants' background information

Name	Title	Teaching	EMI	University	Earning a	Receiving
		experience	experience		degree	EMI
					abroad	training
T1	Full Prof.	19 years	18 years	U4 (Found.)	PhD	No
T2	Full Prof.	30 years	20 years	U4 (Found.)	PhD	No
Т3	Full Prof.	19 years	12 years	U5 (State)	PhD	No
T4	Assoc.	12 years	5 years	U5 (State)	Master	No
	Prof.				and PhD	
T5	Asst. Prof.	9 years	9 years	U2 (State)	PhD	No

Т6	Asst. Prof.	23 years	2 years	U1 (State)	Master	No
					and PhD	
Т7	Asst. Prof.	6 years	6 years	U3 (Found.)	PhD	No

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Table 3.

3.3. Data Collection

Non-participant observation was used as the main data collection procedure in this study in order to not alter/interfere/affect EMI teaching/learning in any way (Curdt-Christiansen, 2020). After obtaining all the necessary ethical and legal permissions from each university, as well as getting written consent from all participants, university lectures were recorded. Field notes were taken by the first author during observation. These helped the researchers familiarize themselves with the characteristics of each participant's spoken discourse and contextualize classroom talk during transcription. Data obtained from field notes were not analyzed in this study due to space limitations but facilitated the rigorous transcription and contextualization processes. After the observations, a structured interview (see Appendix A for interview protocol) was conducted with the lecturers to gain further background information (refer back to Table 2 for participant details). The recorded lectures analyzed in this study were delivered in the middle of the fall semester, in the 2019-2020 academic year. This was to ensure that by that point in the academic year both lecturers and students had had some experience and were familiar with teaching/learning through EMI. With the recordings of seven EMI lectures, a small corpus of EMI language was built. The details of the corpus collected are presented in

Table 3. Features of the corpus collected

Name	Course and educational level	Minutes	Words	Words per minute	Number of DS	Number of DS
	taught				type	uses
T1	Ideology and Discourse Analysis (Graduate)	102	12.027	117	17	1.138
T2	Sociology of Everyday life (Graduate)	104	14.104	135	21	1.592
Т3	Differential Equations and Applications (Undergraduate)	132	11.220	85	21	921
Т4	Scientific Research Methods (Graduate)	81	9.459	116	19	783
T5	Research Methods in Education (Graduate)	157	17.602	112	20	948
Т6	Introduction to Geomatics Engineering (Undergraduate)	88	9.253	105	21	387
Т7	History of Political Thought (Undergraduate)	110	11.698	106	22	548
Total		774	85.363	110 (avg.)	24	6.321

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3.4. Data Analysis

Corpus-based analysis and thematic analysis were the two main methods utilized to identify, analyze, organize, and describe discourse strategies (DSs) exhibited by EMI lecturers. Corpus-based analysis was applied through frequency counts and percentages. Since this method did not provide the finer details of the content of this classroom discourse, thematic analysis was employed to explore the uses, functions, and communicative potential of the DS occurrences. To ensure the validity of coding, six phases of thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006) were followed. This analytic framework includes: (a) familiarization with the data, (b) generating initial codes, (c) searching for themes, (d) reviewing themes, (e) defining and naming themes, (f) producing the report. The data were transcribed using basic transcription conventions as the main aim of this study was not to analyze the non-verbal aspects in the classroom (e.g., facial expressions and gestures) or prosodic features (e.g., pitch, accent, etc.) except for the intonation of language use. The transcribed data were coded according to Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) inventory list of strategic language devices which was later elaborated by Sánchez-García (2019). The taxonomy used in this study is presented in Table 4. Reliability of the coding was obtained by researcher triangulation. A teacherresearcher with an MA degree in English language teaching coded 10% of the DS instances as an external reviewer. The consistency percentage was 94%, 98%, and 97% for the strategies that have less, medium, and more communicative potential, respectively.

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Table 4. *Dörnyei and Scott's (1997, p. 188-192) adapted inventory of strategic language devices.*

Commonly used	Definition	All examples are taken from the
discourse		current corpus
strategies		

A. Less Comm	unicative Potential	
1. Omission	Leaving a sentence unfinished when not knowing a word	I mean, let's take a look at also . None of the other answer is actually make sense because it says that time of the day.
B. Medium Co	mmunicative Potential	
2. Use of fillers	Using gambits to fill pauses	But that's OK. You know , you can take, you know , a week off.
4. Use of all purpose-words	Extending the context when specific words are lacking	Any identity becomes possible at the moment when we sort of prevent things or negate things .
4. Code-switching	Including L1 words with L1 pronunciation in L2 speech	So that's a very good survey research, nüfus sayımı , the census.
C. More Comm	nunicative potential	
5. Comprehension check	Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you	There are not big cities in Europe in this period. The big cities, the real urban places, where do they exist in this period?
6. Self-rephrasing	Repeating a term by adding something or using a paraphrase	It can be reinterpreted , redefined , reconstructed always over time.
7. Restructuring	Leaving the utterance unfinished to continue with an alternative plan or modify it to provide further elaboration	You will be once you're done with your courses, you'll be presenting your research proposals here you know in 4 th semester.
8. Retrieval	Saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms to retrieve a lexical item	If this is constant is just goes out the err goes out of the integral.

9. Self-repair	Making self-initiated	There were there was a kind
	corrections in one's	of development of the rules, but
	own speech	they change.
10. Self-repetition	Repeating a word or a	Both two dimensional, right?
	string of words	Two dimensional.
11. Other-	Repeating something	S: We're experiencing catharsis.
repetition	the interlocutor said	T: Catharsis , right.

4. Results

4.1. The Most Common Discourse Strategies (RQ1)

To answer the first research question, a corpus-based linguistic analysis was utilized to examine frequency counts. The results revealed that a wide range of discourse strategies was utilized in the delivery of academic content through English. In total, 24 strategy types and 6.321 strategy uses were identified in the spoken discourse of the EMI lecturers. Although all lecturers employed similar strategies during their lectures, evidence of prioritizing certain strategies over others was present. Correspondingly, the incidences and frequencies of the DS types varied greatly in lecturer language. Nevertheless, one of the DSs was particularly favored by almost all the lecturers, this was the use of fillers. This DS constituted more than one-third of the DSs identified in the corpus. Figure 1 demonstrates the number of discourse strategies used, ranked from the most frequent to the least frequent. These are: $use\ of\ fillers\ (n=2.654)$, $self-rephrasing\ (n=646)$, $code-switching\ (n=602)$, $repetition\ (n=579)$, $use\ of\ all-purpose\ words\ (n=460)$, $retrieval\ (n=324)$, $repair\ (n=267)$, $response\ (n=220)$, $restructuring\ (n=119)$, $comprehension\ check\ (n=109)$, $omission\ (n=70)$, $approximation\ (n=38)$, $message\ abandonment\ (n=37)$, $asking\ for\ repetition\ (n=35)$,

appeal for help (n = 32), asking for clarification (n = 25), foreignizing (n = 22), circumlocution (n = 21), similar-sounding words (n = 16) asking for confirmation (n = 13), literal translation (n = 12), word coinage (n = 12), interpretive summary (n = 4), own accuracy check (n = 4).

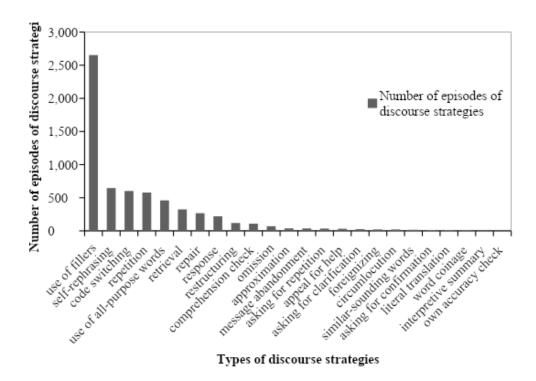


Figure 1. Types and number of discourse strategy use

Since the different strategies require various formulations of language (i.e., at the word-level, phrase-level, and clause-level), the number of words required to utter the strategies also varied. The frequency percentages of the DSs were therefore also calculated based on the strategy occurrences per 1000 words. It was found that the lecturers uttered 254 words to exhibit strategic language behaviors every 1000 words. This reiterated the finding of the pervasiveness of DS use in EMI lecturers' spoken discourse.

4.2. The Use and Function of the Strategies Used (RQ2)

When the strategies employed were examined following their use and function using thematic analysis, it became evident that one strategy would offer plenty of functions, while one function was also enacted using numerous strategy types. The uses and functions of the DSs that each lecturer opted for therefore varied widely. Nevertheless, three primary uses emerged from the analysis: (i) abandoning the linguistic plan, (ii) narrowing or extending the meaning with an alternative plan, and (iii) fulfilling the initial plan successfully. An example of each use is provided below in Excerpts 1, 2, and 3 respectively.

Excerpt 1

Abandoning the linguistic plan

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

Excerpt 2

Narrowing or extending the meaning

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

307 Excerpt 3

Fulfilling the initial plan successfully

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

As the excerpts presented above suggest, the lecturers were inclined to employ such strategies when they encountered language-related challenges. For example, in Excerpt 1, T1 left his utterance unfinished while explaining the significance of interviews in that discipline. Nevertheless, it can be inferred that language-related difficulties such as lexical retrieval may be the underlying cause that let to dropping the message. In Excerpt 2, T2 could not retrieve the word he was seeking. When he realized this, he continued with an alternative lexical item. This suggests that the target meaning may have been narrowed or extended through the use of an alternate word. In Excerpt 3, T5 prominently faced obstacles regarding the retrieval of a word or phrase. She thus used a filler to gain time to accommodate her thinking process. When she realized that she could not compensate for this linguistic barrier in her discourse, she abandoned the initial linguistic pattern to then go on to restructure the sentence. It can therefore be concluded that the DSs functioned as a manner of coping with linguistic/fluency issues.

There were numerous occurrences of strategies being utilized to boost the effectiveness of content delivery. Specifically, repetition, self-rephrasing, and confirmation checks were frequently used to enhance students' comprehension. This indicates that the employment of DSs in these EMI classes went beyond simply compensating for a lack of proficiency. An example of this is given in Excerpt 4. In this excerpt, T6 uses multiple DSs to help her students comprehend the topic and thereby enhancing their learning.

Excerpt 4.

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133	Т6	I'm protecting my ideas to classroom. That's also called
protection.		OK. What about in Turkish? What is protection in
Turkish? Doe		es anyone know?
133	S1	Yansıtma (<i>reflection</i>)
134 the	Т6	Hmm reflection but quite close. What else? You're not far from truth. But still there is exact definition of projection in Turkish.
135	S6	İzdişüm (<i>projection</i>)
136	Т6	Exactly. In Turkish it's called izdüşüm (<i>projection</i>).

Besides the abovementioned functions, other discourse strategy types were found to be frequently employed for various purposes. These DSs are presented in Table 5 alongside the functions they served in the lecturers' spoken discourse.

Table 5. Multifunctional Discourse Strategy types and the functions they serve

DS Type	The Function
1. Use of fillers	Stalling for time
	 Signposting the speech
	 Maintaining the communication channel open
	 Planning the following speech
	 Showing hesitation
2. Self-rephrasing	 Highlighting the important points of the content

	 Providing a second chance for the ones who could not understand
	 Providing wait-time for students
3. Code-switching	 Filling the pauses in the speech
	 Compensating for lacking an L2 lexical item
	 Explaining concepts distinct to Turkish culture
	 Labelling terms in Turkish
	Having non-instructional conversation
	Getting students' attention
4a. Self-repetition	 Highlighting the key concepts
	 Continuing the lecture after being interrupted
	Silencing the class
	Checking own accuracy
	Stalling for time
4b. Other-repetition	 Confirmation device
	 Enabling the class to hear the student's response
5. Use of all-purpose words	 Compensating for the lexical items not recalled
	Furthering examples
6. Retrieval	Recalling the target lexical item
	Forming the rest of the sentence
7. Restructuring	Self-correction

4.3. Communicative Potential of Discourse Strategies used by EMI Lectures(RQ3)

Having established that certain discourse strategies enhanced communication in the classroom (see RQ2), the DSs used by lecturers were then analyzed based on the extent to which they serve the communicative goal of the lecturers. Three categories emerged from the data: namely *less, medium,* and *more* communicative potential.

Discourse strategies with less communication potential (e.g., message abandonment and omission) failed to deliver the target message completely or hindered the continuation of the conversation. This took place 141 times in the corpus. The DSs with medium communicative potential (e.g., use of fillers, all-purpose words, similar-sounding words, etc.) were regarded as 'in-between' strategies as the message was delivered successfully, however with the substantial influence of other languages, and/or by extending or severely narrowing the meaning. This communicative category constituted the vast majority of the DSs (3.795 occurrences) in the corpus. The last category, strategies with *more* communicative potential allowed lecturers to recognize the most convenient, straightforward linguistic path forward in order to deliver the intended message completely and coherently. Despite the plenitude of strategy types in this category, these were not the most prevalently utilized strategies in the corpus (i.e., 2.385 occurrences). The frequency of each DS category within the corpus is presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Communicative potential of the discourse strategies used by lecturers

The communicative degree of the	The percentage of	The number of
DSs	the DS category	DS uses
Less communicative potential	02.3%	141
Medium communicative potential	60%	3.795
More communicative potential	37.7%	2.385

5. Discussion

5.1. The Most Commonly Used Discourse Strategies

In relation to the first research question, 24 discourse strategy types and 6.321 strategy uses by seven EMI lecturers were identified in the 13-hour corpus. This implies that teaching distinct academic disciplines through a second language requires a wide range of discourse strategies to be utilized in order to foster comprehension. The frequency of these strategies was also shown to be in accordance with the lecturers' linguistic repertoire. When the number of words that contained DSs was calculated, it was found that around 25% of the spoken corpus was uttered to display discursive strategies. This study, therefore, provides further evidence of the indispensability of DSs in language used by EMI lecturers (Sánchez-García, 2019).

As for the distinctiveness of DSs as found in EMI classroom discourse, our findings were both similar and different from the existing literature. The overall, principal finding revealed that the use of fillers, self-rephrasing, and code-switching are the most used strategies in this corpus. Specifically, filler words were found to be a broadly inclusive

language tool, a finding that is consistent with other studies (e.g., Sánchez-García, 2016; Shartiely, 2013). The finding in relation to code-switching is also in line with results of some previous studies (e.g., Azian et al., 2013; Shartiely, 2013; Zubaidi, 2014), but contradictory to Sánchez-García's (2016) results. This may be attributed to the language policy of the EMI universities from which the data was collected. Furthermore, the instances of self-rephrasing in this study were higher compared to those of other studies. This discrepancy may be related to the fact that self-rephrasing was subsumed into repetition by some scholars in previous data analysis (Azian et al., 2013; Sánchez-García, 2019) as these two strategies are similarly formulated. This highlights a need for further research differentiating these nuances.

5.2. The Uses and Functions of Discourse Strategies Used

The second research question sought to determine the uses and functions of the discourse strategies employed by EMI lecturers. Results demonstrated that DSs were predominantly used to perform two chief functions: (i) to overcome language-related problems and (ii) to foster comprehension (and accordingly, foster communication). Regarding the former, which was the case for most of the strategy occurrences, this study provides evidence of the complex nature of EMI. Teaching through English is not a simple translation of content into English (Macaro et al., 2018), it demands high cognitive and linguistic effort (Hincks, 2010; Sánchez-García, 2016). Despite this, the lecturers stated that they had not received any form of EMI training. Such training would have highlighted to the lecturers these sorts of demands and equipped them with the necessary skills to *deal* with such demands. The significance and necessity of such training in the Turkish EMI context have also been highlighted in previous studies (Genc & Yuksel, 2021).

Regarding the latter function (i.e., the promotion of comprehension), this finding corroborates with the notion proposed by Nakatani and Goh (2007); that the employment of these discourse strategies goes beyond mere compensation for a lack of proficiency. However, it is worth noting that although repetition and self-rephrasing were the most common DSs in this corpus, the total instances of such strategies were *lower* than those of the DSs fulfilling the function of overcoming language issues. This finding differs from Azian et al.'s (2013) and Shartiely's (2013) studies, which found a prevalence of the use of questions, used specifically for comprehension checks. This incongruence in results might be explained by class size as these studies focused on large classes, which may have led to EMI lecturers in those contexts using questions and rephrasing more frequently in order to manage big groups. Nevertheless, this study suggests that the lecturers exhibited great effort to aid students' comprehension of academic content by using DSs. This endeavor also indicates that lecturers' language proficiency shapes content learning as Doiz et al. (2012) claim. Hence, these results provide further support for the pertinence of lecturer training in how to foster content comprehension with the help of the systematic use of meaningful and purposeful Discourse Strategies.

As well as the primary uses and functions of DSs discussed above, various ways of using DSs and motivations for using DSs were identified in this study. Particularly, the functions of code-switching (e.g., facilitating students' understanding, labelling the concept in the native language, coping with lexical problems) was mostly found to be in accordance with previous studies (e.g., Azian et al., 2013; Shartiely, 2013; Zubaidi, 2014; Al Makoshi, 2014; Sánchez-García, 2016; Sahan & Rose, 2021; Macaro et al., 2020). This was a sign that code-switching is a typical feature of the speech of a bilingual speaker rather than a sign of linguistic deficiency (Wei, & Lin, 2019). Furthermore, since codeswitching in this study was found to be a language tool used to equip students with

additional cognitive support, these findings provide further evidence for the notion that L1 use is a scaffolding strategy linked to sociocultural theory (García & Wei, 2014; Sánchez-García, 2016).

5.3. The Communicative Potential of EMI Discourse Strategies

The third research question focused on the degree to which the DSs allowed EMI lecturers achieve their communicative goals in teaching. It was found that 60% of strategy occurrence had *medium* communicative potential. When compared to the study by Sánchez-García (2019), these results are not aligned. Sánchez-García (2019) found these strategies to have *more* communicative potential (68%). This might be because the researcher did not include the use of fillers in this classification, yet filler words/expressions seemed to be paramount, as mentioned above.

Additionally, the scarcity of interactional strategies in this study may stem from the fact that EMI lecturers were the ones who constituted the majority of the classroom discourse (i.e. students rarely spoke). This result confirms findings in studies such as that in Genc and Yuksel (2021), Yip et al. (2007) and Lo and Macaro (2012) regarding the teacher-centeredness in EMI classes.

Finally, code-switching is the other factor that may have decreased the communicative potential of this corpus. As Smit (2019) and Macaro (2020) assert, codeswitching and other similar strategies that occur due to L1 interference (i.e., foreignizing or word coinage) may lose the intended communicative potential when there are students in the classroom who do not share the same linguistic background. This was indeed the case in this study since the majority of the classes (except two in a partial EMI program) included international students. However, this situation was distinctive, especially to the classroom language performance of one lecturer. This indicated that

even though lecturers relied on the same types of strategies, they favored the same DSs in different university grades. Therefore, the communicative potential in their lessons varied.

6. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

Despite the limitations of this research, such as only observing the lessons once and not using a retrospective analysis tool (i.e., stimulated recall; see Airey, 2015), this study has pedagogical implications. First, findings emerging from the analysis of EMI lecturers' spoken discourse imply that it is crucial for EMI lecturers to be conscious of their language use for the sake of EMI achievement (Macaro, 2020). Through language, lecturers are powerful agents in the process of facilitating a student's learning process and therefore content comprehension and acquisition. By adopting more conscious discourse strategies, lecturers can meet the needs of the learning moment as well as create learning opportunities for students (Walsh, 2011).

Findings also showed that EMI lecturers encountered a great deal of linguistic challenges due to a lack of fluency while teaching academic content through English, particularly related to lexis. This study therefore proposes continuing professional development discourse strategy training for EMI lecturers. Learning to use discourse strategies efficiently might lessen lecturer experienced language-related difficulties. Related to this was the finding of a lack of the frequent use of DSs that promote a positive learning environment, due to lecturer linguistics barriers. This study therefore bolsters the argument for the need for further EMI lecturer training which should be aimed at assisting lecturers to make better use of numerous linguistic resources that can help shape and positively enhance their students' learning process (Walsh & Li, 2013). There is therefore a need for further research into the teachability of these

473 discourse strategies in EMI contexts, as well as a measurement of the effectiveness and 474 effect on student learning outcomes of such explicit lecturer training and instruction. Finally, longitudinal studies, tracking strategy use over time, would provide further 475 insight into the long-term effects of explicit discourse strategy use that exploit more 476 477 communicative potential. 478 479 Acknowledgements This work was not funded. 480 Disclosure statement 481 482 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s). 483 REFERENCES 484 Airey, J. (2015). From stimulated recall to disciplinary literacy: Summarizing ten years of 485 486 research into teaching and learning English. In Dimova, S., Hultgren, A., Jensen, C. (Eds.), English-medium instruction in European higher education (pp. 157–176). 487 488 Boston, MA: De Gruyter. Altay, M., Curle, S., Yuksel, D., & Soruç, A. (2022). Investigating academic achievement 489 of English medium instruction courses in Turkey. Studies in Second Language 490 *Learning and Teaching, 12*(1), 117–141. 491 Al Makoshi, M. A. (2014). Discourse markers and code-switching: Academic medical 492 lectures in Saudi Arabia using English as the medium of instruction (Unpublished 493 doctoral dissertation). University of Birmingham, Birmingham. 494 Arik, B. T., & Arik, E. (2014). The role and status of English in Turkish higher education. 495

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677	Appendix A. Structured Interview
678	1. How many years of teaching experience do you have?

2. How long have you been teaching academic content through English? 679 3. Did you receive any of your degrees (e.g., Master's, PhD) abroad? If yes: 680 • Where did you study? 681 • How long did you study there? 682 4. Did you attend any training on teaching through English? If yes: 683 • Was it a pre-service or in-service teacher training program? 684 • Who provided the training? 685 • How long did it take? 686 • Do you think it contributed to your profession? If so, how? 687 688 Did you attend any training on teaching through English? **If no:** 689 Do you think a training program should be provided on how to teach academic 690 content through English? Please elaborate. 691