HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Department of Foreign Language Education

English Language Teaching Program

COMPARING DISCOURSE MARKER USE OF TURKISH EFL LEARNERS: ONE-WAY VS. TWO-WAY TASKS

Mine TAŞ

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2025

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TÜRK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN SÖYLEM BELİRLEYİCİ KULLANIMININ KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI: TEK VE ÇİFT YÖNLÜ AKTİVİTELER

Mine TAŞ

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2025

Acceptance and Approval

To the Graduate School of Educational Sciences,

This thesis, prepared by **MİNE TAŞ** and entitled “Comparing Discourse Marker Use of Turkish EFL Learners: One-way vs. Two-way Tasks” has been approved as a thesis for the Degree of **Master** in the **Program of English Language teaching** in the **Department of Education** by the members of the Examining Committee.

Chair	Prof. Dr. Arif SARIÇOBAN
Member (Supervisor)	Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hatice ERGÜL
Member	Prof. Dr. Hacer Hande UYSAL GÜRDAL

This is to certify that this thesis/dissertation has been approved by the aforementioned examining committee members on 03/01/2025 in accordance with the relevant articles of the Rules and Regulations of Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences, and was accepted as a **Master’s Thesis** in the **Program of English Language Teaching** by the Board of Directors of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences from ...../...../.....

Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı MİRİCİ

Director of Graduate School of Educational Sciences

Abstract

This study investigates the functional use of discourse markers (DMs) by Turkish EFL learners in one-way and two-way information gap tasks. Using a qualitative multiple-case embedded design, data were collected from six task sessions, transcribed verbatim, and analyzed through content analysis based on Brinton's (1996, 2017) framework. The findings reveal that fillers and turn-keepers, particularly "uhh", were the most frequently used DMs across tasks. This usage reflects cognitive overload or the thinking process during task-based interactions, aligning with Müller's (2005) observation that lower-proficiency learners often overuse fillers while developing coherence strategies. Response/reaction markers were the second most common, underscoring their importance in maintaining conversational flow across task types. The marker "okay" emerged as another versatile DM, serving functions such as a response marker, an acknowledgment device, and a turn management tool. In one-way tasks, agreement markers were the second most commonly used, emphasizing their role in affirming understanding within a predominantly one-sided communication flow. In two-way tasks, turn-takers ranked second, reflecting the need to navigate and manage the exchange of turns in an interactive dialogue. Backchanneling signals were also widely used, illustrating the active engagement and mutual feedback essential for collaborative communication. These findings highlight how essential DMs are for facilitating interaction and ensuring effective communication in task-based settings; raising important questions about the role of explicit instruction in the use of DMs and highlighting the need for explicit instruction on DMs in EFL classrooms to enhance learners' pragmatic competence, suggesting further research into strategies that support their effective use.

Keywords: discourse markers, pragmatic competence, information gap tasks, Turkish EFL learners, textual functions, interpersonal functions

Öz

Bu çalışma, Türk İngilizce öğrenicilerinin tek yönlü ve çift yönlü bilgi boşluğu görevlerinde söylem belirteçlerini (SB'ler) hangi işlevlerde kullandıklarını araştırmaktadır. Nitel bir çoklu-vaka yerleşik tasarım kullanılarak, altı görev oturumundan veri toplanmış, yazıya dökülmüş ve Brinton'ın (1996, 2017) çerçevesi kullanılarak içerik analizi yöntemiyle incelenmiştir. Bulgular, özellikle "uhh" gibi duraklama belirteçleri ve söz sırasını sürdürme belirteçlerinin, görevler boyunca en sık kullanılan söylem belirteçleri olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bu durum, görev sırasında bilişsel yük ve düşünme süreçlerini yansıtmakta, Müller'in (2005) düşük dil yeterliliğine sahip öğrenicilerin dolgu sözcüklerini tutarlılık için kullandığı gözlemiyle örtüşmektedir. Tepki/reaksiyon belirteçleri, konuşma akışını sürdürme açısından önemini vurgulayarak, ikinci en yaygın kullanılan belirteçler olmuştur. "okay" belirteci ise tepki belirteci, kabul aracı ve dönüş yönetim aracı gibi çeşitli işlevlerde kullanılan çok yönlü bir SB olarak öne çıkmıştır. Tek yönlü görevlerde, onay belirteçleri en sık kullanılan ikinci unsur olarak yer almıştır ve bu, ağırlıklı olarak tek taraflı bir iletişim akışında anlama onayının önemini vurgulamıştır. Çift yönlü görevlerde ise, söz sırasını yönetmeye yönelik belirteçler ikinci sırada yer almıştır; bu da etkileşimli bir diyaloğun akışını düzenlemenin ve söz alışverişini yönetmenin kritik rolüne işaret eder. Geri bildirim sinyalleri de yaygın olarak kullanılmıştır ve bu, iş birliğine dayalı iletişimde aktif katılımın ve karşılıklı geri bildirimin önemini gösterir. Bulgular, SB'lerin etkileşimi kolaylaştırma ve görev tabanlı bağlamlarda etkili iletişimi sağlamadaki rolünü vurgulamaktadır. SB'lerin doğrudan öğretilmesinin edimbilimsel yeterlik gelişimine katkı sağlayacağı ve bu konudaki stratejilere yönelik daha fazla araştırma gerektiği önerilmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: söylem belirteçleri, bilgi boşluğu görevleri, tek yönlü görevler, çift yönlü görevler, Türk İngilizce öğrencileri

Acknowledgements

I would like to begin by expressing my sincere gratitude to my advisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hatice Ergül, for her guidance and support throughout this research. I am fortunate to have had her as mentor in this study.

I would also like to thank the jury members; Prof. Dr. Arif Sarıçoban and Prof. Dr. Hacer Hande Uysal Gürdal for their thoughtful and constructive feedback on my thesis.

I am indebted to Özlem Khan for her bright mind, her dazzling personality and the energy she brought into every conversation.

A special thanks to dearest Asst. Prof. Dr. Ayça Aslan for her insightful contributions on the tasks implemented in this thesis, and for the kindness with which she shared her expertise.

I am grateful to the individuals who generously shared their time and participated in this study. This research would not have been possible without their willingness to engage.

My heartfelt thanks go to Yiğit and Tilbe, my kindred spirits, whose presence is a constant light. May our paths forever entwine.

Finally, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to someone whose unwavering support has been my constant source of strength throughout this journey; I am forever thankful to Tunay Taş for being endlessly patient, encouraging, and reassuring.

This research was supported by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye (TUBITAK) through the 2210-A Graduate Scholarship Programme.

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Symbols and Abbreviations

DM: Discourse Marker

EFL: English as a foreign language

L2: Second/Foreign language

Chapter 1

Introduction

Effective communication is undeniably one of the core elements of meaningful interaction, whether in social exchanges or within the structure of institutional and educational settings. It allows individuals to connect, share ideas, and navigate the complexities of conversations. For language learners, however, achieving effective communication extends far beyond the mastery of grammar and vocabulary. It involves organizing thoughts clearly, understanding the flow of conversation, and responding appropriately to the subtle cues that guide interactions. This is particularly crucial in second language acquisition, where learners must not only become proficient in grammatical and lexical structures but also need to interpret indirect requests successfully, shift conversational tones, and follow culturally specific norms of politeness (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). Consequently, fostering pragmatic competence in learners entails equipping them with the tools to know when to clarify meaning, when to take a turn in conversation, or how to convey their intents subtly in contexts where they need to show some type of understanding or sensitivity. One such tool in facilitating effective communication is the use of discourse markers.

DMs such as "okay," "well," and "so," help listeners and readers through discourse in both spoken and written communication (Brinton, 1996; Schiffrin, 1987). These markers facilitate smooth conversational flow by signaling shifts in the topic, managing turn-taking, and conveying the intentions of the speaker, all of which are critical for successful interaction. In line with the insights from Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998), the use of discourse markers goes beyond their functional use as mere linguistic tools; it requires learners to understand the social and cultural context of their use, recognize when to apply them to signal shifts in tone or their intention. Thus, mastering DMs in various communicative settings can be useful for enhancing language teaching and learning practices, as they help learners navigate the complexities of spoken and written language while also fostering the pragmatic skills necessary for real-world interaction (Wei & Sun, 2013). DMs help learners enhance their ability

to use language appropriately, supporting clarity, coherence, and the social dynamics of communication (Taguchi, 2011). In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, mastering DMs is essential for managing conversations and improving both comprehension and expression. They are key to developing pragmatic competence, helping learners manage turn-taking, repairing misunderstandings, and creating coherence in conversations.

As Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell (1995) note, pragmatic competence, an essential component of communicative competence, helps learners navigate conversational nuances and achieve cohesion. This ability, however, is not just theoretical; it is honed through practical applications in the classroom. More recently, classroom activities such as information gap tasks have gained prominence for their ability to simulate authentic language use, promote interaction, and help learners engage in meaningful communication (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Long, 1980). In the process, they provide opportunities for the learners to apply their growing pragmatic competence and use discourse markers to manage the flow of conversation and achieve their communicative goals. Tasks can be defined by four key attributes: they prioritize meaning over form, involve a communicative purpose that necessitates active language use, require learners to draw upon their own linguistic and cognitive resources, and aim for a concrete communicative outcome (Ellis, 2003). This contrasts sharply with exercises, which often focus on correct language form through structured activities that do not necessarily require meaningful interaction (Lambert, 2017). While exercises are beneficial for mastering specific language rules, tasks engage learners in authentic communication scenarios, thereby fostering a more holistic and practical language competence (Lambert, 2017). Tasks engage learners in scenarios where language serves a genuine, functional purpose. These activities emphasize meaningful communication over rigid grammatical accuracy, often incorporating a problem-solving element that encourages learners to apply both linguistic knowledge and critical thinking to reach a resolution or form a communicative outcome relevant to real-life situations (Nunan, 2004). This functional approach to language use supports task-based

language teaching (TBLT), which centers on the development of practical language skills through active engagement in authentic contexts (Willis, 1996).

In Türkiye, where English is taught primarily as a foreign language, learners often have limited opportunities for authentic interaction. In this context, structured classroom tasks like information gap activities become essential for practicing meaningful communication. These tasks provide a safe yet challenging environment where learners can develop not only their linguistic abilities but also their pragmatic skills, which are critical for effective communication. The primary objective of this study is to explore the pragmatic functions that DMs serve for Turkish learner of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) who are engaged in one-way and two-way information gap tasks. By identifying and illustrating these functions, this study aims to fill this gap by offering insights into the adaptive communication strategies of EFL learners. The findings of this study may provide useful guidance for developing curricula that support both linguistic and pragmatic competence, helping learners to navigate real-life interactions more effectively.

Statement of the Problem

While the use of DMs was studied extensively within English as a Foreign Language context, focused investigation on how these linguistic elements function in specific interactive settings such as one-way and two-way information gap tasks remain markedly sparse. In these tasks, effective exchange of information is crucial to task completion. In language learning environments, particularly among Turkish EFL learners, the strategic employment of discourse markers can significantly influence the success of communicative tasks, however, studies on the specific role of discourse markers for Turkish EFL learners remain scarce in the current literature. The multifunctionality of DMs, a characteristic widely acknowledged in the literature (Aijmer, 2002; Brinton, 1996), allows a single structure to serve various communicative roles. Schleef (2008) highlights that even identical DMs can perform different functions depending on the interactional context. House (2013, p. 58) expands on this idea, he suggests that the versatility of DMs enables speakers to “achieve a maximum of interactional functions with a

minimum of linguistic and cognitive effort across diverse interactional positions." While native speakers intuitively understand the subtle nuances of DMs and use them fluidly across different contexts, L2 learners lack the exposure necessary to understand and appropriately use these markers. In EFL classrooms, where learners often face limited exposure to authentic, spontaneous English, recognizing and harnessing the multifunctionality of DMs becomes essential. The role of discourse markers in facilitating coherent and fluid communication in EFL settings demands a more focused examination. Discourse markers are crucial in structuring discourse and clarifying speaker intentions, their use by EFL learners often diverges from native-speaker norms, potentially impacting the effectiveness of communication in academic and real-world settings (Ali & Mahadin, 2016; Martínez, 2002).

This can manifest in both underuse and misuse of discourse markers, which may lead to problems in communication and cause misinterpretations. By integrating DMs purposefully into their classroom activities, language instructors can provide learners with pragmatic tools that foster a more nuanced understanding of spoken English, bridging the gap between formal instruction and the dynamic nature of real-life communication. One-way tasks, where learners articulate information without immediate feedback, and two-way tasks, which involve negotiation and reciprocal information exchange, present unique communicative demands that may influence the use of DMs. Understanding how discourse markers are used in varied task settings is important, as it relates to the success of communicative tasks and the development of communicative competence of EFL learners. Current research has not adequately examined how discourse markers function within different task settings, nor has it sufficiently explored teaching strategies that support effective learner performance and interaction in these tasks. Despite their importance, DMs have not been thoroughly explored in task-based settings, particularly in information-gap tasks where learners face distinct communicative challenges. This study seeks to address these gaps by illustrating the use of discourse markers among Turkish EFL learners across varied task settings, one-way and two-way information gap tasks, aiming to provide insights that inform teaching practices and support successful learner outcomes in EFL programs.

Aim and Significance of the Study

This study aims to address the gap in the literature by investigating the multifaceted functions of DMs used by Turkish EFL learners during one-way and two-way information gap tasks. Through this focused examination, the study aims to illustrate how learners navigate the subtle and complex dynamics of communication by utilizing DMs in these specific task settings. The aim of this study is not to explore the more subtle aspects of pragmatics, such as underlying meanings, but to examine the explicit, organizational, and relational roles of functions of discourse markers in task-based interactions. It investigates how these markers organize conversation, manage information flow, and facilitate the social dynamics between speakers in collaborative tasks. Specifically, the findings may help develop instructional strategies that improve their ability to manage conversation, structure discourse, and enhance coherence and fluency in communication which are key components of successful interaction. Recognizing such patterns would not only assist in refining teaching approaches but also help instructors support learners in becoming more self-aware communicators. This includes developing their ability to participate more effectively in communicative settings. The findings could guide the development of tasks aimed at teaching the appropriate use of discourse markers in various contexts, thereby enhancing their pragmatic competence.

Another key dimension of this study involves addressing the recurring patterns of misuse or overuse of discourse markers observed in EFL learners. Identifying these patterns may help educators recognize and rectify limited pragmatic awareness, equipping learners with a more versatile set of communication skills. This study may offer useful insights into how instructors would benefit from incorporating discourse markers into classroom activities, helping to support learner autonomy.

Finally, this study seeks to contribute to our understanding of discourse markers within task-based language learning contexts. By specifically analyzing the functions of DMs in one-way and two-way information gap tasks, the study will offer new perspectives on how learners utilize these markers to organize conversation, maintain coherence, and navigate the

complexities of interaction. The findings are expected to offer new insights into how learners use discourse markers to manage conversation and maintain fluency within specific communicative tasks. By doing so, the research aims to bridge the gap between theoretical understanding and practical application of DMs in interaction, offering useful strategies for instructors seeking to enhance the conversational abilities of EFL learners.

Research Questions

This study seeks to illustrate how Turkish EFL learners use DMs in one-way and two-way information gap tasks. The primary aim is to better understand the pragmatic functions of DMs during task-based interactions. By examining these markers in this context, this study hopes to shed light on how learners utilize them to structure their speech, improve comprehension, and achieve communicative goals more effectively. With these goals in mind, the study is guided by the following research questions:

Q1: What specific functions do discourse markers serve in facilitating communication for Turkish EFL learners in one-way information gap tasks?

Q2: What specific functions do discourse markers serve in facilitating communication for Turkish EFL learners in two-way information gap tasks?

Assumptions

This study assumes that Turkish EFL learners possess varying levels of proficiency in their use of discourse markers. Additionally, it assumes that learners' adaptability in employing discourse markers may differ based on the communication context and task type. For example, one-way information gap tasks might lead to more structured uses of these markers, while two-way tasks require more dynamic and responsive usage to manage real-time interactions. The assumption here is that learners' choices and applications of discourse markers are strategically aligned with the communicative demands of the task, which in turn influences the effectiveness and coherence of their language use. Furthermore, it is assumed that learners' ability to use discourse markers reflects their evolving pragmatic competence. It is assumed

that Turkish EFL learners, like many second language learners, face challenges in using discourse markers correctly and also it is assumed that misuses or inconsistencies learners make while using discourse markers might indicate gaps in their understanding of the functional role of DMs, potentially pointing to areas for targeted pedagogical intervention.

Limitations

The findings of this study, based on a sample size of two university students, may not be generalizable to all Turkish EFL learners. The use of specific task types, such as one-way and two-way information gap tasks, while beneficial for detailed analysis, also poses a limitation. These tasks are designed to elicit certain types of linguistic behavior, which might not comprehensively capture the full range of discourse marker usage in more varied or real-life settings. Although multiple task types were employed to mitigate this issue, the findings are still bound to the context of the specific tasks used. This study involved participants whose native language is Turkish, conducting the research within a specific cultural and academic environment. Consequently, the results may not be directly applicable to learners from other linguistic backgrounds or educational systems. Given the exploratory nature of this study, it was aimed to provide in-depth insights rather than definitive conclusions about the use of discourse markers. The study was designed to investigate the application of discourse markers in controlled task settings, which might not entirely reflect their usage in less structured, everyday communication. This research utilized Brinton's framework (1996,2017) of pragmatic functions of discourse markers to categorize and analyze the data. While Brinton's model is robust and well-regarded, discourse markers do not have a single universally agreed-upon function, and other frameworks might categorize and interpret their use differently. The choice to use Brinton's framework provides a specific lens for analysis but may overlook aspects that other theoretical models might capture.

Definitions

Task: Task is an activity where the primary focus is on meaning, requiring learners to use their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources to achieve a communicative outcome.

Tasks typically include a gap that promotes interaction and information exchange, assessed by whether the communicative goal is met rather than accuracy (Ellis & Shintani, 2014).

Information Gap Task: Nunan (1989) defines information-gap tasks as activities that involve "a transfer of given information from one person to another or from one form to another, or from one place to another." These tasks encourage communication as participants work to fill gaps in their information through interaction.

One-Way Information Gap Task: A one-way information gap task is a structured language learning activity designed to encourage authentic communication. In this task, only one participant possesses specific information that the other participants need to complete the activity, resulting in a one-way flow of information. This supports the development of listening, comprehension, and interpretive skills, as one participant describes, explains, or instructs while others listen, and act based on the given information (Doughty & Pica, 1986).

Two-Way Information Gap Task: A two-way information gap task involves an exchange of information among all participants, each holding unique pieces of information that others need to solve a common problem. This setup requires mutual sharing, as every participant contributes information unknown to others. This definition follows Long's (1980) concept of information gap tasks that depend on collaborative information sharing for task completion (Long, 1980).

Discourse Marker: A discourse marker is a word or phrase that organizes communication, signaling relationships between ideas, managing conversation flow, and guiding listener comprehension. Discourse markers as "sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk," According to Brinton, these markers establish boundaries in discourse, enhancing coherence, aiding in turn-taking, and clarifying interpersonal relationships between speakers. (Brinton, 1996)

Pragmatic Competence: Pragmatic competence is the ability to use language effectively and appropriately in social contexts to achieve successful communication. This competence involves understanding situational cues, adhering to social norms, and conveying intended meanings that go beyond the literal interpretation of words. Pragmatic competence

is essential for avoiding misunderstandings and fostering successful interactions across different social contexts (Thomas,1983).

Discourse Competence: Discourse competence can be defined as the ability to produce and recognize coherent and cohesive texts in both spoken and written forms. It encompasses the skills needed to organize ideas logically, connect sentences smoothly, and employ various linguistic strategies to ensure unity in communication (Bachman, 1990).

Chapter 2

Theoretical Basis of Research and Literature Review

To fully understand the rationale behind the study, one must first consider the role of discourse markers in communication, they might be small, sometimes meaningless, particles, but they have a substantial power to guide conversation and shape meaning. In this chapter, first, we begin by addressing the terminology surrounding discourse markers. What role do they play beyond mere conversation fillers? How do they contribute to the flow and pragmatics of interaction? We walk through multiple perspectives on what constitutes a discourse marker, and the range of functions they serve. While the terminology may differ, these definitions collectively emphasize the importance of DMs in structuring discourse and signaling speaker intentions. Secondly, we explore how DMs contribute to the development of pragmatic competence of EFL learners and how DMs help learners to navigate socially and contextually appropriate communication. Building on this, the chapter proceeds to discuss the definitions and characteristics of information gap tasks, widely used tools in language learning. These tasks, which encourage interaction and negotiation of meaning, provide the ideal context for exploring how discourse markers function in interactive communication as they provide context for the use of DMs. Finally, this review identifies the gaps in existing literature, particularly emphasizing the need for further research into the use of discourse markers in interactive, task-based settings.

Discourse Markers: Definitions and Theoretical Perspectives

What makes a conversation feel natural, flowing effortlessly from one speaker to the next? In any dialogue, it is not just the content of what is said that matters, but the invisible threads connecting those words: discourse markers. In everyday exchanges words like "well," "so," or "you know" are used without a second thought. Yet, these small elements known as discourse markers play a key role in communication. Discourse markers have been an important area of study in linguistics, particularly within pragmatics and discourse analysis, because of how they help manage conversation, shift topics, and manage interaction between

speakers. There are a variety of terms used to label these linguistic units, including “pragmatic particle” (Östman, 1982), “discourse marker” (Schiffrin, 1987), “phatic connective” (Bazzanella, 1990), “discourse connective” (Blakemore, 1992), “operator,” “cue phrase” (Knott & Dale, 1994) as outlined by Fraser (1999). Later terms include “discourse particle” (Aijmer, 2002; Furkó, 2008), and “pragmatic marker” (Anderson, 2001; Brinton, 1996). This study will address them as discourse markers, as they play a key role in guiding the structure of communication by linking ideas, managing conversational turns, and clarifying the speaker’s intent in communicative contexts. Whether they are referred to as discourse markers, connectives, or cue phrases, these expressions share a common function: they signal relationships between different segments of discourse. This term is considered appropriate as it encapsulates their role in linking ideas, managing conversational turns, and clarifying the speaker’s intent in both spoken and written communication. By adopting this label, the study acknowledges the multifunctionality of these markers in maintaining coherence and facilitating the smooth flow of discourse.

Scholars like Schiffrin (1987) laid the foundation for a deeper understanding of how these markers shape both spoken and written discourse. Discourse markers are not just for signaling connections between segments but also for managing the flow of conversation and ensuring coherence. They are essential in helping speakers take turns, showing understanding, and maintaining coherence. In doing so they significantly influence how information is processed and understood during interaction. Defining discourse markers has been a topic of considerable debate. Discourse markers (DMs) are linguistic elements that function to structure discourse, guide interaction, and manage the flow of conversation. Schiffrin (1987, p. 31) initially described DMs as "sequentially dependent elements that bracket units of talk" which highlighted their role in organizing discourse. This definition has been foundational, although it primarily applies to spoken language, where sequentially and immediacy are more pronounced. DMs signal relationships between segments of talk or text, assisting in coherence and comprehension. They act like signposts, showing how different parts of speech or writing are connected. For example, markers like "well," "but," "so," and

"and" can indicate shifts in topics, responses, or explanations (Schiffrin 1987). According to Schiffrin (1987), DMs not only manage the content of the conversation but also help with interaction between speakers. They often appear at the beginning of sentences and are flexible, operating on different levels of conversation; from small exchanges to more extended dialogue. They are essential for signaling connections between different parts of a conversation and managing the flow.

Discourse markers (DMs) are words or phrases used in speech or writing to help listeners or readers understand the connections between different parts of the conversation or text. As Fraser (1999) explains, DMs are typically conjunctions (like "and," "but"), adverbs ("however," "then"), or prepositional phrases ("in fact," "after all"). These markers don't change the actual content of what's being communicated but play an important role in guiding how different segments of the conversation or text relate to each other. Fraser (1999) emphasizes that DMs provide procedural meaning, helping the listener or reader navigate the conversation or text by showing how one part connects with what came before. They signal relationships, such as a shift in topic, an explanation, or a contrast. Importantly, the exact meaning of a DM depends on the context in which it's used, both in terms of language and the surrounding conversation or text. Thus, while DMs do not add new information, they help make the flow of communication smoother and more coherent (Fraser, 1999).

Blakemore (2002) describes DMs as pragmatic markers that signal the relationship between discourse segments, emphasizing that DMs play a crucial role in both semantics and pragmatics by linking discourse and influencing inferential processes in communication. They contribute to coherence by marking transitions or connections between different parts of discourse. Rather than being used to determine whether a statement is true or false, discourse markers help guide how we understand and connect different parts of a conversation. Their role is more about helping listeners follow the flow of communication, rather than contributing to the facts or truth of what is being said.

DMs play a guiding role, helping the listener process the connection between sentences or ideas. Once we understand what discourse markers are in a general sense, it's

helpful to look at how these elements have been theoretically approached by the field. Schiffrin (1987) for instance, considers discourse markers as fundamental in maintaining coherence within conversations. According to her, discourse markers not only serve as tools that organize the structure of the discourse but also can be used to manage the interaction between speakers. These markers operate on various levels: they facilitate the exchange of ideas, manage speaker participation, and shape the listener's engagement. In her influential work, Schriffrin (1987) emphasizes the central role the discourse markers have in establishing coherence and structure in discourse. The idea is that these markers do more than just fill the space in the conversation, such as dividing conversation into segments, framing ideas, and linking different conversational turns.

Building on the understanding of discourse markers' role in maintaining coherence as presented by Schiffrin (1987), earlier foundational work by Halliday and Hasan (1976) introduced the concept of 'cohesive devices.' While Schiffrin focused on spoken interactions, Halliday and Hasan examined how these elements function in written texts to create cohesion. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) discourse markers work by connecting larger chunks of discourse, like clauses and sentences. By doing so, they create coherence between sentences and ideas, which helps make the overall flow of conversation or text feel more connected. These cohesive devices include conjunctions such as "and, "but", and "so". What they do is to show relationships between ideas, for instance, addition, contrast, or cause, which makes the conversation more logical and easier to follow. Although this concept by Halliday and Hasan was mainly on written text, it can be said that the same idea also works for spoken language. This concept of cohesive devices is similar to what we now call discourse markers. Essentially these markers help us navigate the connections in both spoken and written contexts. They act as signals for how a part of a conversation connects to the next, helping to maintain cohesion and keep things clear (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Expanding on this, Fraser (1999) emphasized the role of discourse markers in both cohesion and coherence, particularly in spoken language. Fraser stated that discourse markers are pragmatic devices that signal the relationship between the current utterance and

the prior discourse. He classified these markers according to their pragmatic functions, such as adding detail, highlighting differences, and indicating a cause-and-effect relationship (elaborative, contrastive inferential). For instance, discourse markers like “so” and “then” organize the sequence of discourse and signal logical relationships, such as cause-effect or contrast (Fraser,1999). While Fraser provided a pragmatic classification of discourse markers, Schiffrin (1987) looked into how these markers guide listeners' interpretations. Schiffrin (1987) explains that discourse markers help guide the listener's interpretation by selecting a particular meaning from the range of possibilities in the conversation, this idea is closely related to Relevance Theory, which suggests that the form of a sentence or utterance (i.e., its propositional representations) offers multiple possible meanings. The listener’s job is to find the interpretation that fits best within the context (Blakemore, 1992; Sperber & Wilson, 1986).

Blakemore (1992) argues that discourse markers, or connectives, play a key role in this by narrowing down those possible interpretations. She suggests they provide "instructions" for processing these meanings, which she calls "procedural meaning." This procedural function shows how discourse markers help the listener process information more efficiently, reducing ambiguity in conversation (Müller, 2005). Furthermore, Blakemore’s Relevance Theory (1992) suggests that discourse markers help minimize cognitive effort by guiding the listener’s interpretation of discourse and focuses on how discourse markers guide interpretation and reduce ambiguity. On the other hand, Aijmer (2002) looks more at their role in managing the flow of conversation. Aijmer (2002) sees these markers as particles that help with hesitation, turn-taking, and interaction management, making the conversation smoother. In spoken language, they often act as fillers, signal pauses, or show politeness, helping speakers navigate through the interaction more effectively.

To conclude, the theoretical perspectives provided by scholars such as Halliday and Hasan (1976), Schiffrin (1987), Fraser (1999), Blakemore (1992), Aijmer (2002), Fung and Carter (2005), and Buysse (2010) collectively highlight the multifaceted role of discourse markers in both spoken and written communication. These markers are essential tools for creating coherence, managing interactions, guiding listener interpretations, and facilitating the

flow of conversation. By connecting ideas, signaling relationships, and aiding in the processing of information, discourse markers enhance the clarity and effectiveness of communication. Moreover, scholars like Fraser and Blakemore agree that discourse markers are primarily concerned with managing communication between the speaker and listener, focusing on interaction rather than just content. Fung and Carter (2007), along with Aijmer (2002) and Buysse (2010), emphasize the importance of both textual and interpersonal functions of discourse markers. This underscores their dual role in not only structuring discourse but also in managing interpersonal relations and ensuring smooth conversational exchanges. Reflecting on these theories, it becomes evident that discourse markers are not merely linguistic fillers but play a crucial role in the pragmatics of language use. They serve as navigational aids within discourse, helping speakers and listeners negotiate meaning and maintain the structure of interaction. Understanding the various functions and classifications of discourse markers enriches our appreciation of how language operates on both structural and interpersonal levels.

Müller (2005) discusses the central role and multifunctionality of pragmatic markers in communication, synthesizing earlier foundational work. She references Erman (2001, p. 1338), who emphasizes that “the importance and multifunctionality of pragmatic markers in everyday conversation is not a controversial issue.” Similarly, Müller highlights Aijmer’s (2002, p.3) observation that “discourse particles are different from ordinary words in the language because of the large number of pragmatic values that they can be associated with,” and Aijmer’s (1996, p. 210) description of discourse markers as “cues or guides to the hearer’s interpretation.”

Müller (2005) also identifies two dominant theoretical frameworks for understanding discourse markers: (1) coherence-based approaches and (2) Relevance Theory. Coherence-based approaches, as described by Risselada and Spooren (1998), focus on textual functions (e.g., Schiffrin, 1985; Holmes, 1986; Redeker, 1990), while Relevance Theory emphasizes cognitive processes (e.g., Sperber & Wilson, 1986; Blakemore, 1992). Integrating these perspectives, Müller highlights Schiffrin’s (1987, p. 318) assertion that discourse markers “select a meaning relation from whatever potential meanings are provided through the content

of the talk and display that relation." This aligns with Blakemore's (1992, p. 150) concept of "encoding procedural meaning," where discourse markers guide listeners in processing propositional representations efficiently.

The multifunctionality also has been referred to as a noteworthy feature of DMs (Aijmer, 2002; Brinton, 1996). Brinton (1996,2017) elaborates on this complexity, observing that "DMs may be multifunctional, operating on the local (i.e., morphophonemic, syntactic, and semantic) and global (i.e., pragmatic) levels simultaneously, as well as on different planes (i.e., textual and interpersonal) within the pragmatic component." In the same vein, Aijmer (2002) states that "DMs are different from ordinary words in the language because of a large number of pragmatic values that they can associate with". For native speakers, these markers carry intuitive significance, enabling them to navigate the subtleties of discourse almost effortlessly. Yet this fluency often eludes L2 learners, who rarely encounter DMs with enough consistency to grasp their full functional range. Researchers like Hays (1992) and Hellermann and Vergun (2007) have noted that DMs have frequently been overlooked in both curricula and classroom instruction. Consequences of this could include misuse or absence of appropriate DMs and this may cause L2 speakers to sound unfriendly or awkward (Aijmer, 2011). It is widely acknowledged that DMs function as intricate linguistic resources, quietly orchestrating the nuances of interaction. Yet, as Müller (2005) notes, these markers remain underexplored in language acquisition studies, despite their crucial role in the organization and flow of native speaker discourse. This oversight demonstrates the need for further studies that investigate the diverse, multifunctional roles DMs play within interactive spoken contexts. Given the multifaceted roles that discourse markers play, selecting an appropriate framework for their analysis is essential.

In this study, Brinton's (1996) inventory of discourse markers and their functions was chosen as the basis to explore their use in one-way and two-way information gap tasks. Brinton's framework is particularly suitable because it offers a comprehensive categorization that encompasses both textual and interpersonal functions. This categorization provides a comprehensive inventory of discourse marker functions, and it serves as the foundation for

this study's examination of DM use in one-way and two-way information gap tasks. It provides practical criteria for identifying and analyzing discourse markers within varied communicative contexts. The next section will focus on Brinton's (1996) functions of DMs providing a framework through which the pragmatic roles of DMs can be explored.

Brinton's Pragmatic Functions of Discourse Markers

In this study, Brinton's inventory (1996) of discourse markers and their functions were taken as the basis to explore the use of discourse markers in one-way and two-way information gap tasks. In incorporating Brinton's inventory, this study aims to connect theoretical concepts about discourse markers with their real-world use in communication tasks. While Brinton herself refers to these markers as "pragmatic markers", the widely recognized term "discourse markers" will be used throughout this study to align with broader conventions in the literature. The diverse functions of DMs in spoken language have been well-explored across numerous studies. In her work, Brinton outlines a comprehensive framework for discourse markers. She emphasizes various characteristics of DMs including their phonological, syntactic, semantic, functional, sociolinguistic, and stylistic aspects. Brinton (2017) argues that phonologically, DMs tend to be shortened which suggests that their role is more about guiding the conversation than sharing specific information. What's interesting is that, while DMs can stand alone with their own tone, they are just as likely to blend into larger chunks of speech. This shows how adaptable they are in helping conversations flow smoothly. From a syntactic perspective, they are highly flexible, and they do not change the basic structure of the sentence which makes them grammatically optional. However, their role in discourse is indispensable, as they fulfill pragmatic functions that cannot be easily omitted, making them pragmatically non-optional (Brinton, 2017). Brinton (2017) suggests that DMs, sociolinguistically speaking, are found in spoken discourse most commonly and they play an essential role there for managing the flow of conversation. They do not only connect ideas, but they also define the relationship between the speaker and listener as the interaction unfolds. They work by signaling shifts in tone, focus, or intent, they shape how we communicate in the moment, keeping conversations cohesive,

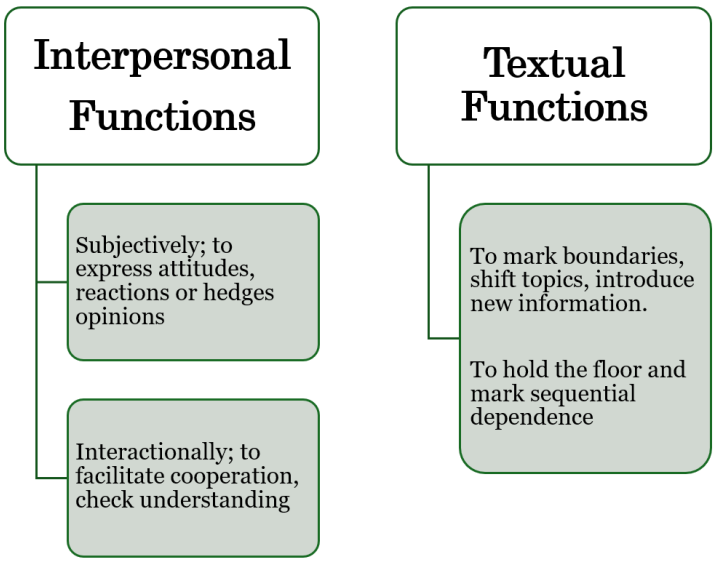
and they guide the interaction so that it feels dynamic and responsive, rather than disjointed or mechanical.

Brinton (2017) also discusses the theoretical foundations of pragmatic markers, referencing influential scholars like Schourup, Bazzanella, and Diewald, who emphasize the importance of function in classifying these markers. She builds upon Halliday's framework of functional-semantic "modes" (1970,1979) to explore the multifunctionality of pragmatic markers. According to Brinton (2017), there are two pragmatic functions of discourse markers, namely textual functions and interpersonal functions. The textual mode focuses on how language is crafted to form cohesive and coherent discourse. Here, these markers help organize and connect ideas within a conversation. For instance, they help navigate transitions, whether it's shifting from one topic to another, framing the beginning or conclusion of a discussion, or distinguishing between new and previously mentioned information. These markers also function to maintain the flow of conversation, sustaining the speaker's turn, holding the floor, or managing the transition between different topics. They serve to keep speech smooth and logically ordered.

Overall, it can be said that the textual functions of DMs ensure the overall cohesion of the discourse. The interpersonal mode, on the other hand, addresses the social aspects of communication. Here, these markers help express the attitudes of the speaker, manage the interaction, and navigate the social dynamics of the conversation. For instance, they can soften a statement to hedge an opinion, indicate understanding, or signal uncertainty. These markers also play an important role in managing the interpersonal aspects of communication, such as signaling cooperation, requesting clarification, or confirming shared knowledge between participants. In this mode, their role is to foster and maintain social relations and mitigate potential face-threatening acts. The following figure summarizes the two modes of discourse markers, as explained above (Brinton, 2017).

Figure 1

Pragmatic Functions of Discourse Markers



Together, these two modes, textual and interpersonal, illustrate the multifaceted roles of discourse markers in communication. On one hand, the textual mode ensures that ideas are logically organized and that the conversation flows smoothly. On the other, the interpersonal mode focuses on the social dynamics, helping speakers manage relationships. These functions are integral to the understanding of pragmatic functions in any conversational setting.

Building on this, this study aims to illustrate how discourse markers function within the framework of these two modes, particularly in the context of one-way and two-way information gap tasks. By examining the textual and interpersonal functions of DMs, I aim to understand how learners employ them to organize their ideas, manage the flow of conversation, and navigate social interactions during task-based activities. This study will hopefully provide insights into how Turkish EFL learners use discourse markers to manage both the structural and social aspects of communication and enhance our understanding of the pragmatic competence of EFL learners and the strategies they employ to navigate task-based interactions.

The Role of Discourse Markers in SLA and Pragmatic Competence

Discourse markers (DMs) are central to effective communication, acting as linguistic elements that structure discourse, facilitate interaction, and convey social meanings (Aijmer, 2013). Their role in second language acquisition (SLA) is especially significant as they bridge the gap between linguistic competence and pragmatic competence, the latter being crucial for learners to navigate conversational norms and cultural expectations effectively (Romero-Trillo, 2013). Pragmatic competence entails the ability to use language appropriately in context, and DMs play a key role in achieving this by organizing discourse and signaling speakers' intentions (Fung & Carter, 2007). DMs exhibit a high degree of multifunctionality, performing textual, interpersonal, and cognitive functions. For instance, “well” “can” serve as a hedge, a floor-holding device, or a marker of hesitation, depending on the context (Aijmer, 2011; Buysse, 2015). The multifunctional nature of DMs complicates their categorization, as their functions often overlap, and shift based on discourse context (Müller, 2005). This complexity presents challenges for both researchers attempting to classify DMs and learners seeking to master their use.

Research consistently shows that L2 learners face difficulties in acquiring the nuanced use of DMs. For example, Aijmer (2011) found that Swedish learners of English overused well as a fluency device but underused it for attitudinal purposes. Similarly, Buysse (2012) demonstrated that Belgian learners of English used so more frequently than native speakers but lacked the variety of functions seen in native usage. Studies also highlight that learners' use of DMs improves with proficiency, with higher-proficiency learners using DMs more frequently and for a broader range of functions (Neary-Sundquist, 2014; Wei, 2011). However, pragmatic fossilization, where learners' use of DMs becomes fixed and non-native-like, remains a significant issue, particularly for learners with limited exposure to authentic discourse (Romero-Trillo, 2002). DMs are critical for interactional competence, enabling learners to manage turn-taking, mitigate face-threatening acts, and create coherence in spoken interaction (Hellermann & Vergun, 2007). Studies such as Yuan & Liao (2009) and

Youn (2023) demonstrate how learners' DM use varies across tasks and contexts, reflecting their ability to adapt to interactional demands. The findings underscore the importance of task-based approaches in teaching DMs, where learners can practice using DMs in realistic, interactive settings.

Most research on pragmatic competence focuses on native or bilingual English speakers, who acquire these skills early in childhood. This raises the question: how do non-native speakers learn to use discourse markers like so, well, or like? Despite the importance of pragmatic competence for effective communication (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994; House & Kasper, 1981; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993), discourse markers have been underexplored in second language acquisition (SLA) (Bardovi-Harlig, 2002; Ellis, 1987, 1994). While Schiffrin (1987) and Blakemore (1992) use different frameworks, both emphasize that discourse markers help the hearer interpret subsequent utterances.

Schiffrin (1987) argues that discourse markers select and display a specific meaning in relation to potential interpretations in the conversation. The theoretical foundation for understanding DMs in SLA has been enriched by contributions from scholars such as Aijmer (2002, 2013) and Müller (2005), who emphasize the interplay between linguistic, cognitive, and social factors in DM use. From a pedagogical perspective, explicit teaching of DMs is crucial, as learners benefit from exposure to authentic materials and guided practice in interpreting and using DMs appropriately (Fung & Carter, 2007; Buysse, 2015). Despite the challenges posed by their multifunctionality and contextual variability, DMs are indispensable for achieving communicative competence. Research suggests that targeted instruction and task-based learning, including interactive formats like information gap tasks, can help learners overcome these challenges, fostering more native-like use of DMs and enhancing learners' interactional capabilities.

Tasks in Language Learning

When we consider how we connect with others it becomes evident that speaking serves as the foundation of communication. It is the most direct way of communicating, and through

speaking we convey our thoughts, emotions, and ideas allowing us to truly engage with one another. Thus, it is considered essential to second language education; it's not just about knowing vocabulary or grammar but to ability to use language in meaningful conversations. It is through speakers that learners can test their knowledge and understanding (Namaziandost et al., 2020). Yet, for most language learners, speaking often proves to be one of the toughest skills to conquer because of the lack of practice in authentic contexts, this is particularly true in EFL contexts where English is not used in daily life. With limited practice opportunities, English remains distant, and rarely becomes part of everyday activities. Traditional language teaching methods, with their focus on isolated tasks like vocabulary drills and grammar exercises, have long been criticized for their limited effectiveness. While they might be useful for laying the groundwork, they fail to equip learners with the ability to communicate meaningfully. Afterall language is not just a set of rules for us to memorize, it is a living and breathing system that thrives on interaction (Ellis, 2009).

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) shifts the focus from just theoretical knowledge to practical language use. Instead of teaching vocabulary or memorizing rules, TBLT actively engages learners in tasks that mirror real-world communication. These tasks are different from exercises, they require learners to use the language purposefully. These activities promote collaboration and critical thinking skills. As Ellis (2009) notes, these tasks feel relevant and purposeful, and they are designed to mirror the kind of language where language learners could encounter outside the classroom. Tasks have been extensively defined and examined by many researchers over the years (Ellis, 2003,2009; Long, 1985; Nunan, 1989). Ellis (2009) breaks down tasks into six key elements: authenticity, outcome, scope, perspective, required linguistic skills, and the psychological processes involved. Similarly, Prahbu (1987) described tasks as activities where learners work toward a specific goal, using language with purpose. Breen (1989) viewed tasks as structured plans that provide learners with opportunities that refine their language skills during communication. For Nunan (1989) the essence of a task lies in its focus on meaning and its clear outcome. According to him, a good task should be able to create some kind of challenge, involve some kind of gap,

and encourage learners to use their linguistic resources to communicate effectively and meaningfully (Ellis et al., 2019). Tasks are not just for developing linguistic competence, they are helpful tools for enhancing interpersonal skills.

As I have initially discussed, Ellis (2019) believes that tasks should include some level of challenge, but there is an important point to that, tasks should neither overwhelm nor underwhelm the learner; this balance is what drives real progress. Language tasks are more than just structured activities within TBL, we can define tasks as the bridges through which learners connect theory to practice. Through them, learners practice communication in ways that mirror everyday situations. As learners navigate these tasks, they also develop cognitive, social, and cultural skills, understanding that language learning is not just about words but navigating the complexities of real-life interactions. It's through these tasks that language becomes more than an academic pursuit; it becomes a tool for understanding and interacting with the world around them (Ellis, 2003). Second language acquisition is most successful when learners are encouraged to use their linguistic resources, because of that, tasks have long been celebrated for their positive impact on L2 learning (Calvert & Sheen, 2014). Prabhu (1987) supports this notion further by saying that tasks should be designed to foster an atmosphere in which students must negotiate meaning, and plan strategies to work toward their communicative goals. Tasks provide rich chances for learners to negotiate meaning in this way, which not only aids in problem solving but also encourages attention to both form and meaning in language use (Ellis, 2009).

While tasks have obvious advantages for L2 learning, their efficacy depends on how carefully and strategically they are designed. When tasks are thoughtfully constructed, they not only facilitate language development but also create an environment in which learners can grow both linguistically and personally, ultimately fostering a richer, more engaging learning experience. Therefore, it can be said that tasks are opportunities for learners to use their language skills in meaningful contexts, such as problem-solving, cooperation, and collaboration. Nunan (2004) states that through tasks, learners can use their linguistic repertoire to interact, communicate, and understand ideas with genuine intent. Tasks

encourage learners to interact with the language at a deeper, more meaningful level by creating gaps in both knowledge and communication. The completion of a task becomes both the means and the aim of learning because of this proactive effort to close these gaps. This makes the tasks more than just an instructional tool; they are a reflection of how language functions in the actual world, where context, meaning, and purpose come together in an organic flow (Calvert & Sheen, 2014).

According to Calvin & Sheen's research, tasks do more than just providing language practice; they also create environments in which language is used as a means of achieving more general communication objectives rather than as an individual aim. The benefits of these interactive tasks in language learning, especially their capacity to foster skills beyond accuracy, have been repeatedly emphasized by research. These tasks equip students with essential skills for navigating the dynamic context of real life. What makes them so effective is their interactive nature, which puts students in scenarios where they must actively utilize and adjust language (Calvert & Sheen, 2014). According to Long (1990), language development occurs through interaction. Tasks create opportunities for learners so that they can adjust their language to clarify meaning, respond to feedback, or negotiate understanding. Through these tasks, learners begin to internalize the language as something they can use creatively and flexibly rather than just memorizing rules. Ultimately, communicative tasks teach learners how to use language, not just how to speak it. By combining interaction, authenticity, and practical application, these tasks turn the language-learning process into something meaningful. According to (Bahar & Oğuz, 2008) pragmatic competence improves when learners work on assignments that imitate the communicative demands of real life. As these authentic tasks challenge them cognitively, this promotes the cognitive growth of language learners. Among these tasks, information gap activities are particularly noteworthy for their ability to foster fluency and conversational skills (Doughty &Pica,1986) as they mirror the unpredictable nature of real-world language use where individuals must negotiate meaning and function under incomplete information conditions.

Information Gap Tasks

Information gap tasks are a type of communicative activity used primarily in language education, where each participant holds some information that others do not have, creating a 'gap' that must be bridged through verbal communication. These tasks are designed to simulate real-life communication scenarios where individuals must interact and exchange information to achieve a common objective (Pica, Kang, & Sauro, 2006). This method is highly valued in language learning for its effectiveness in promoting the use of the target language in an authentic communicative context, encouraging learners to develop both their linguistic and pragmatic competencies. According to Doughty and Pica (1986), information gap tasks facilitate second language acquisition by requiring learners to process and produce the language actively, rather than passively receiving information from the instructor or texts.

Information gap tasks are designed to foster authentic communication, as they require participants to exchange unique information, they possess to accomplish a specific goal or complete a task. This approach simulates real-life communication scenarios, enhancing practical language use and interactive skills among learners. In these tasks, the information each participant holds is incomplete, prompting a natural need for inquiry, explanation, and clarification, which are crucial components of effective communication (Nunan,2004).

The effectiveness of information gap tasks lies in their ability to engage learners in meaningful dialogue and collaboration. As each participant has a piece of the puzzle, the task's completion depends on their ability to ask the right questions, provide clear answers, and collaboratively construct a mutual understanding or solution. This dynamic not only improves linguistic abilities but also develops soft skills such as problem-solving, critical thinking, and teamwork (Nunan,2004). One-way information gap tasks are structured communication activities where one participant has information that others do not. The task of the holder of the information is to effectively convey it to the other participants without them seeing or having direct access to the original information source. The primary goal here is clear communication from one side only, making it a unilateral information flow. Such tasks are valuable in

educational contexts as they test the ability of a speaker to express their thoughts clearly and comprehensively (Doughty & Pica, 1986).

These tasks often manifest in activities like giving instructions to construct an outcome or describing an object that only one person can see. Ellis (2003) points out that these tasks are pivotal for evaluating communicative competence in language learning settings, particularly in assessing clarity and effectiveness in verbal or written expression. Two information gap tasks involve an interactive exchange where each participant possesses some unique pieces of information that others need but do not have. The objective is to share and combine this information through dialogue to achieve a common goal, such as solving a puzzle or planning an event. This type promotes bilateral communication, requiring participants to engage in asking and answering questions, negotiating meanings, and collaborating toward mutual understanding and problem-solving. These activities are particularly effective for developing interactive skills and enhancing communicative and social competence among learners. Long (1989) emphasizes that such interactive tasks not only aid in linguistic proficiency but also help in building cooperative skills, critical in real-world social interactions. (Long, 1989).

Information-gap tasks have been widely acknowledged for their role in promoting interaction and negotiation for meaning in language learning. This potential has been explored in studies such as Hofmeyr (2019) and Rosas-Maldonado (2018), which provide empirical insights into the dynamics of learner interaction and strategy use during such tasks. Hofmeyr (2019) explores this potential through a case study utilizing the cooperative digital puzzle game *Keep Talking and Nobody Explodes*. This information-gap game requires players to exchange incomplete information to solve puzzles, fostering communication and negotiation. The study identifies key interactional strategies, such as clarification requests and elaborations, which emerge during communication breakdowns caused by vague language or lexical gaps. These findings highlight the capacity of information-gap games to create meaningful opportunities for interaction, supporting SLA through modified output and cognitive engagement.

Similarly, Rosas-Maldonado (2018) explored how task type influences Spanish L2 learners' use of communication strategies in interactions with native speakers and peers. Using jigsaw and free-conversation tasks, the study found that task demands shape strategy use: jigsaw tasks elicited strategies addressing linguistic challenges, while free-conversation tasks prompted strategies for cognitive demands. This underscores the role of task design in fostering communication strategy development in L2 learning.

Together, these studies show how adaptable information-gap tasks are in encouraging meaningful interaction. Hofmeyr (2019) and Rosas-Maldonado (2018) remind us of the critical role interaction and communication strategies play in making these tasks effective. Building on their findings, this study suggests that discourse markers hold a unique place in these dynamics. They help smooth over communication breakdowns and keep tasks on track, aligning with broader evidence that highlights the value of strategies that balance linguistic precision with interactive problem-solving in task-based learning.

Use of Discourse Markers in Task Based Language Teaching

Discourse markers (DMs) are essential tools for creating coherence, maintaining interaction, and structuring communication, making their study vital for understanding how EFL learners manage discourse in different contexts. Numerous studies have explored DM use among EFL learners, focusing on factors such as proficiency, sociocultural integration, gender differences, and contextual variations (Buysse, 2013; Fung & Carter, 2007; Hellermann & Vergun, 2007; Liao, 2009; Taguchi, 2011; Youn, 2013).These investigations provide important insights into learners' use of DMs, while also revealing gaps in their adaptability and range across different communicative settings.

Most research on DMs in EFL contexts has focused on how learners use these markers and the factors influencing their usage. Hellermann and Vergun (2007) investigated the use of DMs such as well, you know, and like in classroom interactions and home interviews with 17 beginning adult English learners in the US who had no prior formal instruction in English. Their findings showed that learners who used DMs more frequently tended to be more proficient,

spent more time in the US, and were more acculturated to the target language, highlighting the relationship between DM use, proficiency, and sociocultural integration. Building on Hellermann and Vergun's (2007) findings, which underscored the relationship between frequent DM use and learners' sociocultural immersion, Liao (2009) and Buysse (2013) explored variations in the use of DMs like yeah, oh, you know, like, well, I mean, ok, right, and actually among Chinese speakers of English.

Liao's study involved six Chinese graduate students working as teaching assistants in the US, while Bu's study focused on 30 Chinese university students of similar age and proficiency. Both studies analyzed the role of gender and social contexts in DM use across classroom discussions and interviews, finding that female participants used DMs more frequently than males, and all participants employed DMs more often in interviews than in classroom settings. These findings underline the context-sensitive nature of DM use and its variability across social interactions. While Liao (2009) and Buysse (2013) provided insights into gendered differences and social contexts in DM use, their focus on Chinese graduate students limits the generalizability of these findings to other cultural or educational settings.

Fung and Carter (2007) found that EFL learners in Hong Kong displayed a narrower range of DM use compared to native speakers, favoring referential markers like "and," "but," and "because" over interpersonal ones like "you know" or "actually." Similarly, Buysse (2012, 2015) observed that advanced EFL learners overused certain markers like "so" and "well" while underutilizing their attitudinal functions, pointing to gaps in pragmatic competence despite frequent use.

Youn (2023) examined how DMs serve distinct pragmatic functions in task-based performances. The findings indicated that the frequency and type of DMs used varied significantly with task interactivity and pragmatic demands. For example, DMs functioning as transitioners or acknowledgement tokens were more prominent in interactive tasks than monologic tasks. This study emphasizes that the pragmatic role of DMs is context-sensitive and shaped by task type, confirming their utility in fostering continuity and mitigating dispreferred actions.

Byron, Heeman, and Cnet (1998) demonstrated that DMs in task-oriented dialogues are highly correlated with specific conversational moves, adjacency pairs, and speaker orientation to prior turns. This aligns with the functional necessity of DMs in structuring discourse and maintaining conversational coherence in interactive settings. Their findings suggest that task-oriented dialogues provide rich ground for examining DMs as tools for managing transitions and conversational flow.

Guydish, Nguyen, and Fox Tree (2024) investigated DM use across different communication media and task types, revealing that DMs are used more frequently in task-based spoken interactions than in casual conversations over phone calls, while their use decreases in text-based or videoconferencing contexts. Importantly, the study noted that DMs facilitated negotiation and coherence in task-based settings, even if they did not directly influence conversational appraisal in most cases.

Wei (2011) and Neary-Sundquist (2014) both explored the relationship between proficiency and DM use, with Wei emphasizing the increased sensitivity to context and function among advanced learners compared to intermediate learners. Neary-Sundquist confirmed a steady increase in both the frequency and variety of DM use with higher proficiency levels, suggesting that DM use is closely tied to learners' ability to manage pragmatic demands and align with native speaker norms. Marcela and Castro (2009) found that DMs in EFL classroom interaction predominantly fulfilled textual and interpersonal functions, contributing to the coherence and flow of teacher-student discourse. Similarly, Hellermann and Vergun (2007) observed that beginning EFL learners rarely used DMs such as "well," "you know," and "like," suggesting limited exposure and acculturation to DM use in English. However, learners who demonstrated more frequent DM use often had greater exposure to English outside the classroom, reinforcing the importance of input and sociocultural immersion.

Taguchi (2011) and Liao (2009) highlighted how learners’ sociocultural environments and contexts of use shape their DM acquisition. Taguchi found that study-abroad experiences enriched learners’ comprehension of pragmatically complex markers, though this was not universally true across all types of DMs. Liao, focusing on Chinese graduate students in the

US, noted that their DM use reflected varying levels of acculturation and exposure to native speaker interaction patterns. This supports the view that DM acquisition is influenced by both linguistic and extralinguistic factors.

Nejadansari and Mohammadi (2015) echoed these findings in the Iranian EFL classroom, where both teachers and learners predominantly used textual DMs to manage information and rarely employed interpersonal markers to regulate turn-taking or express attitudes. This imbalance underscores the need for pedagogical interventions that address the pragmatic versatility of DMs. Comparative studies such as Fung and Carter (2007) and Aşık and Cephe (2013) investigated the differences in DM use between native and nonnative speakers of English. Fung and Carter analyzed Hong Kong EFL learners, while Aşık and Cephe examined Turkish speakers of English. Both studies revealed that nonnative speakers used DMs less frequently, with fewer functions, and showed a limited variety of DM use compared to native speakers. These findings suggest that nonnative speakers often struggle to match the range and pragmatic sophistication of native DM use, underscoring the need for pedagogical focus on pragmatic competence.

Research on DMs in Turkish EFL settings has primarily focused on classroom and monologic discourse. Zorluel Özer and Okan (2018) investigated DM use by Turkish and native EFL teachers, revealing that Turkish teachers employ a narrower range of DMs compared to their native counterparts. The study attributed this underuse to limited exposure to diverse DM use and insufficient emphasis on pragmatics in teacher training. These findings highlight a potential shortfall in Turkish EFL learners' indirect exposure to DMs in classroom settings, which may impact their ability to use DMs effectively during interactions.

Similarly, Aşık and Cephe (2013) analyzed Turkish EFL learners' use of DMs in monologic presentations. Their findings indicated that Turkish learners employed fewer and less varied DMs than native speakers, relying heavily on basic markers like *and*, *but*, and *so*. The study emphasized the need to raise learners' awareness of the pragmatic functions of DMs, particularly interpersonal markers, to foster more natural and effective spoken discourse. While these studies provide valuable insights into DM use in Turkish EFL settings, they focus on

teacher-led or monologic discourse and do not address learners' DM use in interactive, task-based contexts.

Despite the recognized importance of DMs in facilitating communication and managing pragmatic interactions, there remains a significant gap in the literature concerning their use in task-based interactions, particularly within the Turkish EFL context. By focusing on these interactions, this study seeks to deepen our understanding of how learners employ DMs to negotiate meaning, manage turns, and maintain coherence in dynamic task settings. This contribution addresses gaps identified in previous Turkish studies.

The critical role of DMs in interactive EFL settings has been highlighted in this section. For instance, Youn (2023) found that interactive tasks elicit a higher frequency of DMs serving transitional and acknowledgment functions compared to monologic tasks. Similarly, Guydish and Nguyen (2019) observed that task-based spoken interactions prompted increased DM use, particularly for negotiating meaning and maintaining discourse coherence. However, Marcela and Castro (2009) reported that EFL learners in classroom contexts often struggle to effectively use interpersonal markers during interactive tasks, favouring basic textual markers instead. These findings suggest that while task-based contexts encourage richer DM use, learners may require explicit instruction to fully develop the interpersonal and attitudinal functions of DMs.

Building on this body of work, the present study investigates how Turkish EFL learners use DMs to navigate one-way and two-way information gap tasks, which require a level of pragmatic competence and interactivity. These tasks provide an ideal context for analyzing the textual and interpersonal functions of DMs, as they demand both discourse management and effective social interaction. The findings aim to inform pedagogical practices, particularly in designing task-based activities that support learners in developing a balanced and effective use of both textual and interpersonal markers.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This study aims to explore the role of discourse markers in one-way and two-way information gap tasks. This chapter serves as the blueprint for understanding how this study was conducted and the reasoning behind the research design. The participants of the study, data collection methods, including the instruments used, and the adopted framework are described. The chapter concludes with an overview of procedures followed for data analysis, particularly how discourse markers were identified and categorized using Brinton's framework through content analysis.

Type of Research

This study employs a qualitative approach with a multiple-case embedded design, allowing for the detailed exploration of more than one case, each containing multiple predetermined units of analysis (Yin,2018). In this context, the cases under investigation are the selected one-way and two-way information gap tasks, each taken from authentic teaching materials and representing a unique communicative structure in EFL learning. Within each case, two predetermined units of analysis are examined: (a) textual functions of discourse markers, which relate to the structural organization of the dialogue, and (b) interpersonal functions, which concern the social interaction between speakers.

This design was chosen because it facilitates a nuanced understanding of how learners utilize discourse markers to manage communication, compensating for linguistic challenges in both structured and spontaneous ways. Moreover, it is also well-suited for closely observing the functions of different types of discourse markers, both for their role in shaping textual cohesion and fostering interpersonal interaction within EFL learning contexts.

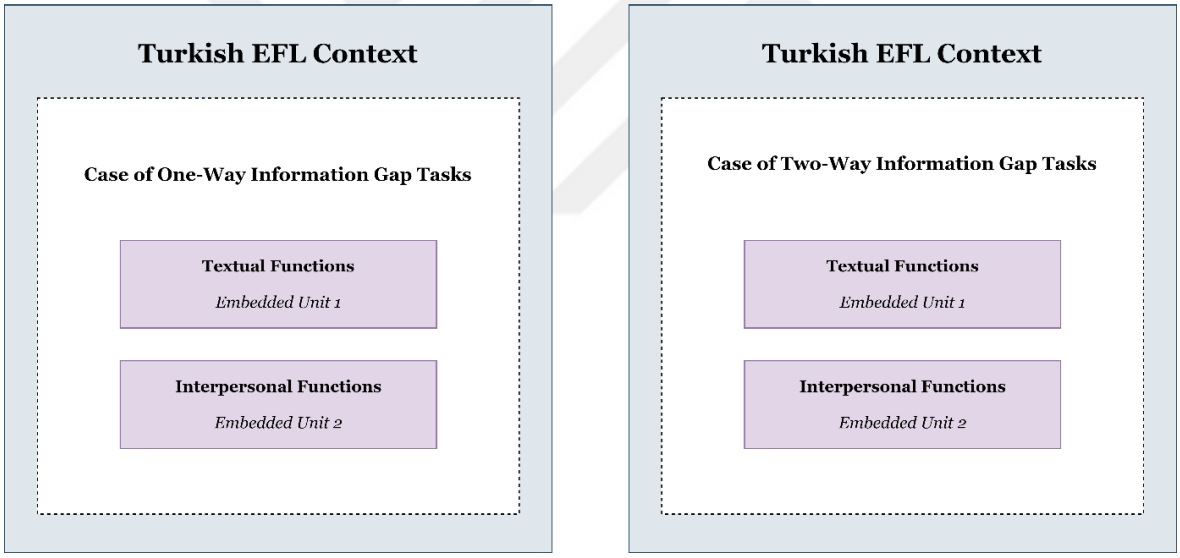
Accordingly, this design aims to investigate each task type in a descriptive manner through a detailed within-case analysis. Focusing on one-way and two-way information gap tasks, the study aims to reveal possibly distinctive patterns in discourse marker use, which will

help describe the communicative and interactional features these tasks exert upon EFL speakers.

For instance, discourse markers used in one-way information gap tasks may support the unidirectional flow of information from one participant to another, creating a structured interaction where markers guide listeners through the information. Those used in two-way information gap tasks may require a mutual exchange of information, perhaps showing that discourse markers actively shape reciprocal dialogue, allowing participants to manage turn-taking, respond in real-time, and establish rapport.

Figure 2

The Adopted Multiple-Case Embedded Design (Yin, 2018)



Participants and Setting

The participants in this study are two female Turkish EFL students, both of whom are native speakers of Turkish and L2 users of English. At the time of data collection, the participants were enrolled in an English preparatory class. They were both 20 years old and their educational and linguistic background was relatively uniform, allowing us to make analytic

generalizations regarding what characteristics a typical Turkish EFL learner might exhibit within the current context.

At the time of the study, the participants were enrolled in the B1 module of their university's English preparatory program. This B1 proficiency level in English aligns with the independent user described in the Common European Framework of Reference and suggests that learners at this level can handle a range of academic tasks in English, though with varying levels of ease depending on the skill involved. Speaking tasks, especially in different communicative scenarios such as those required by this study's information gap tasks, may act as a test ground for learners at this level, requiring them to overcome certain challenges for spoken practice of English.

In terms of their educational background, the participants stated that they began learning English during their primary education in Turkish state schools, likely around the age of 8 or 9, as part of the national curriculum. Their formal exposure to English before university was limited to mandatory English classes provided by the state-regulated Turkish education system. To provide a rough description, these EFL classes typically focus on grammar and vocabulary with less emphasis on communicative skills like speaking and listening. Before high school, the participants reported that even their media consumption was predominantly in Turkish, and they were not often exposed to English in any authentic context.

Demographics about the participants' linguistic background revealed that their exposure to English in daily life was relatively minimal, confined mostly to academic settings. In their personal lives, Turkish was their dominant language, and they relied on it for most social interactions with family, friends, and the broader community. Although they may have encountered English through social media, their practice of English was largely confined to the classroom setting, where they engaged in mostly structured learning activities such as lectures

and assignments, which occasionally included group work tasks and speaking activities like presentations or pair discussions.

Data Collection

For this study, the ethics committee approval was obtained from Social Sciences and Humanities Research Ethics Board at Hacettepe University before data collection. The data collection process involved sessions of participants engaging in three one-way and three two-way information gap tasks, resulting in a total of six tasks, which were audio recorded. These tasks were comparable in terms of complexity and designed to simulate real-life communication scenarios, with one-way tasks involving the transfer of information from one participant to another, and two-way tasks requiring both participants to exchange information. Before the data collection, two pilot sessions were conducted (i.e. one for one-way and one for two-way tasks).

However, these pilot sessions were not audio recorded; they focused on task clarity and ensuring tasks functioned as intended. Also, to further refine and enhance the tasks in terms of comparable difficulty, feedback was obtained from two language teaching experts. The experts evaluated the tasks for linguistic appropriateness, task complexity, and their effectiveness in eliciting natural discourse, particularly the use of discourse markers. This iterative process ensured that the final tasks were well-suited for the study objectives. Before the task sessions, informed consent was obtained from all participants, in accordance with the ethical guidelines approved by the university.

Participants were fully briefed on the study's purpose, the nature of the tasks, and the use of their audio recordings. They were made aware that participation was voluntary, and they could withdraw from the study at any point without any consequence. To make sure participants felt comfortable, they were given the opportunity to ask any questions prior to the start of the task sessions.

The data collection sessions were conducted in a designated quiet classroom to minimize background noise and distractions, ensuring high-quality audio recordings without disruptions. The participants, as a pair, completed a total of six tasks, including three one-way and three two-way information gap tasks. A digital audio recorder was used to capture the interactions. The recorder was placed in between the participants to ensure that all speech was clearly audible. After the completion of each task, the audio recordings were directly transferred to the researcher's computer to be stored in a password-protected folder.

Then, the six audio files collected from six tasks were transcribed verbatim by the researcher. To ensure confidentiality and maintain anonymity, the participants were assigned a pseudonym (i.e., Melike and Sibel). These pseudonyms names were used throughout the study to refer to each participant, thereby ensuring that no personally identifiable information was linked to any data provided. All personal information, including consent forms, was securely stored, and will not be shared with any third parties. Upon completion of the study, the recordings will be deleted following university guidelines on data retention.

Instruments

The instruments used for data collection consist of a set of information gap tasks, selected for their communicative effectiveness in eliciting the use of discourse markers. These tasks allow for the observation of real-time interaction and the use of discourse markers to manage a conversation, by requiring the participants to share information, solve problems, or collaborate on tasks. The tasks in this study are adapted from a foundational sources, ensuring that they are relevant and aligned with established research on discourse markers in interaction.

There is a table on the following page outlining the selected tasks, including their names, types, focus areas, and relevant references. Each task has been chosen for its ability to elicit authentic communication and the specific ways in which it allows participants to engage with each other in a meaningful and collaborative manner.

Table 1

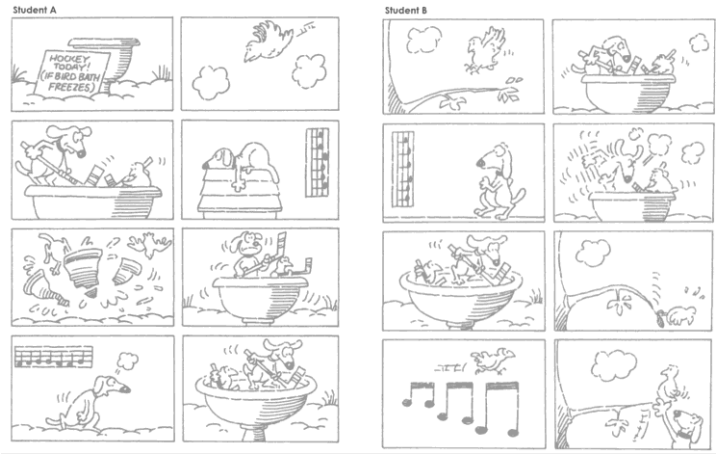
Data Collection Instruments: Information gap tasks

Task	Name	Information Gap	Focus	Reference
1	Twins: Find the Matching Picture	Two-way	Identifying a matching picture	Klippel (1984)
2	Spot the Room Task	One-way	Spotting the same picture	Shrum & Glisan (2000)
3	House Plan Completion Task	Two-way	Completing a shared plan	Shrum & Glisan (2000)
4	Drawing a Floor Plan	One-way	Describing furniture placement	Shrum & Glisan (2000)
5	Creating a Story	Two-way	Creating a story from separate pictures.	Klippel (1984)
6	Comic strip Calvin Hobbes	One-way	Arranging pictures in correct order	Klippel (1984)

Instrument 1

Figure 3

Task 1 Twins: Find the Matching Picture, Adapted from Klippel, F. (1984)



In task 1, two students sit face-to-face at a table, with a barrier preventing them from seeing each other’s pictures. Each student receives a set of eight pictures, featuring common objects such as a bird, a dog, a tree, clouds, and some other items. Among the eight pictures, one image is identical in both sets, while the others are slightly different, with small, subtle details distinguishing them. The task is designed to have students identify the matching picture by communicating verbally, using detailed descriptions and careful questioning. This task is a two-way information gap activity, meaning that both students take turns speaking and listening. They are expected to describe their pictures, ask questions, and confirm their understanding through active dialogue. The students cannot show their pictures to each other, relying solely on verbal communication to identify the common image. After making a decision, they confirm their selection and reveal the pictures only at the end to check if their identification is correct. While correct picture identification is one aspect of success, the primary focus is on how students use language during interaction.

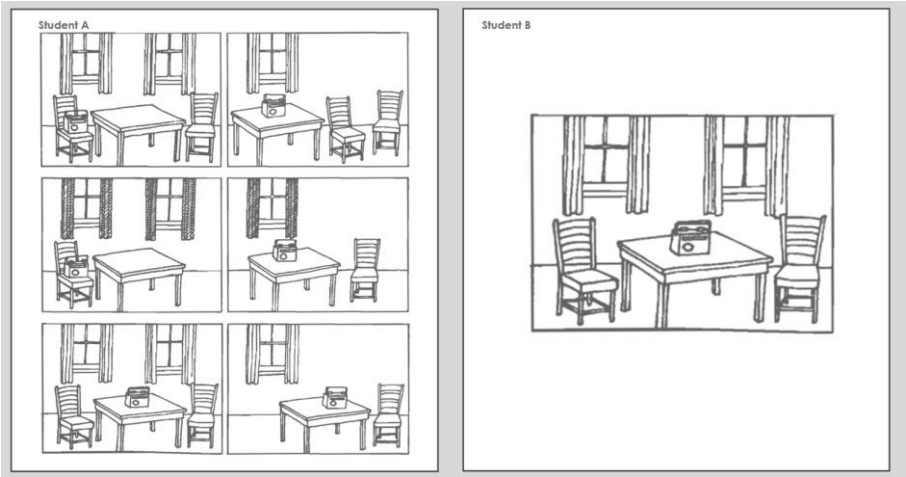
Before starting the task, students were given instructions outlining the task stages, emphasizing the need for detailed descriptions and effective questioning. No strict rules were set regarding how they should communicate, but it was made clear that they were not allowed to show their pictures at any time. The task is designed with certain expectations, but the results may vary depending on the students' interaction styles and language proficiency. It is anticipated that students will use detailed descriptions, ask clarification questions, and confirm their understanding before making decisions. However, the extent to which they employ these strategies may differ, Additionally, while the task is structured to facilitate turn-taking and active communication, some students may struggle with maintaining the flow of conversation or may find it challenging to identify the subtle differences in the pictures. In terms of timing, the task is planned to take approximately 15 minutes. However, there are no strict time limits imposed, allowing students flexibility to take as long as they need to complete the task. This open-ended approach is intended to encourage thorough communication and careful decision-making, rather than rushing to finish. The focus remains on the quality of the interaction, particularly in

how they use language and discourse markers, rather than simply completing the task within a set time frame.

Instrument 2

Figure 4

Task 2 Spot the Room Task, Adapted from Shrum & Glisan (2000 p.188-189)



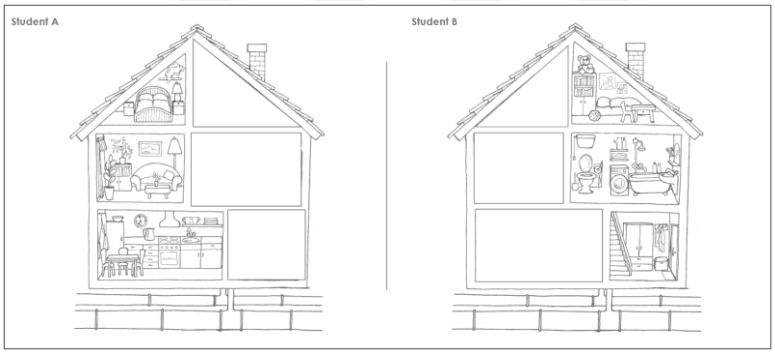
In task 2, one student is given a set of six pictures, each depicting a simple room with various objects like chairs, windows, curtains, tables, and a radio. The other student holds a single picture of a room, which is identical to one of the six pictures held by the first student. The goal for the student with the set of six pictures is to determine which one matches the picture held by their partner. To do this, the student with the six pictures asks yes/no questions to gather information about the specific features of the room in the other student's picture. For example, they might ask, "Are there two chairs?" or "Is there a radio in the room?" While there is no strict time limit, the task is designed to take approximately 10-15 minutes, allowing sufficient time for careful questioning and response. The student with the six pictures takes on the role of the questioner, responsible for asking yes/no questions to gather information about the other student's picture. This student directs the interaction, making decisions about which details to ask for and how to adjust their questioning strategy based on the answers received. The student holding the single picture plays the role of the respondent, primarily answering the yes/no questions and offering occasional comments. In this one-way information flow, all the

initiative for the exchange comes from the questioning student, while the respondent's role is reactive. This dynamic emphasizes the importance of clear, structured questioning and careful interpretation of the responses. Given the simplicity of the task and the limited language output from the respondent, some discourse marker usage may be minimal, especially from the respondent. The questioner may use markers like "okay" or "so" to organize turns and transition between questions, and fillers like "um" or "er" to indicate thought processing. Markers such as "right" or "I see" might confirm understanding and signal a readiness to continue. The respondent may use backchannel signals like "uh-huh" or "mhm" to show active listening, while markers like "yes" or "okay" confirm understanding and agreement, helping to maintain the flow of interaction.

Instrument 3

Figure 5

Task 3 House Plan Completion Task, Adapted from Shrum & Glisan (2000 p.188-189)



This two-way information gap task requires two participants to collaboratively complete a house plan by exchanging information. Each participant receives half of a two-story house plan, which includes a furnished portion and an unfurnished portion. For one participant, the right side of the house is fully furnished with rooms such as a bedroom containing a bed and a living room with a sofa, while the left side remains empty. For the other participant, the left side is furnished, and the right side is empty. Their goal is to work together, describing the rooms and furniture placement to each other to complete the missing halves of their plans. Participants sit face-to-face with a barrier between them to prevent seeing each other's house

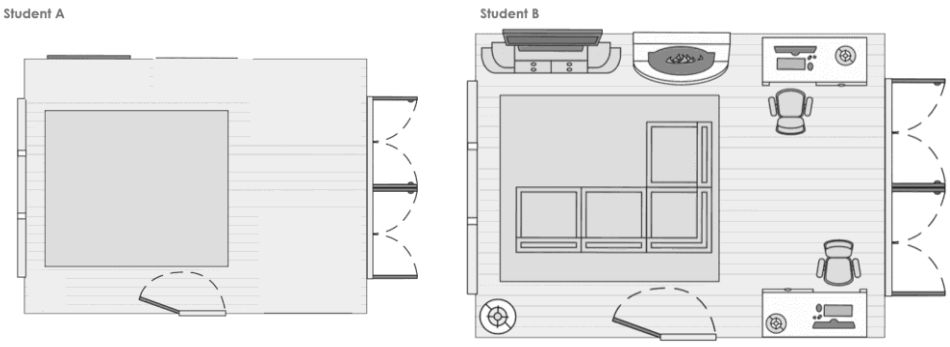
plans. Before starting, they are briefed about the task objectives, which emphasize the importance of clear and effective verbal communication. Students are reminded that they must rely solely on descriptions, as they are not allowed to show their house plans at any point during the task.

As a two-way task, the information flow is bidirectional, both participants must describe their furnished halves and listen attentively to their partner's descriptions to fill in the missing details accurately. This reciprocal exchange of information emphasizes the need for effective communication, clarification, and confirmation. However, no specific instructions were provided regarding the use of discourse markers or communication strategies, as the task aimed to replicate authentic conversational interaction. Participants were free to negotiate meaning as they saw fit, asking for clarification or repeating descriptions as necessary to complete the task. The task concludes when both participants believe they have accurately completed their house plans, based solely on the verbal exchange of information. Success is determined by the accuracy of the final drawings, where both house plans should mirror each other in terms of room layout and furniture placement. Although the task is planned to take around 20 minutes, there is flexibility in timing, allowing students to take as long as they need to complete their house plans.

Instrument 4

Figure 6

*Task 4 Drawing a Floor Plan**,** Adapted from Shrum & Glisan (2000 p.188-189)*



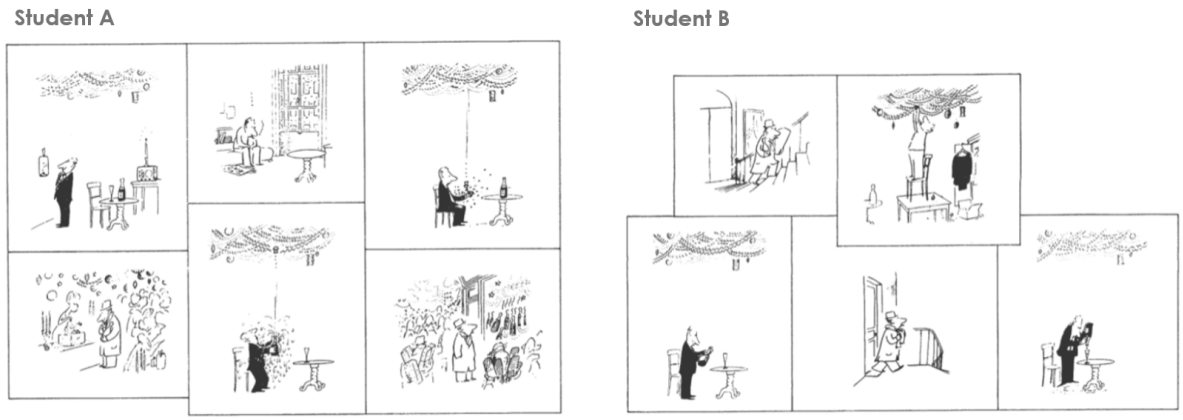
In task 4, a one-way information gap task, one participant is given a complete floor plan that includes the placement of various furniture items, such as a sofa, table, and bed. The other participant receives a blank floor plan, to accurately replicate the furniture layout based solely on verbal instructions. The participant with the complete floor plan must give clear, detailed descriptions of each room and the furniture placement, while the other participant listens and draws the furniture in the correct locations on their blank plan. This setup encourages precise communication, as the task requires conveying and interpreting spatial information accurately. The task is designed to enhance students' abilities in both giving and following instructions. The student providing the descriptions must use specific language to explain where each piece of furniture is located, utilizing spatial prepositions (e.g., "next to," "in front of," "between") and dimensions (e.g., "large," "small," "centered") to ensure clarity.

Meanwhile, the student drawing the floor plan must rely on careful listening and may ask for clarification if any part of the description is unclear. This activity features a one-way flow of information. The student providing descriptions takes the lead in communication, while the student drawing focuses on accurately following the instructions. The listener can ask for clarification or confirmation if necessary but does not offer any new information. The task emphasizes the importance of delivering clear instructions and ensuring mutual understanding. There is no strict time limit for this task, allowing students to take the time they need to ensure clear communication and accurate drawings. This flexible approach encourages students to focus on the quality of their interactions and the accuracy of their drawings, rather than rushing through the task.

Instrument 5

Figure 7

Task 5 Creating a story, Adapted from (Klippel,1984)



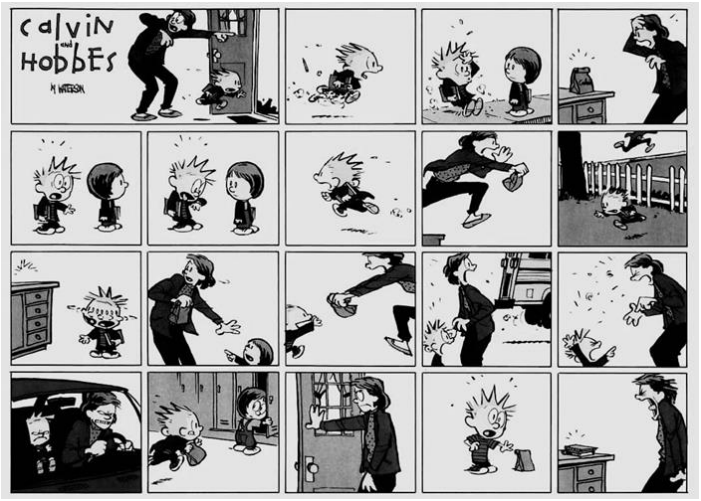
In task 5, a two-way information gap task, students are given different sets of pictures that follow a similar theme or context, but with each set containing slightly different images. The task is designed to encourage creative storytelling, as the students must describe their pictures in a way that builds a cohesive narrative, rather than simply stating what is depicted. The goal is not to find one correct answer but to collaboratively create a unique story based on the images they each have. Each student describes their pictures as part of a story, using imagination to weave them into a broader narrative. They do not show their pictures to their partner, and instead, rely solely on verbal descriptions to communicate. The activity is interactional, requiring both active listening and negotiation, as students work together to agree on how their pieces fit into the broader narrative. Students must also ask each other clarifying questions to confirm their guesses, fill in the missing details, or resolve ambiguities in the story sequence. This may promote the use of DMs for example for confirmation seeking, this promotes the task's role in developing both language skills and pragmatic competence (Pica et al., 2009). After both students have shared their descriptions, they work together to negotiate the story's sequence, discussing how the images could fit together to form a logical and coherent storyline. The process requires creative thinking, as well as active listening and

negotiation since they need to agree on the sequence and the details of the story based on the pictures. This activity features a two-way information flow, where both students take turns describing their pictures and then collaborate to create a shared narrative. They must use descriptive language, creative thinking, and storytelling techniques to communicate effectively. The task encourages active dialogue, as students must engage in discussion and negotiation to decide how their individual pieces fit into the larger story. One of the key challenges in this task is that there is no single "correct" answer. Though the task allows for creativity and interpretation, it remains controlled by the context of the pictures, providing structure to the content while allowing for individual expression. Students may have different interpretations of how the images fit into the story, and they must work together to synthesize these ideas into a coherent narrative. This requires flexibility in thinking, as well as effective communication strategies, such as asking clarifying questions, providing detailed descriptions, and making suggestions for the story's progression. Misunderstandings or differing perspectives are likely to arise, giving students an opportunity to practice resolving disagreements and refining their ideas collaboratively.

Instrument 6

Figure 8

Task 6 Comic Strip Calvin Hobbes, Adapted from (Klippel,1984)



In task 6, a one-way information gap task, participants work with a comic strip depicting a short story, *Calvin and Hobbes*. One participant is provided with a comic grid in which the events are arranged in the correct order, while the other participant receives a set of the same comic frames, but in a shuffled order. Without revealing the correct sequence or showing the comic, the first participant must verbally guide their partner to arrange the shuffled comic frames in the correct order. This task emphasizes clear, logical communication as the first participant describes the events depicted in each frame, helping the second participant identify and order them appropriately. The challenge lies in the need for detailed descriptions and the use of directive communication to ensure the correct sequence. The listener must rely entirely on verbal cues to arrange their shuffled cards, testing their ability to interpret the descriptions accurately and reason through the sequence of events. Once the second participant believes they have arranged the comic correctly, the first participant reveals the correct sequence, allowing both participants to compare the arrangement and assess how accurately the instructions were conveyed and interpreted. As a one-way information gap task, the flow of communication is unidirectional. The speaker is responsible for giving clear instructions, using sequential and descriptive language, while the listener must focus on accurately interpreting the given information. The speaker may need to break down the sequence step-by-step, ensuring that each event is described in a way that allows the listener to differentiate between the frames.

The key challenge in this task is the effective use of language to describe each comic frame in detail. The speaker must guide the listener through the comic's storyline without visual aids, focusing on describing actions, emotions, and the relationships between frames. Meanwhile, the listener faces the challenge of arranging the events based on these descriptions, making inferences, and seeking clarification when necessary. Miscommunication may occur if the descriptions lack detail or if the listener misinterprets the sequence, which provides an opportunity for problem-solving through clarification. The task is completed once the second participant has arranged all of the comic frames. This activity develops skills in

directive communication, spatial and sequential reasoning, and careful listening. It emphasizes the importance of clarity in verbal instructions and the ability to interpret and apply those instructions to achieve a specific outcome. The task can be completed in 10-15 minutes, though there is flexibility depending on the complexity of the comic and the participants' interaction style.

Criteria for Selecting Discourse Markers

A wide range of discourse markers have been examined in numerous studies (ref). These studies have focused on theoretical and functional descriptions of discourse markers, as well as their use across different registers, task types, and speaker groups. A comprehensive set of discourse markers has been explored in spoken English discourse. While some researchers may differ in their definitions of certain words or phrases as discourse markers, others include them in their analyses due to their pragmatic or syntactic functions. Markers like "well", "you know", "I mean", "like", "oh", and "so" have received particular attention due to their wide range of functions and high frequency in spoken discourse (Romero Trillo, 2002; Müller, 2005; Liao, 2009). These markers are often selected for examination due to their frequent occurrence in discourse and their presence in a significant body of research, facilitating comparison of findings (Polat, 2011; Mei, 2012; Gilquin, 2016). However, some studies adopt a data-driven approach, compiling all discourse markers from reference corpora (Fung & Carter, 2007) or identifying lexical items functioning as discourse markers within specific research corpora (Aşık & Cephe, 2013). In this study, Brinton's (1996) framework serves as a guiding foundation. Brinton's discourse markers cover a variety of functions, both textual and interpersonal, allowing for a detailed analysis of how these markers fulfill certain roles in communication tasks. Brinton's inventory represents a comprehensive set of markers commonly found in spoken English discourse.

Table 2

A List of Brinton's Inventory of Discourse Markers (1996, P.32)

1). Ah	12). If	23). Right/Alright
2). Actually	13). I Mean/Think	24). So
3). After all	14). Just	25). Say
4). Almost	15). Like	26). Sort/Kind Of
5). And	16). Mind You	27). Then
6). And (Stuff, Things) like that	17). Moreover	28). Therefore
7). Anyway	18). Now	29). Uh Huh/Mhm
8). Basically	19). Oh	30). Well
9). Because	20). Ok	31). Yes/No
10). But	21). Or	32). You/I Know
11). Go 'say'	22). Really	33). You see

Initially, the study considered the full inventory of markers, however, after transcribing the data, it became clear that only a subset of these markers emerged in the participants' speech. The discourse markers that emerged most frequently in the data included "okay", "yes", "so", "right", "well", "yeah" and others. After identifying these markers, the next step was to code their functions based on Brinton's functional categories, to examine how these markers were used in the context of information gap tasks by Turkish EFL learners.

Selection of the Framework

The complexity inherent in the terminology of discourse markers plays a crucial role in their classification across various frameworks. While multiple categorizations remain valid, Brinton's inventory offers a clear and thorough distinction between textual and interpersonal functions of discourse markers, making it highly suitable for analyzing how markers are used in both structuring discourse and managing interaction. Brinton's framework, which categorizes

DMs into textual and interpersonal functions, aligns more closely with research that emphasizes pragmatic functions in communication. This approach allows for a detailed analysis of their multifaceted roles. This framework enables a more precise categorization, especially when focusing on how DMs contribute both to the structural coherence of discourse and to the management of interpersonal relationships during communication. The framework allows for a nuanced analysis of markers like okay, yes, no, well, and others in the context of information gap tasks, where both discourse organization and interaction management are critical. Brinton's focus on the pragmatic functions of discourse markers in spoken discourse is particularly relevant to this study.

The framework provides a theoretical foundation for understanding how learners use discourse markers to manage communication, which is crucial in oral language tasks where fluency, coherence, and turn-taking are central to successful interaction. While Brinton's framework was developed with native speakers in mind, its principles are highly applicable to the analysis of non-native speaker interactions, such as those involving Turkish EFL learners.

Discourse markers play a vital role in second language acquisition, helping learners manage conversation, signal understanding, and navigate communication challenges. One of the key features of discourse markers, as highlighted by Müller (2005), is their multifunctionality. Discourse markers often serve more than one function depending on the context. For example, okay might act as a response marker in one instance, a turn-taking marker in another, or even signal agreement in a different context. While Brinton's framework categorizes markers by function, the analysis also considers their multifunctional nature, allowing for a nuanced understanding of how learners use these markers in communicative contexts. On the following page is a table of the specific discourse marker functions used for categorization in this study, based on Brinton's (1996, 2017) framework.

Table 3

Brinton's (1996, 2017) Categorization of Pragmatic Functions of DMs

Category	Function Description
Textual Functions	
Opening frame marker	Used to initiate discourse, including claiming the attention of the hearer.
Topic switcher	Serves to indicate a new topic or a partial shift in the current topic.
Turn Taker Signal	Helps the speaker in acquiring or relinquishing the speaking floor.
Filler/Turn Keeper	Acts as a filler or delaying tactic used to sustain discourse or hold the floor.
Information indicator	Denotes either new or old information, clarifying the status of the content.
Sequence marker	Marks sequential dependence or order within the conversation.
Repair marker	Employed to repair one's own or others' discourse interruptions or misunderstandings.
Closing frame marker	Used to conclude a segment of discourse or the entire discourse.
Interpersonal Functions	
Response and Reaction Markers	Expresses a response or reaction to the preceding discourse; includes back-channel signals of understanding and continued attention while another speaker is having their turn.
Confirmation-seekers and face-savers	Engaged to effect cooperation or sharing; includes confirming shared assumptions, checking, or expressing understanding, requesting confirmation, expressing difference, or saving face (politeness).

Textual Functions

Textual functions refer to how language is used to structure discourse and ensure that it flows logically and cohesively, connecting individual sentences or utterances into a unified whole. These functions are essential for creating cohesive passages, whether in conversations or written texts. According to Brinton (1996), textual functions include a range of activities such as initiating and closing discourse, marking shifts in topics, signaling new versus given information, and ensuring that utterances are relevant to the broader context of the conversation or text. These functions are not only sentence-level concerns but are integral to organizing the overall discourse. Halliday's (1970) view of textual mode emphasizes the importance of organizing language in ways that are relevant to the context, using theme-focus structures, managing the distribution of new and old information, and maintaining cohesive relations across discourse.

In oral communication, textual functions are frequently realized through the turn-taking system, where participants manage who speaks and when, and through repair mechanisms that help speakers correct misunderstandings or clarify their points mid-conversation. Brinton (1996) highlights that while turn-taking is specific to conversation, it has parallels in written discourse, where paragraphs and episodes are used to organize chunks of information. For example, marking topic shifts and organizing discourse into sections or chunks are crucial for maintaining coherence in both spoken and written contexts. In written discourse, textual functions are manifested through logical divisions like paragraphing, as well as through the structuring of episodes or narratives, which help create coherence over larger stretches of text.

Another key aspect of textual functions is ensuring relevance between adjoining utterances. Speakers and writers use markers to constrain relevance, guiding their audience on how different parts of the discourse relate to each other. This process is essential for both oral and written communication, where speakers need to manage the relevance of each statement within the larger context of the discussion. Repair markers, for instance, are used in conversation to maintain coherence, while written discourse benefits from planning and editing,

reducing the need for such markers. Overall, textual functions work on a global level, structuring utterances, helping both speakers and writers to create discourse that is cohesive, relevant, and well-organized (Aijmer, 2018; Brinton, 1996; Fung & Carter, 2007).

Opening Frame Marker. An opening frame marker is a discourse marker used to signal the start of a new segment or topic within a conversation. It helps structure the dialogue by indicating a shift in focus or the introduction of new information, allowing participants to recognize that a different phase or idea is about to be discussed. These markers help guiding the listener to pay attention to the upcoming content.

Closing Frame Marker. A Closing Frame Marker is a discourse marker used to signal the end of a particular segment of conversation, task, or interaction. It indicates that the speaker is wrapping up their contribution, signaling to the listener that the topic or activity is concluding. These markers help ensure smooth transitions and the clear conclusion of dialogue. From the data of the study, transcription extracts show instances where discourse markers like "well," "okay," and "yes" are used by participants to indicate the closing of a segment or task. These markers often reflect the speakers' intention to signal the end of an activity or provide a cue that they are ready to transition.

Turn Taker. Turn Taker is a discourse marker used by a speaker to signal that they are taking their turn in the conversation. It helps manage the flow of dialogue by indicating when one speaker is ready to speak or take over the conversation from another. From the data of the study, transcription extracts show instances where discourse markers like "well," "okay," and "and" are used by participants to manage turn-taking, signal transitions, or close segments of the conversation.

Turn Giver. A turn giver is a discourse marker that shows the speaker is ready to pass the conversation to someone else. These markers play a key role in keeping the interaction smooth by indicating that the speaker has finished and allowing the other person to speak. Words like "okay," "right," or "well" are common examples, often used at the end of a statement

to signal that it's the listener's turn to continue the conversation. Turn givers help manage the flow of dialogue effectively.

Repair Marker. A repair marker indicates that a speaker is correcting, revising, or clarifying something they or another speaker has previously said. It often signals a shift in the conversation to address a mistake, misunderstanding, or imprecision in the prior discourse. They often interrupt the flow of speech to correct or refine the previous statement. They help to maintain understanding between speakers by addressing potential confusion or errors. Repair markers serve to readjust the conversation, making it clearer or more accurate. It includes correcting what the other person said and self-repair when the speaker corrects their own speech.

Sequence & Relevance Marker. In Brinton's framework, sequence and relevance markers help structure the flow of ideas in a conversation. These discourse markers serve two purposes: guiding the order of events and ensuring that each point is connected logically to what came before.

Interpersonal Functions

Interpersonal functions of discourse markers refer to the ways in which these markers facilitate social interaction and manage relationships between speakers. These functions help in expressing attitudes, emotions, and social alignment, and they often serve to maintain the flow of conversation, ensure cooperation, and negotiate meaning. For instance, interpersonal discourse markers can indicate a speaker's response, show understanding or agreement, and help maintain politeness or save face. These markers also play a role in backchanneling, enabling speakers to show attention or signal readiness to continue the dialogue. According to Brinton (1996,2017), discourse markers serve interpersonal functions that can be categorized into two primary roles. First, subjectively, they help express the speaker's attitude or personal stance toward the information being conveyed. Second, interactively, discourse markers foster

intimacy between the speaker and the addressee by appealing to shared knowledge or experiences.

Brinton (1996,2017) categorizes interpersonal functions into markers that express responses, backchannels (e.g., "yeah," "mhm"), and markers that seek confirmation or politeness (e.g., "right," "okay"). These markers help regulate social interaction and are crucial for maintaining interpersonal rapport, particularly in collaborative or task-based communication settings (Fung & Carter, 2007). Schiffrin (1987) and Aijmer (2013) emphasize the multifunctionality of discourse markers, suggesting that these markers not only manage speaker relationships but also play a key role in expressing speaker intentions, such as agreement, disagreement, or politeness. This highlights the importance of understanding discourse markers' role in social interaction across various conversational contexts.

Confirmation Seekers. Confirmation-seekers are one of the interpersonal functions of discourse markers, helping the speaker interpersonally achieve cooperation or share information. This function includes requesting confirmation from the listener, ensuring mutual understanding or agreement. Also, speaker can also check the other person’s understanding to ensure the listener has correctly understood the information they provided. It is a way for the speaker to check if the listener shares the same knowledge or perception, fostering cooperation and maintaining smooth interaction. In my data, confirmation-seekers was identified through markers like "right," "okay?" and "no". These markers are used by the speaker to seek confirmation from the listener, ensuring that mutual understanding is maintained.

Back-Channel Signals. Brinton (1996) discusses backchanneling signals as part of the interpersonal functions of discourse markers. These signals, such as "yeah," "uh-huh," "mhm," or even "okay," indicate active listening and understanding, providing feedback to the speaker without taking over the conversation. Yngve (1970) first introduced the concept of backchannels, noting that words like "yes," "uh-huh," and "mhm" can serve as minimal responses that indicate a listener is following the speaker without taking over the conversation.

Similarly, Gardner (2001) discusses how "yes" and similar discourse markers function as backchannels to signal attentiveness and encourage the speaker to continue without asserting new information.

Face-Savers. Face-savers are an interpersonal function of discourse markers used to soften the impact of disagreement, correction, or rejection in conversation. They maintain politeness by reducing the directness of potentially face-threatening statements, ensuring that interactions remain respectful and cooperative. This function helps speakers to express disagreement or corrections in a way that is less confrontational.

Data Analysis

The data analysis process involved several steps to systematically examine the discourse marker use among Turkish EFL learners in one-way and two-way information gap tasks. After the audio recordings from the task sessions were transcribed verbatim, they were transferred to MAXQDA, a qualitative data analysis software useful for analyzing large volumes of textual data. Then, the data was systematically organized to facilitate accessibility and analysis. This organization involved segmenting the transcripts by individual tasks and participants to ensure the ease of coding and analysis. Guided by Brinton's (1996, 2017) framework, the transcripts were analyzed through qualitative content analysis, which aims to categorize textual units to draw verbal conclusions (Krippendorff, 2018). The process followed throughout the qualitative content analysis was deductive, since the selected framework was utilized as the coding scheme. Accordingly, two main functions of discourse markers (i.e. textual and interpersonal) were the categories, and the specific types of functions (e.g. frame markers, turn-takers) constituted the codes.

The next step involved a detailed review of the transcripts to identify the occurrences of discourse markers. As such, each instance of an identified discourse marker was noted with its contextual usage based on its function. Following, the identified discourse markers were deductively coded using the predetermined coding scheme based on Brinton's framework. This

categorization was essential for analyzing the role and function of discourse markers within the spoken interactions. In the first cycle of the coding process, each marker was coded for its specific function. In the second cycle, the coded segments were categorized according to textual and interpersonal functions.

After the coding procedure, the findings were analyzed to compare the use of discourse markers across one-way and two-way information gap tasks. This comparative analysis helped identify not only the common and divergent uses of discourse markers but also how task design influences their functional deployment. This phase was instrumental in drawing connections between task type, discourse marker usage, and communicative effectiveness. At this final step, the findings were synthesized to highlight how different task features affect the use and function of discourse markers. This synthesis provided descriptive insights into the strategic uses of discourse markers by Turkish EFL learners and offered implications for teaching practices aimed at enhancing pragmatic competence. Through these comprehensive steps, the qualitative content analysis provided deep insights into the pragmatic functions of discourse markers in EFL settings, informing both theoretical understanding and practical applications in language learning and teaching, as well as providing insights on how different task features affect interactional language use.

To establish construct validity, this study employed Brinton's framework (1996, 2017) on discourse markers. A thorough analysis of voice recordings was conducted to ensure that the elements of the data measured were accurately represented. Additionally, the research enhanced external validity by using a replication strategy, incorporating three distinct tasks for each task type (one-way and two-way). This approach allows for stronger generalization of findings across similar contexts.

Table 4

The Coding Scheme Used for Deductive Qualitative Content Analysis

Categories	Codes	Description
Textual Functions	*Opening frame marker*	Used to initiate discourse, including claiming the attention of the hearer.
	Topic switcher	Serves to indicate a new topic or a partial shift in the current topic.
	Turn Taker Signal	Helps the speaker in acquiring or relinquishing the speaking floor.
	Filler/Turn Keeper	Acts as a filler or delaying tactic used to sustain discourse or hold the floor.
	Information indicator	Denotes either new or old information, clarifying the status of the content.
	Sequence marker	Marks sequential dependence or order within the conversation.
	Repair marker	Employed to repair one's own or others' discourse interruptions or misunderstandings.
	Closing frame marker	Used to conclude a segment of discourse or the entire discourse.
Interpersonal Functions	*Response marker* *Back-channeling signals* *Agreement marker* *Disagreement marker*	Expresses a response or reaction to the preceding discourse; includes back-channel signals of understanding and continued attention while another speaker is having their turn.
	Confirmation-seekers *Face-savers*	Engaged to effect cooperation or sharing; includes confirming shared assumptions, checking, or expressing understanding, requesting confirmation, expressing difference, or saving face (politeness).

Regarding reliability, the focus was on achieving intercoder agreement. The research adhered to a strict study protocol, ensuring that every step of the data collection and analysis processes was clearly outlined. For instance, all tasks were carried out under consistent conditions, with the same instructions provided to participants for each session. This uniformity in task execution reinforces the reliability of the findings and minimizes potential biases in the data.

To ensure the reliability of the coding process, a subset of the data was independently coded by a second researcher, using the same coding scheme. This step was crucial for verifying the consistency and objectivity of the analysis. The intercoder reliability was assessed by comparing the independently coded data sets, resolving discrepancies through discussion, and refining the coding schema as needed (Miles Huberman, 1994).

Chapter 4

Findings, Comments, and Discussion

This chapter explores the frequency distribution and functional use of discourse markers among Turkish EFL learners engaged in one-way and two-way information gap tasks. The analysis begins by investigating frequency distribution. Afterward, the focus shifts to a function-based analysis, where both interpersonal and textual functions of discourse markers are examined. Each function is analyzed within the context of the task types, allowing for a thorough understanding of how discourse markers are used to facilitate communication in both one-way and two-way information gap tasks.

The frequency analysis of discourse markers across six information gap tasks, three two-way (Tasks 1, 3, and 5) and three one-way (Tasks 2, 4, and 6), reveals significant variations between task types (two-way vs. one-way) and across functional categories (textual vs. interpersonal). Overall, discourse marker usage was notably higher in two-way tasks, which naturally required more interaction and turn-taking, compared to one-way tasks, which were more monologic. For two-way tasks, the total frequencies of textual functions were highest in Task 3 (f=172), followed by Task 1 (f=45) and Task 5 (f=33). Interpersonal functions showed similar patterns, with Task 3 displaying the highest frequency (f=198), followed by Task 1 (f=58) and Task 5 (f=6). In contrast, one-way tasks had lower overall frequencies. Textual functions totaled (f=15) in Task 2, (f=64) in Task 4, and (f=75) in Task 6, while interpersonal functions recorded (f=12) in Task 2, (f=74) in Task 4, and f=101 in Task 6. These patterns reflect the different communicative demands of the task types.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution of the Pragmatic Functions

Discourse markers	Two-way			One-way		
	Task 1 (12 min.)	Task 3 (34 min.)	Task 5 (6 min.)	Task 2 (5 min.)	Task 4 (13 min.)	Task 6 (12 min.)
Textual functions						
Opening frame	1	2	1	2	4	1
Closing frame	3	17	2	1	7	3
Turn takers	11	53	4	3	12	3
Turn givers	3	10	2	0	6	1
Fillers& turn keepers	19	42	10	6	16	28
Information indicators	0	1	0	0	0	2
Sequence/relevance	6	33	14	1	8	30
Repair markers	0	7	0	2	8	6
Topic switcher	2	7	0	1	3	2
Interpersonal functions						
Back-channel signals	5	30	0	0	10	5
Response/reaction	33	98	6	10	33	38
Agreement	13	55	0	3	25	48
Disagreement	4	1	0	0	1	3
Confirmation-seekers	2	6	0	0	5	6
Face savers	1	8	0	2	0	3

Within textual functions, turn management markers such as "turn takers" and "turn givers" were highly frequent in two-way tasks, particularly Task 3, where turn takers reached (f=53) and turn givers (f=10). These markers were minimal in one-way tasks (e.g., Task 2: turn takers f=3, turn givers f=0), reflecting the lack of shared turn exchanges. Similarly, fillers and turn keepers were common across tasks but peaked in Task 3 (f=42) and Task 6 (f=28), indicating their importance in maintaining speech flow, especially in longer tasks.

Sequence/relevance markers were prominent in Task 3 (f=33) and Task 6 (f=30), emphasizing their role in ensuring coherence during extended exchanges. Repair markers, while less frequent overall, were more common in one-way tasks, particularly Task 4 (f=8) and Task 6 (f=6), likely reflecting the participants' efforts to clarify their monologic output. Opening and closing frames were used sparingly but were more frequent in Task 3, where opening frames reached (f=2) and closing frames f=17, likely due to the extended duration and need for structured discourse in this task. Other textual markers, such as information indicators (f=2 in Task 6) and topic switchers (f=7 in Task 3), were rare across both task types.

Interpersonal functions, on the other hand, showed distinct patterns of usage, with response/reaction markers being the most frequent across all tasks (e.g., Task 3: f=98; Task 6: f=38), highlighting their critical role in interactive communication. Agreement markers were also used extensively in Task 3 (f=55) and Task 6 (f=48), while disagreement markers were rare, appearing most frequently in Task 1 (f=4) and Task 6 (f=3). Back-channel signals were almost exclusively observed in two-way tasks, with Task 3 recording the highest frequency (f=30), while they were nearly absent in one-way tasks, as expected due to the lack of immediate listener feedback. Less frequent interpersonal markers included confirmation-seekers, which were slightly more common in Task 3 (f=6) and Task 6 (f=6), and face savers, which appeared primarily in Task 3 (f=8).

Overall, the findings demonstrate that two-way tasks elicited a greater variety and frequency of discourse markers, especially those related to interaction management, such as turn-takers, back-channel signals, and response/reaction markers. In contrast, one-way tasks emphasized coherence and clarity, leading to a higher reliance on markers like fillers, sequence/relevance markers, and repair markers. Task duration also influenced frequency, with Task 3, the longest task, consistently showing the highest usage across both textual (f=172) and interpersonal (f=198) functions. These patterns highlight how Turkish L2 users adapt their discourse marker use based on the communicative demands of the task type and context.

Functions of Discourse Markers

Discourse markers are essential linguistic elements that not only structure conversations but also regulate interactions, playing a critical role in effective communication. Broadly speaking, their functions fall into two categories: textual and interpersonal. Textual functions pertain to the organization and flow of speech, aiding in sequencing information and creating cohesive links between ideas. On the other hand, interpersonal functions help manage interactions between speakers, facilitating turn-taking, signaling responses, and maintaining engagement.

Table 6

Summary of Discourse Markers and their Functions Identified in the Dataset

Type	Function	Example
Textual	Opening frame marker	so, okay,
	Closing frame marker	okay, right
	Turn takers & turn giver	ok, yeah, and uhh, well
	Fillers & turn keeper	um, uhh, and
	Information indicator	okay, now
	Sequence/relevance marker	so, and, and then, okay
	Repair markers	well, I mean, you know, like, no actually
	Topic Switcher	so, okay, let's
Interpersonal	Back-channel signal	mhm, uh huh, yes, okay
	Response/reaction	oh okay, yeah, yes, mhm
	Cooperation & agreement marker	okay, yes, I think, probably, mhm, yeah, right
	Disagreement marker	but, no
	Confirmation-seeker	right?, okay? no? yes?
	Face savers	I think, okay actually

The table provides a summary of the discourse markers (DMs) identified in the dataset, categorizing them into textual and interpersonal functions. Among the DMs used in the data, “okay” was the most frequently used (631 instances), reflecting its multifunctionality across both textual and interpersonal modes. Other common markers include “yes” (360 instances) and “uhh” (131 instances). For example, markers like “okay” and “so” act as opening frame markers, signaling the start of a new topic or phase, while right and okay function as closing frame markers, marking the conclusion of a topic or task. Additionally, “and”, “okay”, and “so” are used as sequence/relevance markers to guide the logical progression of ideas. Other textual functions include fillers and turn keepers (e.g., uhh, um), which help maintain fluency during pauses, and repair markers (e.g., well, like), which aid in clarifying or revising statements.

Interpersonal functions focus on the social and interactive dimensions of communication. Markers like “mhm, yes, and okay” are used as back-channel signals, showing attentiveness and encouraging the speaker to continue. Similarly, “oh okay” and “yeah” are employed as response/reaction markers, confirming comprehension or agreement. Cooperative and agreement-related markers, such as “right” and “probably”, facilitate alignment between speakers, whereas markers like but and no signal disagreement or contrast. Confirmation-seekers, such as “right?” and “okay?”, and face savers, such as I think and okay actually, mitigate face-threatening acts and soften statements.

Case of One-Way Tasks

This section examines the one-way information gap tasks, where communication flows in a single direction. It presents examples from the data, explaining how discourse markers were used to structure speech and manage interaction, considering both textual and interpersonal functions.

Interpersonal Functions

Extract 1

Extract exemplifying the use of “right” as a *confirmation seeker* in task 6

74 MELİKE: His mother, uhh... is running to the Calvin (.) to give the meal.
75 SİBEL: Okay (.) I think she is stressful (.) right? ↑
76 MELİKE: Yes (.) yes (.)
77 SİBEL: This one (.)
78 MELİKE: That’s right (.)

In extract 2, Pos. 75, Sibel uses the discourse marker "right?" to confirm their interpretation of the situation, specifically that Calvin's mother appears to be stressed. The phrase "I think she is stressful (.) right?" functions as a classic confirmation-seeker. Sibel is seeking confirmation from Melike to ensure that their understanding aligns with what Melike has described. This discourse marker serves as a request for feedback, inviting Melike to either agree or correct the interpretation. The rising intonation of "right?" further emphasizes the speaker's need for confirmation. This rising intonation is a common feature of confirmation-seekers, signaling that the speaker is unsure or wants to verify the accuracy of their assumption.

Extract 2

Extract exemplifying the use of “yes” as a *confirmation seeker* in task 6

8 SİBEL: Hmm (.) okay (.)? There is no tree? ↑
9 MELİKE: ↓Yes.
10 SİBEL: Okay (.) **I think, uhh, the Calvin is in the middle of the picture (.) yes?** ↑
11 MELİKE: Yes (.) uhh He is running, uhh (.) to the right side.
12 SİBEL: Okay (.) I think he has to go to school (.) and I think the first picture is this one (.) Is it true? ↑

In this dialogue, students are engaged in a one-way information gap task. Where Melike has the correct sequence of events in a comic grid and Sibel receives randomly arranged cards of the same events. In this part of the task, Melike narrates the sequence of events from the comic, and Sibel tries to match the pictures with the description. Since some events, like Calvin running, may continue over several grids, Sibel seeks confirmation by asking specific questions to narrow down the exact picture, such as asking if there's a picture of a tree in the scene. This helps Sibel differentiate between similar frames and find the correct one.

In Pos. 10, Sibel uses "yes?" as a confirmation-seeker, checking if their assumption about Calvin's location in the picture is accurate. In this instance, "yes?" with a rising intonation is positioned at the end of the sentence, following a declarative statement: "Calvin is in the middle of the picture." Here, the discourse marker "yes" functions as a confirmation-seeker, meaning Sibel is not asserting the information confidently but rather seeking validation from Melike. This indicates some degree of uncertainty or need for verification.

Extract 3

Extract exemplifying the use of "okay" as a *face-saver/ politeness* in task 6

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136. MELİKE: Hmm (.) Calvin arrived at the school (.) and uhh he is running right now (.) uhh with his meal (.) and she came across the little girl again (.) The little girl opened the wardrobe (.) and turned Calvin (.) Looking at Calvin. ↓

137 SİBEL: Cal- Calvin's hands (.) there is milk? ↑

138 MELİKE: Oka::y (.) actually (.) it is meal. ↓

139 SİBEL: Okay. ↓

In extract 4, Position 138 ("Okay, actually, it is meal"), both "okay" and "actually" work together, but it is "okay" that softens the correction and makes it more polite. "Okay" acknowledges what Sibel said, and helps Melike deliver the correction in a friendly and non-confrontational way. This makes the correction less harsh and prevents Sibel from feeling embarrassed. It acts as a polite buffer, making the conversation smoother and more respectful.

Extract 4

Extract exemplifying the use of “okay” as a *backchanneling signal* in task 4

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28 S1: okay I can explain my uhh first floor.
29 S2: okay
30 S1: uhh I have a refrigerator uhh in the right side the floor.
31 S2: okay
32 S1: and it has two handles
33 S2: okay
34 S1: and uhh first one is the uhh up and the other one is the down.
35 S2: okay
36 S1: and uhh… there is a how can I say it? Okay and next to the refrigerator, the left side,
37 S2: okay
38 S1: I think it is oven.

In this dialogue, Sibel’s repeated use of "okay" are examples of backchanneling (Pos. 29, 31, 33, 35, and 37). Each instance occurs at natural pauses in Melike’s speech, where Melike is providing an extended description of the floor plan. Importantly, Sibel does not attempt to take over the conversation, respond, or ask for clarification; instead, Sibel uses "okay" solely to signal that they are actively listening and following along with the information being provided. This is consistent with the role of backchannels, which are used to indicate attentiveness without taking a turn or shifting the topic (Brinton, 1996). Each "okay" here functions to maintain conversational flow by offering minimal feedback that does not disrupt Melike’s speech. The absence of any turn-taking or clarification requests reinforces that Sibel does not seek to engage in a full turn, but is simply acknowledging Melike’s speech as it unfolds.

Extract 5

Extract exemplifying the use of “yes” as an *agreement marker* in task 6

---

19 MELİKE: and uhh when he is running, he came across a girl uhh little girl.
20 SİBEL: okay. this girl is looking the uhh [Calvin]
21 MELİKE: [Calvin] Yes.
22 SİBEL: and I think he speaks about something right?
23 MELİKE: yes, correct.

In this one-way information gap task Melike has the correct order of a comic strip, while Sibel has shuffled images and needs Melike’s descriptions to understand the sequence. In this dialogue the discourse marker “yes” functions as an agreement marker, confirming shared understanding at key points in their interaction. When Melike describes Calvin encountering a girl, Sibel clarifies by asking if the girl is looking at Calvin, which in Pos. 21, Melike confirms with “yes.” Later, when Sibel suggests that Calvin is speaking, Melike again, in Pos. 23, confirms with a yes. Here, “yes” helps align both speakers’ views, keeping the exchange clear and focused.

Extract 6

Extract exemplifying the use of “no” as a *disagreement marker* in task 6

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92 MELİKE: ...she sees his friends and uhh this little girl uhh trying to uhh tell them where uhh he was going.
93 SİBEL: okay. Is there a bus here?
94 MELİKE: **no, there is no bus.**
95 SİBEL: no. Um...

In this part of task 6, “no” functions as a disagreement marker, clarifying and correcting misunderstandings. When Sibel asks, “there is a bus here?” Melike replies with “no, there is no bus,” directly rejecting this idea and helping Sibel adjust their understanding. This use of “no” keeps the exchange clear by quickly correcting any misinterpretation of the scene.

Extract 7

Extract exemplifying the use of “okay” as a *response marker* in task 2

5 MELİKE: uhh...where are the chairs?
6 SİBEL: uhh I think you say. you should say.
7 MELİKE: **oh okay.** there are- is are there- no sorry. are they apart from each other?
8 SİBEL: yes.

In this one-way picture-finding task, Melike has five pictures, while Sibel has only one, identical to one of Melike’s pictures. Melike’s task is to identify which of her pictures matches Sibel’s. When Sibel says, “you should say,” reminding Melike to avoid direct questions, Melike responds with “oh okay.” Here in Pos.7 “oh okay” serves as a response marker, simply acknowledging Sibel’s suggestion.

Textual Functions

Extract 8

Extract exemplifying the use of “now” as an *opening frame marker* in task 4

104 SİBEL: yes. one block. okay did you draw?
105 MELİKE: yes
106 SİBEL: **now there are three blocks** on the carpet- floor and also there is one block uhh the last one above. It’s just like an L, looks like L.
107 MELİKE: looks like an L. ((finishes drawing)) okay.

This extract is from a task where one student, Sibel, has a complete floor plan, must describe the positions of furniture and objects, while the other student, Melike, with a blank floor plan must draw the placements accurately. In this part of the dialogue, after confirming that Melike has completed the previous step "okay did you draw?", Sibel introduces the next instruction with "now there is three blocks on the carpet."

In Pos. 106 an opening frame marker is used to signal a shift. In this case, Sibel is introducing a new piece of information to move to the next phase of the task (describing the

next blocks). The phrase "now" marks this shift in attention to a different part of the task, indicating a new step in the description process. This use of "now" serves as an opening frame marker, guiding Melike to focus on a new set of instructions. The phrase indicates that Sibel is transitioning to a different part of the task, helping structure the conversation and ensuring the dialogue progresses smoothly.

Extract 9

Extract exemplifying the use of “so” as an *opening frame marker* in task 6

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1 **MELİKE: so, one day uhh there is a- a boy.** his name is Calvin and he woke up to go to the school and- but, her mother uhh screamed because uhh he was late for school and his mother uhh said uhh you had to be uhh punctual and she uhh points the door and says go to the school.
2 SİBEL: okay.
3 MELİKE: and then she started running to school.

In this task, Melike is given the correct sequence of events from a comic grid, while Sibel holds the same events on randomly shuffled cards. Melike’s role is to guide Sibel in arranging the cards to match the correct order of the story without revealing the visual sequence. This exercise challenges participants to use clear, descriptive language and to listen carefully in order to reconstruct the narrative in the correct sequence.

This portion of the task is also the beginning of the dialogue; in Pos. 1, Melike starts with "so" at the beginning of the description, introducing the first event in the story: "one day there is a boy…" Here, "so" functions as an opening frame marker, signaling the beginning of the narrative and focusing attention on the start of the task. This marker sets the stage for what follows by framing the context of the story.

Extract 10

Extract exemplifying the use of “okay” as a *closing frame marker* in task 6

158	SİBEL: yes. there is only her mother. and-
159	MELİKE: desk and notebooks-
160	SİBEL: yes. and she is screaming. this one.
161	MELİKE: yes. right↓
162	SİBEL: **okay we finished.**

In this task, students' aim was to arrange shuffled comic strip events in the correct sequence based on verbal descriptions. Melike had the correct sequence of events from a comic grid, while Sibel held the same events on shuffled cards. Melike’s role was to guide Sibel in arranging the cards to match the correct order of the story without revealing the visual sequence. This portion of the dialogue marks the end of the task.

At the end of the dialogue, Sibel uses "okay, we finished" in Pos. 162, where "okay" functions as a Closing Frame Marker. Sibel signals the end of the task, indicating that the arrangement is complete and there is no further action required. "Okay" here provides a sense of finality, wrapping up both the conversation and the task itself.

Extract 11

Extract exemplifying the use of “okay” as a *turn taker* in task 2

18	MELİKE: What color is the curtain? ↑
19	SİBEL: uhh… red.
20	MELİKE: **Okay (.)** and how many pillows are there?
21	SİBEL: Three pillows.
22	SİBEL: Okay(.) and I think I found out.

In Task 2, a one-way information gap activity, the goal is for Melike to identify which of her six pictures matches the one held by Sibel. Sibel provides descriptions, and Melike must determine the correct match based on this information.

In this extract from Task 2, the discourse marker "okay" in Position 20 functions as a Turn Taker. is used to signal the speaker's intention to take the floor or to continue speaking. It shows that Melike is about to start or resume their turn. After receiving the response from Sibel ("red"), Melike uses "okay" to acknowledge the answer and smoothly transition to the next question.

Extract 12

Extract exemplifying the use of "okay" as a *turn giver* in task 4

158	SİBEL: uhh it looks like a circle. You can draw a circle.
159	MELİKE: okay (0.5) ((finishes drawing)) **okay.**
160	SİBEL: and then, you draw another circle in the circle.
161	MELİKE: okay.

In this one-way drawing task, Sibel provides step-by-step instructions, and Melike follows by drawing each element. In Pos. 159 after completing a drawing, Melike says "okay". Here it serves to indicate that the drawing is complete and subtly signals Sibel to proceed with the next instruction. Although this task doesn't involve active turn taking/giving process, Melike's "okay" functions as a way of giving Sibel the cue to take her turn.

Extract 13

Extract exemplifying the use of "uhh" as a *filler/ turn keeper* in task 2

11	MELİKE: it is on the uhh table?
12	SİBEL: yes.
13	MELİKE: okay. **uhh... do you have uhh (.)any window?**
14	SİBEL: okay yes. there is window.

In this task, "uhh" functions as a filler for several purposes. It signals hesitation, shows thinking in progress, and indicates searching for the right words. In Pos. 11, Melike uses "uhh" before "table" to pause briefly, while in Pos. 13, she uses it twice as she forms her question. These fillers help her hold her turn and keep the conversation flowing without interruption.

Extract 14

Extract exemplifying the use of “so” as a *topic switcher* in task 4

107 MELİKE: Uhh, I finished drawing.
108 SİBEL: Okay, it’s all. So, uhh behind the floor, there is a television on the TV stand.
109 MELİKE: Behind the floor?
110 SİBEL: Yes, there is a TV stand.

In this task, the “so” functions as a topic switcher. After Melike indicates they’ve completed the drawing, Sibel responds with “okay, it’s all” and uses “so” to shift the focus to a new detail about the room layout. In Pos. 108, “so” marks a transition in the conversation, moving from wrapping up one part to describing a different area, which makes it function as a topic switcher. This use of “so” guides the conversation smoothly into a new aspect of the task.

Extract 15

Extract exemplifying the use of “okay” as a *repair marker* in task 2

23 SİBEL: and next to the door there is a desk (.) just a desk.
24 MELİKE: on the right side (.) okay
25 SİBEL: just a desk, yes.
26 MELİKE: okay.
27 SİBEL: and on **the sofa- okay (.) on the desk,** there is a mouse and a desk light.
28 MELİKE: one mouse, one desk light, okay.

In Task 4, Sibel describes the furniture layout to Melike, who is drawing based on the verbal instructions. Their goal is to place the objects correctly on the floor plan. During this exchange, Sibel gives instructions about where the mouse and desk light are located. In Pos. 35, Sibel starts by saying "on the sof-" but quickly realizes this description is incorrect and immediately self-corrects by saying "okay, on the desk." Sibel then continues to clarify the position of the desk light. The discourse marker "okay" here serves as a repair marker.

Extract 16

Extract exemplifying the use of “and then” as a *sequence marker* in task 2

---

111 MELİKE: [bus] Calvin and mother yes.
112 SİBEL: and probably he ran out of the bus.
…
116 SİBEL: okay.
117 MELİKE: **uhh and then,** Calvin says to her- his mother, I forgot my notebook in house, so uhh his mother is screaming to the Calvin. in this picture.
118 SİBEL: yes hmm. uhh I- Calvin’s mother is screaming
119 MELİKE: yes.

In this task, students are working to put the shuffled comic strip events in the correct order. Melike has the correct sequence and is describing the events to guide Sibel in arranging the cards accurately. In this part of the dialogue, Melike uses "and then" to introduce the next action in the sequence: Calvin telling his mother that he forgot his notebook. In this context, "and then" acts as a sequence marker, guiding the story from one event to the next. By using it, Melike helps the narrative flow smoothly, making it clear to Sibel what happens next and how to arrange the cards. It ensures that Sibel understands the sequence of events, which is crucial for successfully completing the task.

Case of Two-Way Tasks

This section illustrates the two-way tasks, where communication is reciprocal. It presents examples from the data, explaining how discourse markers are used to structure speech and manage interaction, focusing on both textual and interpersonal functions.

Interpersonal Functions

Extract 17

Extract exemplifying the use of “okay” as a *confirmation seeker* in task 3

405 MELİKE: ... uhh (.) there is just a sofa in this picture (.) I can’t see anything except this (.) and it has three cushions on it.
...
411 SİBEL: This part is taller than the other (.) maybe.
412 MELİKE: What?
413 SİBEL: uhh (.) the sofa looks like an L (.) **okay?** ↑
414 MELİKE: Yes (.) the sofa is very big (.) it covers all of the floor (.) **okay?** ↑
415 SİBEL: Okay (.)

In Pos. 413, S2 is making a guess or assumption about the shape of the sofa, specifically that it looks like an "L." By adding "okay?" with rising intonation, Sibel is seeking confirmation from Melike. The purpose is to check if Melike understood the instruction. In this context, "okay?" functions to invite validation, making it a clear confirmation-seeker. Again, the rising tone indicates that Melike is seeking reassurance that their description has been correctly interpreted. Pos. 414, Melike is describing the size of the sofa and uses "okay?" at the end to confirm whether Sibel has understood the description correctly. Melike is essentially asking if the information has been received and comprehended by Sibel. Similar to Pos. 413, "okay?" here serves as a confirmation-seeker, but the focus is on confirming whether the listener has grasped the conveyed information rather than making a guess.

Extract 18

Extract exemplifying the use of “I think” as a *face saver* in task 3

104 MELİKE: did you understand?
105 SİBEL: yes I understand
106 MELİKE: okay
107 SİBEL: okay, the left side, there is refrigerator right?
108 MELİKE: **I think the right side**
109 SİBEL: oh the right side sorry

In Task 3 Pos. 108, "I think" is used by Melike as a face saver. When Sibel asks, "There is a refrigerator on the left side, right?" Melike responds with "I think the right side." indicating that Sibel is wrong. The use of "I think" softens the correction, making it less direct and more polite. The use of "I think" makes this correction more tactful, it helps preserve both speakers' face by presenting the disagreement in a less confrontational way.

Extract 19

Extract exemplifying the use of "okay" as a *backchanneling signal* in task 3

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60 MELİKE: ...it is the next uhh to the oven.
61 SİBEL: **okay**
62 MELİKE: they are not apart from each other
63 SİBEL: **okay**
64 MELİKE: I think there is a- uhh it is a, what is it in English, huh mmm it's like a wardrobe,
65 SİBEL: **okay**
66 MELİKE: but it's in the kitchen you know haha what it is
67 SİBEL: mhm yeah
68 MELİKE: and it has err three point. it has three point.

In this task, Sibel uses backchannels throughout the dialogue to indicate active listening and encourage Melike to continue describing. Each "okay" in Pos. 61, 63, and 65 functions as a backchannel that acknowledges Melike's statements without interrupting or taking over the conversation. Similarly, "mhm yeah" in Line 67, besides signaling agreement, also acts as a backchannel response. Sibel shows understanding and engagement, without interrupting Melike. These backchannels help maintain the flow of the dialogue, signaling that Sibel is actively following along.

Extract 20

Extract exemplifying the use of “okay” as an *agreement marker* in task 1

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10 MELİKE: mhm (.) mhm and my third picture is (.) it has a dog (.) uhh (.) there are some melodies.
11 SİBEL: **Okay.** ↓
12 MELİKE: in front of the dog (.) umm (.) I can’t see anything apart from this (.) I think they are different.
13 SİBEL: Okay (.) it's different (.) and my other picture is… there is also a dog (.) and it is lying (.) and behind the dog (.) there is a musical thing.

In task 1, in Pos. 13, Sibel’s use of "okay" acts as an agreement marker to confirm her understanding of Melike's description. After Melike mentions that the pictures are different, Sibel responds with “okay,” signaling her agreement and acknowledging that the pictures are indeed different. This use of "okay" helps with the shared understanding between the two participants.

Extract 21

Extract exemplifying the use of “no” as a *disagreement marker* in task 1

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53 MELİKE: uhh okay (.) does your first picture has bird?
54 SİBEL: **no, not bird.** there is no-
55 MELİKE: no bird, okay. first one is not the same. okay?
56 SİBEL: okay.

In this task, “no, not bird” in Pos. 54 serves as a disagreement marker. Sibel uses “no” to correct Melike’s assumption about the presence of a bird in the first picture. This brief disagreement marker clarifies that Melike’s interpretation was incorrect, allowing them to adjust their understanding before moving forward in the task.

Extract 22

Extract exemplifying the use of “okay” as a *response marker* in task 1

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34 SİBEL: Okay, your turn.
35 MELİKE: and this is my seventh picture (.) I can- I see three melodies, and the bird is [walking on the melodies and, like that].
36 SİBEL: **[Oh okay.]** ↓
37 SİBEL: Okay. (.) it- I think it is different, and my sixth picture is there is also one dog (.) and one bird (.) they are in the something, and the dog is sad, I think (.) he is looking at something.

In this extract from Task 1, “okay” is used by Sibel as a response marker to acknowledge and process Melike's description. In Line 36, Sibel says, “Oh okay,” to show that she has received and understood Melike’s description of the seventh picture. This use of “okay” confirms that Sibel is following along, signaling her comprehension.

Textual Functions

Extract 22

Extract exemplifying the use of “okay” as an *opening frame marker* in task 1

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1 SİBEL: **okay. uhh my first picture is..** uhh there is- the right thing is hockey today if bird bath freezes.
2 MELİKE: hmm my first picture is- there is a cloud in this picture, and I see a tree and also I see a bird but this bird is not on the tree. yes, my first picture like that.

In this two-way information gap task, each student has a set of eight pictures, with one identical and the others containing slight differences. The goal is to identify the matching picture through verbal descriptions. In the dialogue, "okay" functions as an opening frame marker. Sibel uses it to signal the beginning of her description, helping to organize the interaction and transition smoothly into the task of explaining her picture. It sets the stage for the following conversation.

Extract 23

Extract exemplifying the use of “okay” as a *closing frame marker* in task 5

436	MELİKE: I see something in this picture. it looks like a light.
437	SİBEL: light. lamp?
438	MELİKE: yes. above the sofa
439	SİBEL: okay. okay
440	MELİKE: it’s like a rich light.
441	SİBEL: okay.
442	MELİKE: **okay. finished.**

In Task 3, students describe halves of a house plan to each other to complete their missing sections. Their goal is to complete the plan collaboratively by sharing information. In this portion of task 3, "okay. finished" by Melike functions as a closing frame marker. This indicates they have concluded their description of the shared house plan. Here “okay” provides a clear boundary, helping both students understand that their objective is accomplished.

Extract 24

Extract exemplifying the use of “well” as a *turn taker* in task 3

6	MELİKE: where is this car?
7	SİBEL: uhh in the middle of the garage.
8	MELİKE: okay.
9	SİBEL: and the car is big
10	MELİKE: big
11	SİBEL: yes [just like a jeep haha
12	MELİKE: **[well**
13	MELİKE: It’s not like a jeep for me because I can’t uhh draw like it.

Task 3 requires the students to complete the missing half of the house plan by giving and receiving descriptions without showing their drawings to each other. In this particular dialogue, Sibel describes what is in the garage, providing specific instructions to guide Melike. "Well" in Pos. 12 helps Melike smoothly interject after Sibel’s comment, marking the point

where Melike enters the conversation to provide their differing perspective. By using "well" Melike signals they are taking the floor, offering clarification that the car doesn't resemble a jeep from their point of view because of their drawing limitations.

Extract 25

Extract exemplifying the use of "and" as a *turn taker* in task 3

431	MELİKE: you can draw them like a circle
432	SİBEL: circle?
433	MELİKE: yes. but they are on the sofa
434	SİBEL: okay.
	((silence))
435	SİBEL: **a:nd is there anything?**
436	MELİKE: I see something in this picture. it looks like a light.

In this portion of task 3, Melike describes what is on the sofa, and Sibel acknowledges the information with "okay" in Pos. 434. After a brief silence, In Pos. 435 "And is there anything?" functions to re-establish Sibel's role in the conversation. Here, "and" functions as a turn-taking marker, allowing Sibel to continue the conversation and invite Melike to elaborate further.

Extract 26

Extract exemplifying the use of "yes" as a *turn giver* in task 5

7	SİBEL: …and Jack is happy now because probably he thinks that her girlfriend is uh soon come. the home.
8	MELİKE: and when he is looking at the window- when he was looking from the window, uhh he got a call from her- from his ex-girlfriend and suddenly he uhh went from the house. **uhh yes?**
9	SİBEL: okay and then, he goes to out and again, he returned home, and he understand that his girlfriend is not coming, and he decides to drink alone.

Task 5 required students to work together to collaboratively construct a story by using different sets of comic strip pictures they are given. They were expected to actively negotiate the storyline by describing events they believed were related to the pictures they each had and determining how the story progressed. In this section of the dialogue, the participants seem more focused on describing and continuing the story after the other person speaks, connecting the events rather than negotiating. In Pos. 8, Melike says “er yes?” with a rising tone, inviting continuation. Melike finishes their turn after describing part of the story, which involves Jack receiving a call from his ex-girlfriend and leaving the house. At the end of this description, Melike says, "er yes." signaling to Sibel that they can now contribute.

Table 34

Extract exemplifying the use of “I mean” as a *repair marker* in task 3

172 SİBEL: and we have one table 173 MELİKE: okay 174 SİBEL: it has two hmm two uhh sorry the- **under the I mean on the chair.** 175 MELİKE: okay. 176: SİBEL: there is a flower or something else.

In this part of the dialogue, Sibel describes the living room, particularly focusing on a flower or an object on the chair. Initially, Sibel says, "under the" but quickly realizes this is not accurate and immediately corrects by saying "I mean on the chair." This use of "I mean" is an example of a repair marker because Sibel is self-correcting the locational error made in the previous statement.

Extract 27

Extract exemplifying the use of “actually” as a *repair marker* in task 3

281 MELİKE: and you need to uhh draw something to uhh catch up the floor like string. 282 SİBEL: hmm okay. it looks like bowl. 283 MELİKE: yes **uhh. actually, it’s like a tree,** not like a bowl

In Task 3, Melike and Sibel collaborate to complete a drawing of a house, each responsible for describing their respective halves. They need to ensure their descriptions match so they can accurately draw the missing portions. In this exchange, Melike is describing the living room to Sibel. Sibel initially interprets the object being described as a "bowl." Melike says "actually" to introduce a correction, clarifying that the object is more like a tree, not a bowl. "actually" in Pos. 283 serves as a repair marker. Melike is modifying the initial agreement by introducing a more accurate or preferred description. "Actually" signals that Melike is correcting or refining their previous statement to clarify what the object is shaped like.

Extract 28

Extract exemplifying the use of “so” as a *sequence marker* in task 5

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2 MELİKE: …That's why he bought uhh some alcohol and some snacks, and uhh he’s going to his house.

3 SİBEL: **okay. so after he goes to the house, he realizes something,** he forgot to buy something and then he left the house and go the shopping a mall and he buys a more alcohol because he wants to drink, he is sad.

In this task students construct a story together. In Pos.3 “so” is used to signal progression in the storyline and links the Melike’s description to theirs. Here, “so" works as a sequence marker, helping to show what happens next in the story. After Melike explains that the character goes to the house, Sibel uses "so" to move the story forward, saying that the character realizes he forgot something. By using "so," Sibel keeps the events connected and relevant to each other, making sure the story flows in a clear order. It helps keep the storytelling on track by showing how one event leads to the next in a logical sequence.

Extract 29

Extract exemplifying the use of “uhh” as a *filler/ turn keeper* in task 3

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18 SİBEL: **uhh,** and behind the car **uhh**...there is **uhh**… I can’t remember. okay.
19 MELİKE: where- is this car in front?
20 SİBEL: **uhh**-
21 MELİKE: is it on your left side or right side?
22 SİBEL: I can see the car **uhh,** the perspective of the-
23 MELİKE: back side?
24 SİBEL: yes. not back- next. uhh. not in front (.) not back (.) and…the car is next to the **uhh**- I can’t… **uhh**
((silence))
25 MELİKE: if you have a problem with this picture, we can move to the second floor.
26 SİBEL: okay.

This portion of task 3 exemplifies Sibel’s use of “uhh” both as a filler and a turn-keeping strategy in multiple instances. She uses "uhh" while searching for words, indicating hesitation, and buying time to continue speaking, as seen in lines 18, 20, and 22. This filler helps her maintain her turn and signals that her thought is incomplete. Additionally, "uhh" appears when she struggles to find the right word for what she sees in the picture, particularly when she says, "I can’t remember," and later, "I can’t," followed by another "uhh" in line 24. These instances showcase how "uhh" serves as a means for Sibel to manage the flow of conversation while she organizes her thoughts.

Extract 30

Extract exemplifying the use of “let’s” as a *topic switcher* in task 3

443 MELİKE: I don’t have– I can’t see anything except this chandelier.
444 SİBEL: **Okay, let’s do the roof.**
445 SİBEL: The left side of the roof, there is a flower.
446 MELİKE: Flower?
447 SİBEL: Yes.
448 MELİKE: There is only one flower?
449 SİBEL: It’s– err, it’s just like a white flower.

In this task, earlier in the dialogue, Melike has provided details about the living room, but now she has nothing more to add about that section. In response, in Pos. 444, Sibel says "let’s do the roof" to redirect the topic of conversation and shift the focus to the next part of the house plan. Through this use of "let’s", Sibel helps move the dialogue forward, creating a clear shift from one topic to another. The use of "let’s" here plays an important role in transitioning the discussion from one part of the house (the living room) to another (the roof), ensuring that the task remains structured and organized.

Discussion

The findings revealed that the case of one-way tasks tended to elicit a higher frequency of textual functions, such as sequence markers, while the case of two-way tasks demonstrated a slightly greater emphasis on interpersonal functions, including response markers, and agreement markers. However, these differences were not statistically analyzed but observed frequency-wise. All functions (both textual and interpersonal) were present in both task types, confirming that the tasks were appropriately designed to elicit a variety of discourse marker uses. The primary difference lay in the frequencies of specific functions, which reflected the interactional nature of the dialogues rather than exclusive reliance on one function type in either task type. In the case of one-way tasks, the asymmetrical nature of the information flow appeared to favor textual functions, as participants focused on structuring their discourse and

maintaining coherence. In the case of two-way tasks, the inherently dialogic structure encouraged greater use of interpersonal functions, reflecting the interactive and collaborative demands of the task. These findings align with the work of Long (1983), who noted that two-way tasks promote more negotiation of meaning than one-way tasks, and Doughty and Pica (1986), who observed that tasks requiring information exchange generated more negotiation, supporting the interactive nature of two-way tasks. The study aimed to describe patterns rather than compare them quantitatively. Therefore, frequency counts were used to highlight tendencies and distributions of functions across task types. While differences in frequency were noted, the overall findings emphasize that both textual and interpersonal functions are integral to successful task performance, regardless of task type.

Even though the instances of both textual and interpersonal modes are present in both cases, there are some nuances in the context these functions were used. While the majority of sequence markers appeared in one-way tasks, a closer examination of their usage reveals important nuances across task types. In one-way tasks, sequence markers were predominantly employed by a single participant to organize their speech, with the other participant primarily offering acknowledgment through minimal responses or backchanneling signals. This pattern aligns with the task structure, where one individual holds the information and drives the communication forward. In contrast, instances of sequence markers in two-way tasks reveal a more collaborative dynamic. Here, sequence markers often acted as bridges between speakers, facilitating a co-constructed flow of dialogue. For example, one participant might introduce an idea, and the other would respond by continuing the thread, using a sequence marker to maintain coherence and connection. This interwoven use highlights how sequence markers, while textual in function, can also reflect and reinforce the interactive nature of two-way communication.

Another similar observation can be made in the case of two-way tasks, for example, okay often functioned as a turn-giver or acknowledgment device, facilitating the co-construction of dialogue. This interactive dimension was less pronounced in one-way tasks,

where responses tended to be more directive, only clarifying the information. The confirmation seeker function was present in both one-way and two-way tasks but differed in flow and tone. In the case of two-way tasks, confirmation seeker functions facilitated subtle back-and-forth exchanges, with both participants seeking confirmation, not only of their own understanding but also of the other participant; this created a more interactive exchange. In the case of one-way tasks, the confirmation seeker function was more one-sided, with participants confirming understanding and not elaborating. Therefore, while the confirmation seeker function was used in both task types, it was more dynamic in two-way tasks and more static in one-way tasks.

The analysis revealed a slight difference in the frequency and types of discourse markers (DMs) used in two-way versus one-way tasks. Two-way tasks generally elicited a higher frequency of DMs, reflecting the interactive nature of these tasks, which required increased turn-taking and negotiation of meaning. In these tasks, markers related to interaction management, such as turn-takers (okay, yes) and back-channel signals (mhm, right), were the most frequent. This was particularly evident in the longest task (Task 3), where extended interaction necessitated a greater reliance on these markers to manage conversational flow and maintain engagement between speakers.

In contrast, one-way tasks showed a heavier reliance on coherence markers, including fillers (uhh, um) and sequence/relevance markers (then, so). Task 6, the longest one-way task, demonstrated the highest usage of these markers within its group, suggesting that the demands of maintaining a monologue-like structure required more effort to ensure discourse coherence. These findings align with prior research (e.g., Fung & Carter, 2007), which highlights the increased use of coherence-related markers in asymmetrical interaction. Task duration emerged as a significant factor influencing DM frequency. Longer tasks naturally elicited more markers, with fillers, sequence/relevance markers, and repair markers being particularly prominent. The frequent use of repair markers in one-way tasks underscores the self-reliant nature of these tasks. Speakers often needed to clarify or self-correct their utterances to ensure their message was understood without direct feedback from a listener.

This contrasts with two-way tasks, where immediate interaction allowed for co-constructed meaning, reducing the need for self-correction. These findings highlight the role of task type and duration in shaping DM usage. While two-way tasks promote the use of interactional markers to manage turn-taking and collaboration, one-way tasks rely more heavily on markers that support discourse coherence and speaker self-sufficiency. These differences underline the importance of task design in eliciting specific pragmatic functions of DMs, which has implications for EFL pedagogy. By incorporating a balance of task types, educators can encourage learners to develop a wider range of pragmatic skills, including managing interactions and ensuring discourse coherence.

As Schiffrin (1987), Brinton (1996, 2017), and Asik & Cephe (2013) have demonstrated, DMs are inherently multifunctional, often serving multiple functions simultaneously. This was evident in the task recordings, where a small group of DMs such as “okay, well, yes, and, and then, I think, right” were used in a variety of ways. Müller (2005) supports this view, noting that DMs frequently fulfill more than one function, or at the very least, exhibit sub-functions within a single interaction. For instance, “okay” alone was used in eight distinct ways: as an opening frame marker, topic switcher, turn-taker signal, focus marker, closing frame marker, response marker, agreement marker, and face saver. Such variability highlights the context-dependent nature of DMs, reinforcing Schiffrin's (2001) assertion that DMs "gain their function through discourse." Therefore, the function of a DM is not fixed but is shaped by the interactional context in which it is used.

The discourse marker okay emerged as the most frequently used marker in this study, occurring 631 times out of 1,374 instances, serving various functions including signaling comprehension, confirming agreement, managing turn-taking, or giving, and facilitating conversational flow. These findings underscore okay’s versatility, echoing Lee's (2017) investigation into its multifunctionality among Korean EFL teachers, where okay was employed as a pedagogical tool for scaffolding, monitoring understanding, and transitioning between classroom activities. While Lee (2017) highlights the teacher’s role in structuring discourse, the findings of the present study suggest that in peer-led, task-based interactions, okay primarily

functions to support collaborative communication, particularly in negotiating meaning, turn management, and maintaining shared understanding.

This multi-functionality of okay aligns with Chen's (2018) analysis of its use in bilingual classrooms, where both native and non-native teachers utilised okay to manage discourse transitions, facilitate code-switching, and align participants in the conversation. Chen's (2018) findings highlight "okay"'s ability to bridge linguistic boundaries, functioning as a marker that ensures coherence across languages and contexts. Though the settings differ significantly, Chen's bilingual classroom interactions versus the monolingual peer-led tasks of the current study, both studies underline "okay"'s adaptability across diverse interactional contexts.

A key distinction, however, lies in the interactional roles of participants. While Chen (2018) and Lee (2017) attribute the multifunctionality of okay to the teacher's active role in structuring and managing discourse, the present study demonstrates that okay can also play an integral role in maintaining the dynamics of peer-led communication. In contrast to these teacher-led contexts, the findings of the present study illustrate the fundamental role of okay in peer interactions during student-led information gap tasks. In this setting, okay primarily facilitated the negotiation of meaning, the regulation of conversational turns, and the maintenance of shared understanding between interlocutors. This shift from a teacher-centred to a peer-centred dynamic underscores the contextual adaptability of okay, demonstrating its versatility across interactional settings. While Lee (2017) and Chen (2018) attribute the multifunctionality of okay to the teacher's active role in structuring classroom discourse, this study highlights how learners themselves rely on okay to collaboratively construct and sustain dialogue in the absence of a hierarchical structure. The contextual differences observed between the studies further underscore the dynamic nature of "okay" as a discourse marker. In teacher-led environments, its pedagogical function emerges prominently, often linked to instruction and control. By contrast, in peer-led settings, "okay" facilitates egalitarian communication, ensuring conversational equity and mutual understanding. These findings collectively emphasize the universal relevance of okay while also reflecting its context-

dependent functions in promoting effective communication and maintaining interactional coherence.

The data revealed a limited repertoire of discourse markers among Turkish EFL learners, with a particular reliance on basic markers such as “okay, yes, and” etc. This suggests a potential gap in learners’ pragmatic awareness, likely shaped by the minimal emphasis on such features in traditional EFL instruction. The findings resonate with claims that pragmatic competence is often underprioritized in classroom settings, where structural and lexical aspects dominate the syllabus (Zorluel Özer & Okan, 2018). This lack of instructional focus may contribute to learners' over-reliance on a narrow set of markers to fulfill a wide range of textual and interpersonal functions. The results underscore the need for pragmatic-focused, task-based approaches that offer learners opportunities to practice a broader spectrum of markers in interactive contexts.

The prevalence of fillers and basic markers in learners’ speech may also reflect transfer from their L1. In Turkish, similar discourse strategies are employed for maintaining fluency and organizing speech, which could explain their frequent use in learners' L2 communication. For example, the frequent reliance on okay could parallel Turkish discourse markers such as “tamam”, which serve similar regulatory functions in conversation. This aligns with the notion that cross-linguistic influence often shapes learners’ use of discourse markers, particularly when their L2 proficiency limits access to more nuanced alternatives (Buysse, 2012).

The findings suggest that learners' reliance on basic markers like okay and um reflects a developmental stage in their pragmatic competence. Schiffrin (1987), for instance, highlights the role of markers in maintaining conversational flow, particularly when speakers are managing cognitive load. Similarly, Hellermann and Vergun (2007) emphasize that EFL learners frequently rely on simpler markers in early stages of acquisition to keep conversation going, suggesting that learners prioritize fluency and ease of interaction. Such markers serve as scaffolds for fluency, particularly in challenging communicative contexts, aligning with research indicating that lower-proficiency learners tend to overuse fillers while developing coherence strategies (Müller, 2005). This finding aligns with Aşık’s (2012) study, which also

noted that Turkish speakers of English tend to use a limited range of discourse markers in spoken language.

Similar to participants in this study, Aşık suggests that this restricted usage may reflect the developmental stage of their pragmatic competence. Similarly, Neary-Sundquist (2014) highlights how discourse markers evolve as learners progress through different proficiency levels. This discussion underscores the developmental nature of discourse marker usage, with my participant. The learners in this study, therefore, seem to follow a similar trajectory, where their use of basic markers reflects a focus on effective communication rather than on the complexity of their language use. The learners in this study, therefore, seem to follow a similar trajectory, where their use of basic markers reflects a focus on effective communication rather than on the complexity of their language use. Throughout the study, uhh emerged as a frequently used filler, likely reflecting cognitive overload or the thinking process during task-based interactions. This is consistent with Gilquin's (2008) finding that hesitation markers, like "uhh" used by EFL learners not as a sign of deficiency but as a strategy to manage conversation flow and interactional complexity. While such markers may indicate processing moments, they do not necessarily suggest lower proficiency, but rather an adaptive approach to communication.

The findings of this study have significant implications for EFL instruction and the development of pragmatic competence. First, they highlight the importance of raising learners' awareness of the multifunctional roles of DMs in communication. Explicit teaching of DMs can help learners improve both their ability to structure discourse and navigate social dynamics during interactions. In particular, fostering an understanding of the textual functions of DMs, such as signaling transitions and organizing information, can enhance coherence and clarity in speech. Meanwhile, emphasizing their interpersonal functions, such as signaling engagement, negotiating meaning, and managing conversational flow, can strengthen learners' ability to maintain effective and collaborative communication. Furthermore, the

observed reliance on a limited set of markers underscores the need for targeted instruction aimed at expanding learners' DM repertoire.

Activities that expose learners to a broader range of DMs, along with their nuanced functions, can support the development of a more flexible and contextually appropriate use of language. Additionally, the findings emphasize the importance of designing EFL activities that not only encourage learners to use DMs but also provide intentional guidance on how to integrate them effectively. Teachers can support learners by introducing practical tips and examples of commonly used DMs. For instance, learners could be encouraged to use phrases such as "Let's start with…" or "And then…" for structuring their speech, "Okay" or "I see" for signaling understanding, and "What about…?" or "Do you agree?" to manage turn-taking and maintain engagement. By offering such helpful discourse-specific phrases and demonstrating their use in context, teachers can help students navigate conversations more effectively. Incorporating these intentional strategies into task-based activities allows learners to practice DMs in a supported environment, gradually building their confidence and fluency in managing real-world interactions.

Lastly, the study underscores the importance of addressing cross-linguistic influences, as the frequent use of response markers reflects Turkish conversational norms. Teachers should consider these cultural tendencies when designing materials and instruction, helping learners adapt their communication style to suit diverse linguistic and cultural contexts. By integrating these insights into EFL pedagogy, educators can support learners in developing both their textual competence and interpersonal skills, ultimately enhancing their overall communicative proficiency.

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Suggestions

This chapter serves as a conclusion to this thesis. The chapter will highlight the significance of the findings, explore their implications for language teaching and learning, and examine how they align with or challenge the existing research. Additionally, it will address the limitations of the study, offering a critical evaluation of its scope and methodology, before presenting the recommendations for future research.

This case study aimed to investigate the use of discourse markers in task-based interactions, focusing specifically on their textual and interpersonal functions within the context of one-way and two-way information gap tasks. The primary goal was to explore how discourse markers are used by Turkish EFL learners in communicative tasks and identify their usage related to the structural organization of the conversation and the management of social interactions. In order to achieve the aim of the study, data was collected from two native Turkish speakers enrolled in an English preparatory program, their task performances were analyzed through the transcriptions of the recorded sessions, with the functions of discourse markers categorized using Brinton's framework.

The findings support the idea that DMs contribute significantly to both textual and interpersonal aspects of communication. Müller (2005) emphasizes that DMs are integral to the pragmatic meaning of utterances, and as Schiffrin (2001) suggests, they provide insight into the cognitive, expressive, social, and textual competencies of speakers. Through the analysis, it became evident that Turkish EFL learners not only make use of discourse markers to structure discourse but also rely on them to navigate the social dynamics of interaction. These findings highlight the potential of raising EFL learners' awareness of the role discourse markers play in task-based interactions, which could improve both their ability to structure discourse and manage interpersonal communication within these tasks. An increased awareness of the textual functions of DMs can facilitate the structuring and organization of discourse, promoting clarity and coherence in communication. On the other hand, the

pragmatic use of DMs is instrumental in fostering interpersonal relationships, as these markers help negotiate meaning, signal shifts in conversation, and manage social interactions.

The main findings of this study revealed several key patterns in the use of DMs across the six information gap tasks. A total of 1,374 DM instances were coded and categorized into textual and interpersonal functions. The coding was based on specific occurrences of DMs within the data, where markers like "okay" were counted 631 times, reflecting their frequent use. This highlights that while the data included some variety of DMs, some markers appeared significantly more often than others. Specifically, the most frequently used markers included **“**okay”, “yes”, and “then” which were primarily used to manage discourse flow and interaction. The analysis also revealed that, while textual markers were more prevalent in the one-way tasks, interpersonal markers played a more significant role in the two-way tasks, highlighting their function in maintaining engagement and regulating the flow of conversation between speakers. These results suggest that DMs are not only vital for organizing discourse but also for establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships in communication.

Response/reaction markers were the second most frequent function across all tasks. The frequent use of response markers suggests that participants focused on keeping the conversation flowing. This shows that maintaining communication is a basic need, no matter the task type. Whether the task is one-way or two-way, speakers seemed to use response markers to keep the conversation going smoothly. The prevalence of response markers could reflect cultural or linguistic transfer. These markers, common in many languages, help maintain conversation flow and signal attentiveness. In Turkish conversational norms, similar verbal acknowledgments may be often employed to indicate engagement and show active participation in the conversation. The findings reveal how these norms manifest in a second language, especially in task-based settings where maintaining interpersonal harmony is critical.

An interesting finding was the frequency of the marker “okay,” which participants used for a wide range of functions, which highlights its multifunctionality. The results suggest that the participants demonstrated a limited repertoire of discourse markers, relying heavily on a

small set of markers for multiple functions, indicating a potential gap in their pragmatic competence, meaning the participants may not fully understand or use the various ways in which DMs can shape interactions. The frequent use of "okay," "yes," and "and then" reflects Turkish EFL learners' reliance on simple, efficient markers that act as cognitive safety nets, reducing the mental effort required for communication. These markers provided a familiar, reliable mechanism to sustain communication. This predictability reduces the cognitive load on participants, allowing them to stay focused on the task at hand. This overreliance also indicates a limited repertoire of discourse markers, highlighting a potential gap in their ability to employ more varied and nuanced discourse markers.

This study is different from previous research on how Turkish students use discourse markers (DMs) in two keyways. First, earlier studies (Aşık & Cephe, 2013; Zorluel Özer & Okan, 2018) focused on more formal, planned speeches, like classroom presentations or lectures. These situations don’t allow for much back-and-forth interaction, which is where discourse markers come into play. In contrast, this study focused on information gap tasks, which naturally require more interactive communication, giving a better chance to explore how DMs are used in conversations. Second, previous studies examined a wide range of possible discourse markers, analyzing almost any word that could serve as a DM. While this broad approach provides an overview, this study focused only on the most commonly used and studied DMs. This more focused approach helps in understanding how these key markers work in real interactions.

Although the study focused on just two participants, this worked well for the case study design. The small group allowed for a deeper look at individual language use and how discourse markers functioned in communicative tasks. With fewer variables, I could closely observe and analyze patterns in a natural yet controlled setting. This approach helped me capture the nuances of discourse marker usage without overcomplicating the research. The research setting supported the data collection process by helping the participants feel at ease. While their awareness of being recorded may have influenced some language choices, the overall setting fostered a relaxed environment that allowed authentic use of discourse markers.

The study utilized a specific set of tasks that emphasized meaningful, goal-oriented communication. By requiring participants to engage with each other and solve problems interactively, the tasks facilitated the use of markers for turn-taking, clarification, and maintaining coherence, functions that are often observed in task-based interaction (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Long, 1985). Fraser's focus on the procedural role of DMs highlights the importance of clear categorization in analyzing their function. Brinton's framework provided me with a clear structure as its clear distinctions between textual and interpersonal functions made categorizing DMs easier and more efficient. This framework worked well in my study because it was direct and not overly complex**.**

However, this study is not without limitations; the small sample size and the specific focus on two participants limit the generalizability of the findings. Even though the results offer a detailed look into the use of discourse markers in information gap tasks, they may not fully reflect the behaviors of a broader population. While tasks used in this study successfully elicited authentic interaction, their design may have constrained the exploration of less frequently used or more context-specific discourse markers. A broader range of task types might have enriched the data by prompting the use of different functional categories of DMs. In analyzing the discourse markers within the study, I found that some markers did not fit precisely into the predefined categories or sometimes felt overly generalized. This suggests that the framework, while valuable, may lack the specificity required for capturing all nuances of DM usage in this context.

Further research with a larger and more diverse sample could help to confirm or challenge these findings, offering a more comprehensive understanding of how Turkish EFL learners use discourse markers in various interactive contexts. Future studies could expand on these findings by including a larger, more varied participant group, considering different proficiency levels. This highlights a potential area for methodological refinement: a combination of established frameworks or a bottom-up approach could be more effective in accommodating these functions.

This study has important theoretical implications for understanding pragmatic competence. Exploring both the textual and interpersonal functions of discourse markers offers a deeper view of how these markers help organize discourse and manage social relationships. This work contributes to the field by proposing a nuanced perspective on the role of DMs in communicative competence, emphasizing their importance in both structural and social aspects of interaction.

For EFL learners, the findings suggest that increasing awareness of the textual functions of DMs can improve discourse clarity and coherence while understanding their interpersonal roles can enhance the ability to build and maintain relationships during communication. Ultimately, these findings offer valuable insights for teaching approaches that incorporate discourse markers as a tool for improving both the pragmatic and communicative aspects of language use.

To summarize, the study has provided significant insights into the use of discourse markers (DMs) in goal-oriented, structured interactions, particularly within the context of information gap tasks. Several key factors contributed to the findings, including the variety of tasks examined, the limitations of the framework used, and the research setting itself. The study utilized observational data complemented by post-task reflections, providing a rich understanding of how DMs function in these specific task-based interactions. This highlights an important point for teaching: discourse markers should be included in EFL lessons, textbooks, and materials. However, how to best teach these markers in the classroom is still something that needs further research. Future studies could provide valuable insights for teachers, curriculum developers, and those creating materials, helping them support students in mastering these important aspects of communication.

The study also raises important questions regarding the impact of explicit instruction on the use of DMs, suggesting that incorporating such instruction into EFL classrooms could benefit learners' pragmatic competence. Exploring this further through experimental studies would provide valuable insights into how DMs can be taught more effectively.

While this case study provides valuable insights, it also highlights the need for further research. The analysis revealed the importance of both textual and interpersonal purposes of DMs, yet it remains unclear whether these findings can be generalized across a broader context. Therefore, additional research focusing on EFL settings is necessary to inform decisions on the explicit or implicit teaching of DMs. Such studies could contribute to the development of pragmatic competence, enabling learners to navigate social interactions more effectively.

Furthermore, this study lays the groundwork for future cross-linguistic research that compares the use of discourse markers in different languages, enriching our understanding of how these markers function in various communicative settings. Investigating learners' perceptions and awareness of DMs, as well as employing a mixed-methods approach, would also offer a more holistic view of how DMs are acquired and used by non-native speakers. Ultimately, examining these factors in structured communicative tasks where the goal is to complete a specific task can deepen our understanding of the role of discourse markers in both social interaction and language learning.

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APPENDIX-A: Ethics Committee Permission

Tarih: 24/01/2024 16:39
Sayı: E-66777842-300-00003334843
00003334843

T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırma Etik Kurulu

Sayı : E-66777842-300-00003334843 24/01/2024
Konu : Etik Kurulu İzni (Mine TAŞ)

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 08.01.2024 tarihli ve E-51944218-300-00003295562 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diler Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencilerinden **Mine TAŞ**'ın, **Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Hatice ERGÜL** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü ***"Türk İngilizce Öğrencilerinin Söylem Belirleyici Kullanımının Karşılaştırılması: Tek ve Çift Yönlü Aktiviteler"*** başlıklı tez çalışması Üniversitemiz Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırma Etik Kurulunun **23 Ocak 2024** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. İsmet KOÇ
Kurul Başkanı

Bu belge güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

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APPENDIX-B: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that…

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

30/01/2025

Mine TAŞ

APPENDIX-C: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report

……/……./2025

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Educational Sciences
To The Department of Foreign Language Education

Thesis Title: Comparing Discourse Marker Use of Turkish Efl Learners: One-Way Vs. Two-Way Tasks
The whole thesis that includes the *title page, introduction, main chapters, conclusions and bibliography section* is checked by using **Turnitin** plagiarism detection software take into the consideration requested filtering options. According to the originality report obtained data are as below.

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I declare that I have carefully read Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences Guidelines for Obtaining and Using Thesis Originality Reports; that according to the maximum similarity index values specified in the Guidelines, my thesis does not include any form of plagiarism; that in any future detection of possible infringement of the regulations I accept all legal responsibility; and that all the information I have provided is correct to the best of my knowledge.

I respectfully submit this for approval.

Name Lastname: Mine Taş

Student No.: N22130098 Signature

Department: Department of Foreign Language Education

Program: English Language Teaching Program

Status: ☒ Masters ☐ Ph.D. ☐ Integrated Ph.D.

ADVISOR APPROVAL

APPROVED
(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hatice Ergül)

APPENDIX-D: Yayımlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversiteye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki tüm fikri mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının ya da bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım hakları bana ait olacaktır.

Tezin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinlerin yazılı izin alınarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversiteye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yayınlanan **"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına ilişkin Yönerge"** kapsamında tezim aşağıda belirtilen koşullar haricince YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi / H.Ü. Kütüphaneleri Açık Erişim Sisteminde erişime açılır.

- Enstitü/ Fakülte yönetim kurulu kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren 2 yıl ertelenmiştir. (1)
- Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihimden itibaren … ay ertelenmiştir. (2)
- Tezimle ilgili gizlilik kararı verilmiştir. (3)

30 /01 /2025

Mine TAŞ

"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge"

(1) Madde 6. 1. Lisansüstü tezle ilgili patent başvurusu yapılması veya patent alma sürecinin devam etmesi durumunda, tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü Üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu iki yıl süre ile tezin erişime açılmasının ertelenmesine karar verebilir.

(2) Madde 6. 2. Yeni teknik, materyal ve metotların kullanıldığı, henüz makaleye dönüşmemiş veya patent gibi yöntemlerle korunmamış ve internetten paylaşılması durumunda 3. şahıslara veya kurumlara haksız kazanç; imkânı oluşturabilecek bilgi ve bulguları içeren tezler hakkında tez danışmanın önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile altı ayı aşmamak üzere tezin erişime açılması engellenebilir.

(3) Madde 7. 1. Ulusal çıkarları veya güvenliği ilgilendiren, emniyet, istihbarat, savunma ve güvenlik, sağlık vb. konulara ilişkin lisansüstü tezlerle ilgili gizlilik kararı, tezin yapıldığı kurum tarafından verilir. Kurum ve kuruluşlarla yapılan işbirliği protokolü çerçevesinde hazırlanan lisansüstü tezlere ilişkin gizlilik kararı ise, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşun önerisi ile enstitü veya fakültenin uygun görüşü Üzerine üniversite yönetim kurulu tarafından verilir. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler Yükseköğretim Kuruluna bildirilir.*

Madde 7.2. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler gizlilik süresince enstitü veya fakülte tarafından gizlilik kuralları çerçevesinde muhafaza edilir, gizlilik kararının kaldırılması halinde Tez Otomasyon Sistemine yüklenir

**Tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu tarafından karar verilir.*