



Hacettepe University Graduate School of Social Sciences

Department of English Linguistics

**A METADISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF OPINION COLUMNS IN
TURKISH NEWSPAPERS**

Fatih KARA

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2026

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KABUL VE ONAY

Fatih Kara tarafından hazırlanan "A Metadiscourse Analysis of Opinion Columns in Turkish Newspapers" başlıklı bu çalışma, 16/01/2026 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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16/01/2026

Fatih KARA

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

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ABSTRACT

KARA, Fatih. *A Metadiscourse Analysis of Opinion Columns in Turkish Newspapers*, Master's Thesis, Ankara, 2026.

Metadiscourse covers a spate of linguistic hallmarks that aids the writers of the texts in organizing and orienting their ideas throughout the text. Focusing on the metadiscursive analysis of opinion columns, the current study aims to uncover the functions and frequencies of interactional metadiscourse markers in the opinion columns. In addition, the study attempts to explain which persuasive appeals the columnists draw upon in an effort to convince their readers in opinion columns. The data were collected from the opinion columns of four newspapers. A corpus consisting of 19.737 words was compiled from the opinion columns. In the light of Hyland's (2005a) interactional metadiscourse taxonomy, the quantitative data were analyzed by means of *MAXQDA* with a view to revealing the functions and frequencies of interactional metadiscourse markers. At the end of the study, it has been found that metadiscourse markers play an important role in contributing to the persuasive nature of the opinion columns. That is to say, the columnists utilize these markers in an attempt to elicit persuasion in their opinion columns. Furthermore, the findings of the study have divulged that the employment of interactional metadiscourse markers are markedly affected by Turkish language, culture and genre-driven conventions.

Keywords

Metadiscourse, interactional metadiscourse, newspaper discourse, opinion column

ÖZET

KARA, Fatih. *Türkçe Gazetelerdeki Köşe Yazılarının Üstsöylemsel Bir Analizi*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara, 2026.

Üstsöylem, metin yazarlarının metindeki fikirlerini düzenlemelerine ve yönlendirmelerine yardımcı olan bir dizi dilsel özelliği kapsar. Köşe yazılarının üstsöylemsel çözümlemesine odaklanan bu çalışma, köşe yazılarında etkileşimsel üstsöylem belirteçlerinin işlevleri ve sıklıklarını ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Ayrıca, bu çalışma, köşe yazarlarının köşe yazılarında okuyucularını ikna etmek için hangi ikna edici yöntemlere başvurduğunu açıklamaya çalışmaktadır. Çalışma verisi 4 gazetenin köşe yazılarından toplanmıştır. 19.737 sözcükten oluşan bir derleme köşe yazılarından oluşturulmuştur. Hyland'ın (2005a) etkileşimsel üstsöylem kuramı ışığında, nicel veriler etkileşimsel üstsöylem belirteçlerinin işlevlerini ve sıklıklarını ortaya çıkarmak için *MAXQDA* vasıtasıyla çözümlenmiştir. Çalışmanın sonunda, üstsöylem belirteçlerinin köşe yazılarının ikna edici yapısı üzerinde önemli bir rol oynadığı bulgulanmıştır. Başka bir deyişle köşe yazarları; köşe yazılarında ikna ediciliği ortaya çıkarmak için bu söylem belirteçlerinden yararlanmaktadır. Ayrıca çalışma etkileşimsel üstsöylem belirteçlerinin kullanımının Türk dili, kültürü ve türe özgü yerleşik kalıplardan önemli ölçüde etkilendiğini ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar Sözcükler

Üstsöylem, etkileşimsel üstsöylem, gazete söylemi, köşe yazısı

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AOR	: Aorist
AUX	: Auxiliary verb
COP	: Copula
F	: Frequency
FUT	: Future
IMPF	: Imperfective
MDMs	: Metadiscourse Markers
OBLG	: Obligative
PASS	: Passive
PL	: Plural
PSB	: Possibility
SG	: Singular

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INTRODUCTION

Referring to various communication channels from print media with newspapers and magazines to online media, mass media covers a range of categories (Jucker, 2005). That is to say, mass media conveys information through such media forms as radio, magazines, newspapers, books, television, and films (Canggara, 2003). In accordance with Bell (1991), mass media is a very effective tool for reflecting culture, politics and social life, in that it is capable of transmitting significant messages to people around the globe (Jucker, 2005). Furthermore, mass media enables people to attain a lot of information ranging from new ideas, fashions, vocabularies to politics and the like (Altheide, 2007). As a consequence, mass media is an indispensable part of integration into a society and its norms and it provides information, entertainment, persuasion, and cultural transmission (Viswanath et al., 2007).

Handwritten sheets, earlier forms of newspapers, were created to spread knowledge that emerged from the necessity to share information. Centuries later, with the popularity of the Internet, printed versions of the newspapers became secondary since newspapers became digitalized and news is presented online. Their accessibility, comprehensive content and high interest value made newspapers invaluable sources of reading materials for the public (Degler, 1978). What is more, they also had the effect of increasing information and confidence in a society as well as reinforcing stability of a state (Katz et al., 1973).

Although journalism begins with news, it was almost impossible to satisfy reader's curiosity solely with news (Sandıkçioğlu, 2015). In addition, with the advent of news as a commodity in 19th century, objectivism gained importance in journalism. As a result of the strict adherence to objective reporting, editorial pages began to appear in newspapers alongside news pages. It is also necessary to help and guide the reader, listener or spectator in thinking and evaluating.

Newspapers, which encompass various genres such as opinion columns, editorials, advertising, short stories, and sports news, are read not just for their informative content;

contrarywise, since newspapers address a large audience, readers read the newspapers for a variety of reasons (Reah, 2004; Salih, 2014). Nevertheless, whether readers read newspapers to be informed or for any other reason is not the sole factor that catches readers' attention. Apart from informing and engaging with readers, they also aim to persuade readers about a specific topic (Reah, 2004; Timuçin, 2010). In consequence, newspapers make use of rhetorical strategies in an attempt to convince readers about arguments in the newspapers, which are presented to readers (Bennett, 2007; Farrokhi & Nazemi, 2015; Kieran, 1998; Richardson, 2007; Mulya, 2024; Wornyo, 2022).

Since newspapers cover a range of categories, it is not possible to mention about a single style of writing that is observed in all newspapers (Crystal, 1987). Thus, stylistic preferences vary enormously.

As representing an argumentative category in newspapers, not only do opinion columns present facts but also columnists express their opinions and stance about a specific topic or event so as to influence readers' viewpoints and persuade them in the texts (Al Kohlani 2010, 2017; Alhindi et al., 2020). In other words, as Dow Tate & Taylor (2007) argue, the purpose of opinion columnists is to persuade their readers. Also, opinion columns, which are usually written by reputed columnists or writers, can address a myriad of subject matter, ranging from social, political to economical topics (Biber, 1988). While opinion texts are written in order that mass audience are provided with information, they must also convince the readers concerning their arguments and employ metadiscursive strategies to achieve this (Shen & Tao, 2021)

Metadiscourse refers to the linguistic resources that writers employ to structure their discourse and to express their stance toward the content of the text and its potential readers (Hyland, 2000). Furthermore, metadiscourse evaluates the reader's knowledge, textual experiences and processing needs and thus it is interpersonal (Hyland & Tse, 2004). Hence, as Hyland (2005a) posits, metadiscourse is vital in examining how the authors engage with their readers, which makes it possible for scholars to differentiate the metadiscoursal strategies employed by different members of various social groups.

Writers need to achieve persuasion in their writings and a well-organized argument enables writers to persuade their readers and conveys their opinions successfully, which in turn strengthens writers' stance (Yasuda, 2023). In accordance with Abdi & Alaei (2023), metadiscourse is an indispensable component of persuasion. In fact, metadiscourse has been widely utilized by the writers in an effort to convince their readers as to their arguments in texts (Ho, 2018; Hyland, 1998; Izquierdo & Pérez-Blanco, 2023; Kawase, 2015; Liu & Zhang, 2021; Del Saz Rubio, 2011; Feng et al., 2024). For instance, according to Liu & Zhang (2021), the writers can attract and engage with the readers by means of metadiscourse and thus its employment can enable the writers to attain persuasion. Moreover, the use of metadiscourse grabs people's attention by making them act in accordance with the desired interpretation, in which case persuasion is attained in the texts (Gustafsson, 2017). In accordance with Hyland (2006), metadiscourse is a rhetorical strategy needed to create any kind of persuasive text. As a result, it is crystal clear that metadiscourse is a rhetorical tool which is employed for constructing persuasive arguments (Longo, 1994).

Metadiscourse helps the writers arrange their paragraphs and convey information, making the writers' stance obvious and paving the way for persuading the readers about their arguments (Abusalim et al., 2022). Furthermore, metadiscourse functions as a mechanism for fostering interaction between author and reader in texts (Hyland, 1998). In addition, according to Herriman (2022), the use of metadiscourse increases coherence and fosters writers' engagement with readers. To add more, metadiscourse makes any kind of text more readable (Zarrati et al., 2014). Moreover, as Alghazo et al. (2021) maintain, interactional MDMs make the writer's attitude and presence apparent to the readers. As a consequence, As a rhetorical feature, metadiscourse functions to influence readers and align their understanding with the author's intended meaning (Hyland, 2018).

Interactional metadiscourse usually abounds in more communicative personal writing style (Crismore et al., 1993). In accordance with Dow Tate & Taylor (2007), whilst editorials are generally classified as expressing the opinion of a group of people, opinion columns express the opinion of an individual, so it is clear that opinion columns can be considered a type of personal writing. The opinion columnists draw upon a convincing

‘voice’ to the readers and demonstrate their personal views straightforwardly and hence it is a requirement for the columnists to arrange their texts painstakingly with the aim to establish connection with the readers (Shen & Tao, 2021; Wang, 2008). That is why, metadiscourse is indispensable for opinion writing. For instance, Fu & Hyland (2014) indicate that metadiscourse can be employed by virtue of its rhetorical feature to affect readers’ perspectives and attitudes. Moreover, the use of metadiscourse paves the way for writing effective and good opinion columns (Batool et al., 2020; Indarti, 2018). In addition, metadiscourse markers are abundantly used in newspaper language, such as in opinion columns, editorials and the like (Al-Khawaldeh et al., 2015). As a result, it is clear that there is a clear link between metadiscourse and opinion columns.

Metadiscursive studies on academic language in both Turkish literature and around the globe have been plentiful thus far (Akbaş; 2012, 2014; Şen, 2019; Dağ Tarcan, 2019; Hyland, 1998; 1999; 2005a; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Mauranen, 1993; Vande Koople, 1985; Güçlü, 2022). However, the number of studies which investigate non-academic genres in Turkish is still quite limited (Akıncı Oktay, 2020; Doyuran, 2009; Esmer, 2018; Soyşekerci, 2023). Therefore, in order to address this gap in the field and observe how columnists persuade general audience (i.e. non-specialist), the present study strives for uncovering these aspects of opinion columns.

CHAPTER 1

THE STUDY

1.1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Heretofore, the significance of metadiscourse has grabbed the attention of scholars in a myriad of genres in tandem with contexts, such as doctoral dissertations (Can & Yuvayapan, 2018; Deng et al., 2021; Duruk, 2017; Hyland, 2004, 2010; Koroğlu, 2018; Navarro et al., 2022), research articles (Hyland & Jiang, 2016; Liu & Buckingham, 2018; Mur Dueñas, 2011; Gillaerts & Van de Velde, F., 2010; Güçlü, 2020; Šandová, 2021; Wongsa et al., 2024), book reviews (Bal-Gezegin, 2016; Birhan, 2021; Jalilifar et al., 2018; Junqueira & Cortes, 2014), textbooks (Alemi & Isavi, 2012; Bogdanović, 2014; Crismore, 1984; Hyland, 1999), advertisements (Al-Subhi, 2022; Fuertes-Olivera et al., 2001; Roslan et al., 2021; Xia, 2020), newspapers (Aertselaer & Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Dafouz, 2003; Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Esmer, 2021; Le, 2004; Makkonen-Craig, 2011; Thomas & Finneman, 2013), cross-cultural studies (Boshwabadi et al., 2014; Farnia & Mohammadi, 2018; Gai & Wang, 2022; Ozdemir & Longo, 2014; Tavanpour et al., 2016), cross-linguistic studies (Gong et al., 2021; Kuhl & Mojood, 2014; Lee & Casal, 2014; Li & Xu, 2020), cross-disciplinary studies (Boginskaya, 2022; Cao & Hu, 2014; Esfandiari & Khatibi, 2022; Jiang & Akbaş, 2024; Li & Wharton, 2012), company annual reports (Hyland, 1998), diachronic studies (Abbasi et al., 2025; Güçlü, 2020, 2022; Liu & Yang, 2021; Park & Lee, 2022), studies dealing with gender (Alotaibi, 2018; Alqahtani & Abdelhalim, 2020; Kashani & Yavari, 2013; Merghmi & Chaouki Hoadjli, 2024) and casual conversation (Schiffrin, 1980).

That is to say, researchers investigated metadiscourse use in a number of genres and contexts ranging from doctoral dissertations, research articles, book reviews, textbooks, advertisements, company annual reports, casual conversation to newspapers. Furthermore, just as researchers examined the use of metadiscourse diachronically, they also investigated metadiscourse in terms of culture, gender, discipline and language, as

well. All the same, studies with regard to metadiscourse use within newspaper opinion columns still remain notoriously sparse.

Given the metadiscourse studies conducted in Turkish, scholars have chiefly concentrated on interactional and interactive metadiscourse markers in book reviews, Turkish essays, research articles, MA theses, persuasive texts and doctoral dissertations thus far (Akıncı Oktay, 2020; Alçı, 2012; Can, 2006; Dağ Tarcan, 2017, 2019; Doyuran, 2009; Fidan, 2002; Kan, 2016; Köroğlu, 2019; Önel, 2020; Şen, 2019; Şimşek & Erol, 2023; Ünsal, 2008; Yalavaç, 2021). Nonetheless, metadiscourse studies conducted in non-academic contexts and particularly in opinion columns, or opinion articles, are still scarce (Akıncı Oktay, 2020; Doyuran, 2009; Esmer, 2018; Soyşekerçi, 2023). Although these studies significantly advanced the understanding of Turkish academic prose, the use of MDMs in non-academic, persuasive contexts, where authorial presence and reader engagement are paramount, is an area that has yet to be fully explored. This gap in the literature is particularly problematic because opinion columns represent a unique discursive site where linguistic features of interaction and persuasion abound. Unlike the standardized objectivity often required in academic writing, opinion columns are characterized by a strong authorial voice and a direct intent to shape public sentiment. Therefore, a detailed analysis is required to understand how columnists navigate the tension between certainty and caution, and how they utilize metadiscursive resources to construct a credible persona in a contested public sphere.

1.2. AIM OF THE STUDY

In light of the aforementioned gaps in the existing literature, the present study seeks to investigate the frequencies and functions of interactional metadiscourse markers in Turkish newspaper opinion columns. By utilizing Hyland's (2005a) interpersonal model as an analytical framework, this study seeks to determine how columnists utilize specific linguistic resources to support their arguments and orient their potential readers.

Beyond mere frequency analysis, the current study further aims to illuminate the link between metadiscourse and the broader rhetorical strategies of persuasion. Specifically,

the research attempts to uncover how these interactional markers function as persuasive appeals, enabling authors to appeal to *ethos* (credibility) and *pathos* (emotional connection) to achieve their communicative goals.

1.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In conjunction with the aims presented above, this study delves into the following research questions:

- 1) What are the functions and frequencies of the interactional metadiscourse markers employed in the opinion columns?
- 2) Which modes of persuasion do authors draw upon so as to convince their readers in opinion columns?

1.4. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

This study seeks to examine MDMs in selected Turkish opinion columns written by different authors. Opinion columns have been selected as the data, inasmuch as Turkish metadiscourse studies on opinion columns remain insufficient, with only two studies examining MDMs in opinion columns (Doyuran, 2009; Akıncı Oktay, 2020). Also, the number of metadiscourse studies on opinion columns is still quite limited around the globe (Abdullah et al., 2020; Dafouz, 2003; Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Farnia & Mohammadi, 2018; Fu & Hyland, 2014; Hassan et al., 2019; Noorian & Biria, 2010).

In addition, the purpose of opinion columns is to persuade the readers about significance and interest of a topic and to make the readers' viewpoint aligned with the authors' opinion (Fu & Hyland, 2014). Nonetheless, to do thus, the columnists need to present their argument such that the readers are satisfied about the authors's viewpoint and accept it (Farnia & Mohammadi, 2018). Indeed, metadiscourse is an indispensable component of persuasion (Abdi & Alaei, 2023). Hence, the columnists must organize their sentences

properly and the sentences in the columns need to establish rapport between the authors and the readers (Ramash & Ng, 2023).

In accordance with Dow Tate & Taylor (2007), whilst editorials are generally classified as expressing the opinion of a group of people, opinion columns express the opinion of one person, thus it is a personal writing. In accordance with Crismore et al. (1993), interactional metadiscourse usually abounds in more communicative, informal, personal style of writing. Likewise, metadiscourse markers are abundantly used in newspaper discourse, such as in opinion columns, editorials and the like (Al-Khawaldeh et al., 2015). This springs from the fact that the use of metadiscourse paves the way for writing effective and good opinion columns (Batool et al., 2020; Indarti, 2018). Thus, since opinion columns are written so as to convince the readers about a specific topic, the columnists mainly focus on improving their engagement with readers via interactional metadiscourse in the texts (Moghadam, 2017).

The aforementioned Turkish studies about MDMs in opinion columns do not take all types of interactional MDMs into consideration and thus cannot give a detailed account of metadiscourse use in opinion columns. Additionally, opinion columns are an example of texts where interactional metadiscourse is highly found in virtue of the nature of opinion columns. That is why, opinion columns were selected to analyze with the aim to make contributions to the literature about metadiscourse and the study tries to address the gap in the literature about the scarcity in metadiscourse studies upon opinion columns.

1.5. OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

The study is composed of six chapters that begin with an introductory part and finalize with a conclusion. Introduction presents the topic of the study and gives brief information about journalism and metadiscourse. Chapter 1 presents the problem handled within the study, purpose of the study and rationale for the study. Chapter 2 elaborates on the analytical framework of the study and gives detailed information as to the frameworks and definitions of different metadiscourse models by different researchers. Chapter 3 is dedicated to literature review where studies about metadiscourse in non-academic

contexts especially opinion columns were given. Chapter 4 involves not just data collection and analysis procedure but also the theoretical framework drawn upon in the current study. Chapter 5 expands the analysis of the data and findings and presents a discussion of findings with a multi-faceted perspective in terms of language, culture and genre-driven conventions. Chapter 6 is ascribed to Conclusion part. In this section, the study is concluded by way of answering the research questions and presenting limitations of the study as well as to give suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. DEFINITIONS OF METADISOURSE

The concept of metadiscourse was first proposed by linguist Zellig Harris in 1956 to explain language in use and present the author's or speaker's efforts to shape the reader's interpretation of a text. Although metadiscourse was broadened by researchers, including Williams (1982), Vande Kopple (1985), and Crismore & Farnsworth (1989), it was Hyland who carried metadiscourse to a different level by his vigorous attempts on academic discourse.

Metadiscourse is defined as follows: “metatalk” (Schiffrin, 1980), “metaphenomena” (Halliday, 1994), “metalinguistic comment” (Quirk et al., 1972), “manifest intertextuality” where the author is involved in an interaction with his or her own text (Fairclough, 1992), “domain content” (Geisler, 1994), “non-topical linguistic material” which is central to grasping discourse in its entirety (Lautamatti, 1978), “whatever does not refer to the subject matter being addressed” (Williams, 1981), “discourse about discourse” which does not contribute to the propositional content but indicates the author's presence (Vande Kopple, 1985), “the author's intrusion into the discourse, either explicitly or non-explicitly” which takes directing as the focal point as opposed to informing (Crismore, 1983).

Some scholars also give definitions of metadiscourse as in the following way: “writing about writing” (Williams, 1981), “text about the evolving text or the writer's explicit commentary on her own ongoing discourse” (Ädel, 2006), “expressing the writer's acknowledgement of the reader” (Dahl, 2004), “metatext” (Enkvist, 1978), “signalling” (Myers, 1975), “explicit signalling” (Hyde, 1990), “metatext” (Bunton, 1999; Mauranen, 1993; Moreno, 1997), “discourse about discourse or talk about talk” (Hyland, 1999), “the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text” (Hyland, 2005a).

Given that plenty of metadiscourse definitions were introduced by researchers, it is no surprise that metadiscourse is a fuzzy term per se (Dahl, 2004; Hyland, 2005a; Ädel, 2006; Çandarlı et al., 2015; Pearson & Abdollahzadeh, 2023). Therefore, it is hard to reach an agreement about a universal definition of metadiscourse (Brown, 2021; Guichelaar, 2018; Kuhi et al., 2012). Hyland & Tse (2004) introduce three key features of metadiscourse. The first feature indicates that metadiscourse differs from propositional aspects of discourse; the second feature states that metadiscourse is about elements of the text that reflect interaction between the writer and the reader. The third feature is that metadiscourse is related with relations which are internal to the discourse. These key principles of metadiscourse are the core components of not simply interactive but even interactional MDMs. The first feature among the aforementioned features is the feature of metadiscourse which gives rise to fuzziness and relativity. This fuzziness is elucidated by Hyland (2017) who maintains that a content can be either propositional or non-propositional. To illustrate, expressions such as *therefore*, *in contrast*, and *as a result* function as MDMs by linking stages of an argument, connecting propositions to events or relations beyond the text. (Hyland, 2017). Therefore, items that function propositionally cannot be considered as metadiscursive elements. To add more, it is even more difficult to pinpoint if an item acts as a metadiscourse marker or acts as a propositional content (Chen & Xu, 2023; Ho, 2024; Khabbazi-Oskouei, 2011). To put it differently, the same elements might not act as metadiscourse markers in all the contexts (Hyland, 2005a). To illustrate, Crismore et al. (1993) present two statements in the following as an example for the fact that a grammatical category can act both propositionally and non-propositionally:

- 1) **Really**, it was terrible.
- 2) It was **really** terrible. (Alkaff, 2000, p.80)

The example (1) demonstrates that “really” is a non-propositional item, and hence is an MDM. By contrast, “really” in example (2) has a propositional content by nature and acts as an adjective, rather than metadiscourse marker.

Hyland (2005a) gives the following example as to whether a unit in a sentence is propositional or non-propositional (p. 38):

- 3) A **taxonomic scheme** such as the one I present below is not just a neutral description of diversity but a theory in itself. (Hyland, 2005a)

In accordance with Hyland (2005a), just as ‘taxonomic scheme’ might seem as a distinct example, only presented within any text, it could also refer to all such things present around the world. When it is a distinct example, it is accepted as metadiscourse, namely ‘non-propositional’. On the other hand, once it refers to all such things present around the world, it is called ‘propositional’. Furthermore, Roka (2020) gives the following two examples to differentiate propositional content from non-propositional content:

- 4) The serial approach of only starting an activity once the preceding one has ended is both unnecessary and highly inefficient **with regards to** this project.
- 5) Mr should be advised **with regard to** his blood glucose control once he is at home.

In accordance with Roka (2020), the example (4) is non-propositional and thus is an MDM, since the use of ‘with regards to’ makes the authorial position in the context realized; in contrast, the use of ‘with regard to’ in example (5) is propositional because it contributes to the text’s content as opposed to discourse outside it.

Hyland (1998) states that by virtue of the highly contextual nature of metadiscourse, an item can serve both propositional and non-propositional (i.e. metadiscursive) function. By the same token, the same linguistic unit can function as metadiscourse marker, just as it can have propositional function (Ädel, 2006). Vande Kopple (1985) further states that even informative texts include non-propositional material, in addition to propositional material.

Hyland (2005a) stresses the presence of the writer in the text and defines metadiscourse as in the following:

Metadiscourse is the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community. (p. 37)

Hyland's (2005a) theoretical framework places the writer and the reader at the center of argument construction. Similarly, metadiscourse reflects an awareness of the text itself and its language use, as well as of the writer and reader in their respective roles (Ädel, 2003).

To sum, the authors draw on metadiscourse so as to guide readers to desired interpretation of texts in order to engage with the reader and elicit a persuasive effect on the readers. Nevertheless, as aforementioned before, the word's fuzzy nature, namely whether something is propositional or non-propositional (metadiscursive), makes it challenging to perceive and implement the term. However, Hyland's (2005a) reader-oriented approach to metadiscourse offers a more robust and comprehensive explanation by highlighting the interaction between writers and readers.

The upcoming part of the study will present metadiscourse models from different scholars to establish a ground on metadiscourse models.

2.2. METADISCOURSE MODELS

Most of metadiscourse taxonomies make use of Halliday's (1994) tripartite distinction of metafunctions. According to Halliday's (1994) framework, they are: interpersonal function, and textual function. These three metafunctions express how people use language to gather meaning in their social and cultural environment. Even though these metafunctions are different from each other, nevertheless they are significant components of texts.

In accordance with Matthiessen & Teruya (2023), ideational metafunction forms our experience of the world inside and around us as meaning. Interpersonal metafunction enable us to assess meanings through the enactment of appreciation, judgement, affect or graduation (Matthiessen et al., 2010). The textual metafunction organizes ideational and interpersonal meanings into a coherent flow of information within a given context (Forey & Sampson, 2017; Hoang, 2021; Matthiessen & Teruya, 2023).

The ideational function is related with propositional meaning, whereas the interpersonal and textual functions is about metadiscourse (Hyland, 2019). Some scholars examined metadiscourse with respect to interpersonal and textual functions (Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 2005a; Vande Kopple, 1985). By contrast, other scholars employed solely the linguistic items that are used for the purpose of performing textual functions (Bunton, 1999; Mauranen, 1993; Valero-Garces, 1996).

Ädel (2006) asserts that not only are there broad approaches to metadiscourse, but even there are narrow approaches. The narrow approaches are composed of linguistic items which are utilized with the aim of performing textual functions. In contrast, the broad approaches include not only linguistic elements used for the organization of texts but also aspects of interpersonal communication. Basically, the broad, quantitative approach enables comparisons of frequency and distribution patterns across large datasets, allowing researchers to contrast genres, contexts, and registers. By contrast, the narrow, qualitative approach is more context-dependent and typically operates on a smaller scale, but it offers richer insights into how metadiscourse functions within specific contexts (Dong et al., 2023). Hyland and Tse (2004) argue that metadiscourse is fundamentally interpersonal, as it is impacted by readers' knowledge, textual experience, and processing needs.

This part of the study gives the metadiscourse taxonomies with respect to broad approach and narrow approach chronologically:

(i) Myer's (1975) metadiscourse framework

Myer's (1975) taxonomy is composed of four major stages for signalling. The first stage is the specification of the structure of relations in the content structure. This involves well-defined terms which manifest the discourse type including problem and answer, in addition to words such as *one*, *two* and the other. The second is prospectively declared information abstracted from content which is given later in the text. In this stage, paraphrases are deployed in order to give details at the beginning of a paragraph mentioned later in the text. It is mostly employed in introductory sentences and paragraph titles and summary statements, which form the third phase. The restatement forms already represented are mentioned at the end of a paragraph and pointer words, which form the

fourth stage. These words definitely evoke the reader of the author's perspective upon a topic.

(ii) Williams' (1981) metadiscourse framework

Williams (1981) came up with a metadiscourse classification which mainly include three types that are composed of six categories: hedges and emphatics; sequencers and topicalizers; narrators and attributors (Crismore, 1983). Table 1 below gives an account of the metadiscourse taxonomy.

Table 1

Williams' (1981) metadiscourse framework

Metadiscourse Category	Function and Example
Hedges	Reflect the writers' uncertainty about what they are claiming (in my opinion, probably, could)
Emphatics	Reflect the writer's certainty about what they are claiming (it is clear that, surely, of course)
Sequencers	Indicator of the order of ideas or steps in the argument. They add cohesiveness to discourse and express discourse for readers (in the next section of the chapter)
Topicalizers	Linguistic devices which undelines the topic of argument in a text. They guide the reader by making the text more understandable and clear (turning now to, in regard to, in the matter of)
Narrators	Words which make the readers informed about where the writers' opinions and fact arise. They provide insights into the writers' point of view (I think, I was concerned with, I have concluded)
Attributors	Expressions that implicitly illuminate source of information and arguments found throughout the text (It is seen, It is seen, It has been found)

Table 1 shows that emphatics indicate certainty of arguments in texts, whereas hedges increase arguments' uncertainty. Hedges increase the level of uncertainty of writers within the texts, whereas emphatics increase the level of certainty of writers regarding their arguments. To add more, sequencers and topicalizers are employed in an attempt to make the text explicit and clear and thus enable the readers to understand the text. Lastly,

narrators and attributors provide insights into the source of information or opinion presented in the texts.

(iii) Williams' (1982) metadiscourse framework

Williams' (1982) metadiscourse framework, which is akin to that of Meyer's (1975), is composed of three principal points as (1) advance organizers, (2) connectives such as transitions, and frame markers, and (3) interpersonal discourse, which includes hedges, and boosters.

(iv) Crismore's (1983) metadiscourse framework

Crismore came up with a metadiscourse taxonomy by drawing upon the categories of not only Meyer (1975) but also Williams (1981), albeit with several changes. The metadiscourse classification of Crismore's (1983) consists of two main categories as the following: informational and attitudinal categories, with each including sub-categories. The first category involves goals, pre-plans and post plans, and topicalizers. The second category includes saliency (e.g. equally important, still more important, most crucial), emphatics (e.g. of course, true, in fact), hedges (e.g. perhaps, probably, it would seem), evaluative (e.g. unfortunately, luckily). Whereas informational category resembles interactive metadiscourse, attitudinal category is tantamount to interactional metadiscourse.

(v) Vande Kopple's (1985) metadiscourse framework

Vande Kopple (1985) proposed a metadiscursive taxonomy in the light of Williams' (1981) metadiscourse classification. Vande Kopple's taxonomy is based upon seven types of metadiscourse which included textual and interpersonal categories. Textual category contains text connectives, code-glosses, validity markers, narrators. On the other hand, interpersonal category is comprised of illocution markers, attitude markers, commentaries. Vande Kopple's (1985) metadiscourse taxonomy with functions and examples is given in Table 2.

Table 2*Vande Kopple's (1985) Metadiscourse Framework*

Textual Metadiscourse	Functions and Examples
Text connectives	Used to help show how parts of a text are connected to one another. Includes sequencers (first, next, in the second place), reminders (as / mentioned in Chapter 2), and topicalizers, which focus attention on the topic of a text segment (with regard to, in connection with)
Code-glosses	Used to help readers to grasp the writer's intended meaning. Based on the writer's assessment of the reader's knowledge, these devices reword, explain, define or clarify the sense of a usage, sometimes putting the reformulation in parentheses or marking it as an example, etc.
Validity markers	Used to express the writer's commitment to the probability or truth of a statement. These include hedges (perhaps, might, may), emphatics (clearly, undoubtedly), and attributors which enhance a position by claiming the support of a credible other (according to Einstein).
Narrators	Used to inform readers of the source of the information presented- who said or wrote something (according to Smith, the Prime Minister announced that).
Interpersonal metadiscourse	Functions and Examples
Illocution markers	Used to make explicit the discourse act the writer is performing at certain points (to conclude, I hypothesize, to sum up, we predict).
Attitude markers	Used to express the writers' attitude to the propositional material they present (unfortunately, interestingly, I wish that, how awful that).
Commentaries	Used to address readers directly, drawing them into an implicit dialogue by commenting on the reader's probable mood or possible reaction to the text (you will certainly agree that, you might want to read the third chapter first).

In accordance with Hyland (2005a), the taxonomy of Vande Kopple is not based upon solid theoretical foundation, by which it is possible to analyze real texts or to comprehend how authors communicate effectively.

(vi) Beauvais's (1989) metadiscourse framework

Beauvais came up with a novel metadiscourse taxonomy, by building upon speech act theory. Beauvais's metadiscourse model specifically includes two main parts: primary

expositive illocutionary acts and secondary expositive illocutionary acts. Primary expositive illocutionary acts are implemented by the the writer. In contrast, secondary expositive illocutionary acts are not expressed through first-person subjects. By contrast, the expository act is attributed to an external agent rather than to the author of the text.

(vii) Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen's (1993) metadiscourse framework Vande Kopple's (1985) metadiscourse taxonomy was advanced by some scholars (Crismore et al., 1993; Nash, 1992). All the same, as Hyland (2005a) asserts, the most painstaking revision was implemented by Hyland (1998) and Crismore et al. (1993) who segregated and reorganized metadiscourse markers in detail. The classification of Crismore et al. (1993) is presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Crismore et al.'s (1993) Metadiscourse Framework

Textual Metadiscourse	Functions and Examples
Text markers	
Logical connectives	Show connections between ideas (therefore; so; in addition; and)
Sequencers	Indicate sequence/ordering of material (first; next; finally; 1, 2, 3)
Reminders	Refer to earlier text material (as we saw in Chapter one)
Topicalizers	Indicate a shift in topic (well; now I will discuss . . .)
Interpretive markers	
Code-glosses	Explain text material (for example; that is)
Illocution markers	Name the act performed (to conclude; in sum; I predict)
Announcements	Announce upcoming material (in the next section . . .)
Interpersonal metadiscourse	
Hedges	Show uncertainty to truth of assertion (might; possible; likely. .)
Certainty markers	Express full commitment to assertion (certainly; know; shows)
Attributors	Give source/support of information (Smith claims that . . .)
Attitude markers	Display writer's affective values (I hope/agree; surprisingly . . .)
Commentary	Build relationship with reader (you may not agree that . . .)

Hyland (2005a) points out that Crismore et al.'s (1993) revision of Vande Kopple's (1985) taxonomy does not make the model flawless and that it still involves several problems. To begin with, The rationale for dividing textual metadiscourse into textual and interpretive markers remains unclear. Secondly, whereas reminders function as textual markers initially, announcements are included in the interpretive category later. Thirdly, Crismore et al. (1993) identify logical connectives syntactically in place of functionally, which makes logical connectives unclear. According to Crismore et al. (1993), metadiscourse markers are restricted to linguistic elements that connect two main clauses, including coordinating conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs, while subordinating conjunctions are treated solely as syntactic devices within their framework.

(viii) Mauranen's (1993) metadiscourse framework

Mauranen's metadiscourse framework represents the narrow approach to metadiscourse. Mauranen uses the term "metatext" and "reflexivity" in an attempt to denote metadiscourse and reflexivity is composed of two categories, such as reflexivity of high explicitness and low explicitness. The former includes references to the text, discourse labels, and addressing the reader. By contrast, the latter contains internal connectors, discourse labels, references to the text and addressing the reader.

(ix) Valero-Garces' (1996) metadiscourse framework

Valero-Garces' metadiscourse taxonomy is a representation of narrow approach to metadiscourse. This taxonomy includes four textual functions, such as connectors, reviews or earlier markers, previews or later markers and action markers as well. Valero-Garces gave examples from the corpus involving research texts in regard to economy.

(x) Vande Kopple's (1997) taxonomy of metadiscourse

Vande Kopple made several amendments in his earlier metadiscourse taxonomy (1985). He added epistemology markers, with modality markers and evidentials as their sub-categories. It is possible to hypothesize that modality markers may be employed to indicate hedges, while attributors could potentially be substituted with evidentials to fulfill their role. Similarly, emphatics do not exist in this taxonomy. Table 4 illustrates Vande Kopple's (1997) metadiscourse taxonomy.

Table 4*Vande Kopple's (1997) Metadiscourse Framework*

Category	Functions and Examples
Textual Metadiscourse	
Text connectives	Used to help show how parts of a text are connected to one another. Includes sequencers (first, next, in the second place), reminders (as / mentioned in Chapter 2), and topicalizers, which focus attention on the topic of a text segment (with regard to, in connection with)
Code-glosses	Used to help readers to grasp the writer's intended meaning. Based on the writer's assessment of the reader's knowledge, these devices reword, explain, define or clarify the sense of a usage, sometimes putting the reformulation in parentheses or marking it as an example, etc.
Interpersonal metadiscourse	
Illocution markers	Used to make explicit the discourse act the writer is performing at certain points (to conclude, I hypothesize, to sum up, we predict).
Epistemeology markers	Used to indicate some stance on the part of writer toward the epistemological status of the referential material conveyed. Includes modality markers (possibly, might, may, suppose), evidentials which stem from personal beliefs (I believe that), an induction (I induce that), sensory experience (it sounds like), other people's words (reportedly), and a deduction (should, presumably).
Attitude markers	Used to express the writers' attitudes to the prepositional material they present (unfortunately, interestingly, I wish that, how awful that).
Commentaries	Used to address readers directly, drawing them into an implicit dialogue by commenting on the reader's probable mood or possible reaction to the text (you will certainly agree that, you might want to read the third chapter first).

(xi) Hyland's (1998) metadiscourse framework

Hyland's (1998) classification of metadiscourse is systematically organized into five subcategories: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, relational markers, and person markers.. Table 5 illustrates Hyland's (1998) metadiscourse taxonomy.

Table 5*Hyland's (1998) Metadiscourse Framework*

Interpersonal Metadiscourse	Functions and Examples
Hedges	Withhold writer's full commitment to statements (e.g. might, perhaps, about)
Emphatics	Emphasize force of writer's certainty in message (e.g. in fact, definitely, obvious)
Attitude markers	Express writer's attitude to prepositional content (e.g. surprisingly, I agree, X claims)
Relational markers	Explicitly refer to/build relationship with reader (e.g. frankly, note that, you can see)
Person markers	Explicitly reference to author(s) (e.g. I, we, my, mine)

(xii) Bunton's (1999) metadiscourse framework

As Bunton (1999) points out, the focal point of metadiscourse is constrained by text items which specify text per se which makes text more coherent and cohesive. Bunton's (1999) metadiscourse taxonomy involves six categories: text reference, nonlinear text references, inter-text references, text act markers, text connectors and text glosses.

(xiii) Dafouz's (2003) metadiscourse framework

Dafouz's (2003) metadiscourse model contains textual and interpersonal MDMs. Textual metadiscourse markers include logical markers, sequencers, reminders, topicalizers, code-glosses, illocutionary markers and announcement. Additionally, interpersonal metadiscourse markers are composed of hedges, certainty markers, attributors, attitude markers and commentaries. Table 6 presents Dafouz's (2003) metadiscourse taxonomy.

Table 6*Dafouz's (2003) Metadiscourse Framework*

Category	Function	Examples
Textual metadiscourse		
Logical Markers	Express semantic relation between discourse stretches	And, furthermore, therefore, finally
Sequencers	Mark particular positions in a series	First/ second /on the one hand

Reminders	Refer to previous sections	Let us return/as was mentioned
Topicalizers	Demonstrate topic shifts	in political terms/ in the case of
Code-glosses	Explain, rephrase, or exemplify textual material	For example, in other words
Illocutionary markers	Explicitly name the act the writer performs	I propose/I hope to persuade
Announcements	Refer towards to future sections in the text	There are many good reasons
<hr/>		
Interpersonal metadiscourse		
Hedges	Express partial commitment to the truth-value of the text	May, might, probably, perhaps, maybe, it is likely
Certainty markers	Express total commitment to the truth-value of the text	Undoubtedly, clearly, certainly
Attributors	Refer to the source of information	X's claims that..., As the Prime Minister remarked...
Attitude markers	Express writers' affective values towards text and readers	Have to, unfortunately, it is absurd, I feel
Commentaries	Help to establish reader-writer rapport through the text	What is the future of Europe, You must understand, we all believe, Diana (ironically for a Spencer) was not

(xiv) Dahl's (2004) metadiscourse framework

In this framework, metadiscourse consists of locational metatext and rhetorical metatext. Locational metatext refers to linguistic items which represents the text itself. In marked contrast, rhetorical metatext comprises meta-elements, making the rhetorical acts explicit employed by the author in the analysis of the text.

(xv) Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse framework

In accordance with Hyland (2005a), metadiscourse is composed of interactive and interactional metadiscourse. Interactive metadiscourse includes transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code-glosses. Additionally, interactional metadiscourse contains hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, and self-mentions as well. Hyland's (2005a) analytical framework is a functional one rather than structural. Table 7 represents Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse model.

Table 7*Hyland's (2005a) Metadiscourse Model*

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	Help to guide the reader through the text	Resources
Transitions	Express semantic relation between main clauses	And, in addition, but, consequently
Frame markers	Refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages	Finally, to conclude, my purpose is
Endophoric markers	Refer to information in other parts of the text	Noted above, see Fig., in Section 2
Evidentials	Refer to source of information from other texts	According to X, (Y, 1990), Z states
Code-glosses	Help readers grasp meanings of ideational material	Namely, e.g., such as, in other words
Interactional	Involve the reader in the text	Resources
Hedges	Withhold writer's full commitment to proposition	Might, perhaps, possible, about
Boosters	Emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition	in fact / definitely / it is clear that
Attitude markers	Express writer's attitude to pro-position	Unfortunately, I agree, surprisingly
Engagement markers	Explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader	Consider, note that, you can see that
Self-mentions	Explicit reference to author(s)	I, we, my, our

Hyland (2005a) argues that interactive metadiscourse is primarily related with the writer's awareness of a participating audience and the ways he or she seeks to accommodate its probable knowledge, interests, rhetorical expectations and processing abilities. Interactive metadiscourse includes transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code-glosses.

In sharp contrast, interactional metadiscourse refers to the strategies through which writers manage interaction by intervening in and commenting on their discourse, while also expressing evaluations and explicitly positioning themselves in relation to their readers (Hyland, 2005a). Interactional metadiscourse is composed of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, and self-mentions.

(xvi) Ädel's (2006) metadiscourse framework

Ädel (2006) strikingly differs from other metadiscourse classifications. In accordance with Ädel (2006), metadiscourse is composed of references to the current text itself and its language use, references to the writer persona of the current text, references to the imagined reader of the current text and the combination of writer-oriented metadiscourse and reader-oriented metadiscourse.

(xvii) Ädel's (2010) metadiscourse framework

Ädel (2010) came up with a metadiscourse taxonomy for both spoken and written English. This metadiscourse framework consists of 23 distinct discourse functions classified into four principal categories: Metalinguistic comments, Discourse organisation, Speech act labels and References to the audience. Ädel stresses that metalinguistic comments, discourse organisation, speech act labels are related with textual elements, whereas references to the audience is pertinent to audience interaction. Table 8 presents Ädel's (2010) theoretical framework.

Table 8*Ädel's (2010) Metadiscourse Framework*

Category	Function	Examples
Metalinguistic comments		
Repairing	Refer to both self- and other-initiated suggestions or alterations which correct or cancel a preceding contribution	I'm sorry...; maybe I should have said
Reformulating	Refer to the offering of an alternative term or expression not because the preceding contribution was seen as erroneous, but because of the added value of expansion	If you'll allow me just, rephrase it a little ...
Commenting on linguistic form	Refer to metalinguistic references to linguistic form, word choice and/or meaning	What do we have going on in the Spanish?
Clarifying	Used to spell out the addresser's intentions in order to avoid misinterpretation	I do not mean to say that...
Managing terminology	Used to give definitions and provide terms or labels for phenomena that are talked about	By this we mean that...

Discourse organization		
Introducing topic	Used to open the topic	In this paper, I explore...
Delimiting topic	Used to explicitly state how the topic is constrained	I have restricted my discussion to...
Adding to topic	Used to explicitly comment on the addition of a topic or subtopic	We might add that...
Concluding topic	Used to close the topic	We conclude that...
Marking asides	Used to open or close a 'topic sidetrack' or digression	I want to do a little aside here...
Enumerating	Used to show how specific parts of the discourse are ordered in relation to each other	In the following section I will present...
Endophoric marking	Refer to cases in which it is not clear or relevant whether what is referred to occurs before or after the current point	First of all...
Reviewing	Point backward in the discourse	As we have seen...
Previewing	Point forward in the discourse	As I discuss below...
Contextualizing	Used to comment on (the conditions of) the situation of writing or speaking, and thus contains traces of the production of the discourse	I will not do so here either
Speech act labels		
Arguing	Used to stress the action of arguing for or against an issue	I am postulating that...; I am arguing that
Exemplifying	Used to explicitly introduce an example	I will use the embezzlement Example to examine...
Other speech act labelling		I want to emphasize...; I cannot answer
References to the audience		
Managing comprehension / channel	Used to check or at least refer to participants' understanding and uptake in relation to the channel	Did I answer your question ?
Managing audience discipline	Refer to cases in which the audience is directly addressed and typically instructed to do something	Can we have a little bit of quiet?
Anticipating the audience's response	Used to predict the audience's reaction to what is said, most often by attributing statements to the audience as potential objections or counterarguments	You might still think that...

Managing the message	Used to emphasise the core message in what is being conveyed	I have attempted to present the reader with...
Imagining scenarios	Used to engage the audience	Imagine the following situation. You have to...

Some specific forms of interactional metadiscourse markers are not present in the taxonomy, such as hedges, boosters and attitude markers. The majority of metadiscourse classifications represented in this section, such as that of Williams (1981), Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore et al. (1993), Hyland (2005a), share similarities. However, narrow approaches show differences, given that they confine the use of subcategories of metadiscourse to the textual features.

Before giving a detailed account of metadiscourse use, it might be better to present a brief information as to the hallmarks of opinion writing and its link with metadiscourse.

2.3. METADISCOURSE AND OPINION COLUMNS

An opinion is a personal belief, statement, or perspective which reflects an individual's opinion, and feelings with regard to a specific situation or subject. Contrary to facts, which are true statements, opinions are not conclusive and decisive statements. That is to say, opinions originate from personal judgement and information and are different from facts, which are universally accepted and can be assessed through evidence (Kuhn, 1991).

Furthermore, opinions are influenced by individual factors and vary from person to person. That is why, opinions might even show substantial differences in the same circumstance (Van Eemeren et al., 2002). As a consequence, whilst facts are objective and can be proven via evidence, opinions cannot be substantiated in the same manner, in that opinions reflect personal preferences in lieu of universally accepted statements (Mettler & Mondak, 2024).

Still the same, opinions boast a drastic influence on communication. To illustrate, in accordance with Habermas (1984), opinions are indispensable elements of argumentation and dialogue, wherein people need to exchange their opinions in an attempt to arrive at a consensus. Thereupon, opinions have a radical impact upon decision-making processes and debates in both academic and non-academic discourse.

To add more, opinions can be used in a bid to persuade an individual or a community. For instance, Aristotle divides persuasion strategies into three categories of appeal, such as *ethos*, *pathos*, and *logos* (Kennedy, 2007). *Ethos* is the level of credibility of the speaker's opinion. *Pathos* is the emotional force of one's opinion to the audience. *Logos* is the logical background for opinion. These strategies are based on one's opinion and can be used to convince people in books, advertisements, opinion articles, and various other disciplines.

Toulmin (1958) maintains that opinions are the basis for coming up with a logical argument and they must be backed up with evidence or any logical background to persuade people. By the same token, according to Keltner & Gross (1999), emotions, which make themselves clear with opinions, could impact the way information is received and interpreted by people. Furthermore, opinions, which are unsupported, might be underestimated; that is why, opinions need to be strengthened with facts or logic, inasmuch as well-grounded opinions are capable of affecting and persuading people (Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969).

Of course, opinion columns are composed of opinions of researchers, journalists, famous people and etc. Opinion columns constitute a subtype of persuasive discourse, through which writers express their viewpoints and establish a stance on a particular issue (Van Dijk, 1988). To put it differently, opinion columns, or opinion articles, are persuasive texts, inasmuch as the author offers an opinion as to a current affair in society and strives for making the audience agree with himself (Fu & Hyland, 2014; Moghadam, 2017).

Nevertheless, the scope of opinion columns is vast and since opinion column is a genre with distinctive characteristics which enables creativity. Therefore, most of authors could

deviate substantially from the typical column, thereby making their texts difficult to categorize which genre their writings belong to. (Nazar, 2024).

Opinion columns are written about topics which possess a specific societal importance at the time of publication (Le, 2004, p. 688). In accordance with Sukma & Sujatna (2014), opinion columns are generally written by experts of the fields, and they do not represent official viewpoint of the newspaper. In virtue of such a feature, they stand out as exemplary instances of persuasive discourse in written form across diverse cultural and national settings (Connor, 1996).

The purpose of opinion columns is to persuade the readers about significance and interest of a topic and to make the readers' viewpoint aligned with the authors' opinion (Fu & Hyland, 2014; Khopitak, 2015; Ramash & Ng, 2023). Nonetheless, to do so, the columnists need to present their argument such that the readers are satisfied about the authors's viewpoint and accept it (Farnia & Mohammadi, 2018).

Opinion columns draw upon rhetorical strategies, whereby the authors transmit their personal opinions effectively so as to convince their readers (Firmstone, 2019). The success of opinion columns is closely related with the writer's ability and expertise in offsetting the degree presenting information and persuading their readers (Permana Sukma & Sari Sujatna, 2014). The columnists must organize their sentences properly and the sentences in the columns need to establish rapport between the authors and the readers (Ramash & Ng, 2023).

Given that opinion columns are written to persuade the readers about a particular topic, the authors of the opinion columns primarily focus on improving their engagement with the readers by means of interactional tools in the texts (Moghadam, 2017). Likewise, as Farnia & Mohammadi (2018) argue, the columnists take a more personal interactional position in the opinion columns. In accordance with Crismore et al. (1993), interactional metadiscourse tends to be numerous in a more conversational, informal, personal style of writing (Crismore et al., 1993, p. 64). Hence, opinion columns are texts where interactional metadiscourse can be employed.

To illustrate, the columnists make use of hedges in order to show their politeness to the readers by not being too assertive and by revering different opinions (Moghadam, 2017). To add more, in accordance with Dafouz-Milne (2008), boosters are specific feature of opinion columns and they are a requirement, in that readers expect to find the author's opinion overtly stated. Additionally, Nugroho (2020) states that engagement markers (commentaries in Nugroho) can be frequently employed in opinion columns in virtue of the nature of opinion columns, which strive for including the readers more in the texts. Moreover, considering that opinion columns convey the author's attitude on a topic and try to make the reader agree with the author's attitude, attitude markers can be found in high frequency in opinion columns as well (Fu & Hyland, 2014). In addition, as Fu & Hyland (2014) argue, self-mentions can be used frequently in opinion columns not just because the columnists make their position apparent by means of self-mentions but because of the explicit dialogic structure of the opinion columns. In consequence, the structure of opinion columns significantly influences the use of metadiscourse in these type of writings.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 3 mainly focuses on the following topics that form the theoretical framework of the study: Metadiscourse Studies in non-academic contexts in different domains, Turkish Studies on Metadiscourse in Non-Academic Context in newspapers and Categories of Interactional Metadiscourse Markers in Turkish.

3.1. METADISCOURSE STUDIES IN DIFFERENT DOMAINS

Metadiscourse has been extensively studied in non-academic contexts throughout the world in a variety of domains such as travel blogs (Huang et al., 2020), science and opinion articles (Fu & Hyland, 2014), foreign language learning videos (Koonala & Chaiwong, 2022), novels (Hamad, 2023), short stories (AlJazrawi & AlJazrawi, 2019) as well as other contexts. The following section of the thesis presents those studies:

Crismore & Farnsworth (1989) analyzed Darwin's employed persuasive appeals, especially *ethos* and *pathos*, in his book *Origin of Species*. It was found by the researchers that Darwin used *ethos* so as to persuade their readers by highlighting his competence, credibility and authority. Moreover, he also appealed to *pathos* to persuade his readers, in that he tries to emotionally influence his readers in his book.

Fu & Hyland (2014) examined interactional metadiscourse in popular science and opinion articles. The corpus of the study contained 200 popular science texts and 200 opinion articles. The researchers drew upon Hyland (2005a) for the analysis of popular science texts and opinion articles. The study revealed that although there are similarities in the use of interactional metadiscourse markers between either genre, their authors characterize their interactions differently. The researchers also found that engagement markers were the most frequently used interactional metadiscourse marker in both popular science texts and opinion articles.

Ho (2016) investigated the metadiscursive strategies employed by the HKSAR government to persuade the Hong Kong public to accept two proposed education policy reforms. The study adopted a corpus-based approach, utilizing the concept of metadiscourse as its analytical framework. At the end of the study, it is revealed that the HKSAR government employed *logos*, *ethos*, and *pathos* with metadiscourse in the policy reform discourse in persuading the people of Hong Kong.

Ho (2018) analyzed how professionals used metadiscourse so as to elicit persuasion with workplace emails. The data consist of a total of 659 workplace request emails collected from professional contexts in Hong Kong. Using interpersonal model of metadiscourse as the analytical framework, the study found that email provides professionals with a convenient channel to convince colleagues to comply with requests by appealing to rationality, credibility and emotions.

AlJazrawi & AlJazrawi (2019) examined metadiscourse in English short stories. The corpus of the study consists of 18 short story texts, which include 88,940 words, authored by three authors Edgar Allan Poe, Mark Twain and Raymond Carver. Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse framework was adopted for the analysis. At the end of the study, it was found that self mentions are the most frequently used interactional metadiscourse marker and persuasion is elicited through MDMs in the texts.

Li (2020) studied how Sun Guoting utilized interpersonal metadiscourse to build the credible appeal in his treatise *Shu Pu*. The researcher has revealed that certainty markers as well as attitude markers were used to appeal to the *ethos* of a determined, upright and passionate calligraphy critic, scholar and supervisor. In addition, albeit less frequently, hedges, commentaries and attributors were used for the purpose of attaining persuasion in the text.

Huang et al. (2020) investigated interactional metadiscourse markers in English travel blogs. The corpus of the study consists of 30 travel blogs. The study adopts a functional approach of Hyland (2005b) as the theoretical framework. At the end of the study, it was found that boosters are the most frequently used interactional metadiscourse marker in

the travel blogs and it was claimed that authors of the travel blogs utilized boosters to make their arguments more persuasive.

Liu & Zhang (2021) examined the employment of metadiscourse utilized to attain persuasiveness in the corporate press release genre. The study found that the authors of e appealed to *pathos*, *ethos*, and *logos* with the aid of different MDMs. Moreover, the study revealed a high frequency of attitude markers in realizing pathos and engagement markers in establishing ethos, whereas endophoric markers and evidentials were comparatively less frequent.

Koonnala & Chaiwong (2022) explored interpersonal metadiscourse in English language learning videos published on YouTube. The corpus consisted of 30 video scripts produced by native English. Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse model was utilized as the analytical framework. Through the results, the researchers found that the number of interactional metadiscourse markers used in the video scripts was more than that of interactive markers. This finding shows that engaging with the reader via the video contents is prioritized.

Hamad (2023) explored interactional MDMs in Hawthorne's Simplified Novel *The Scarlet Letter*. The corpus of the study is the novel of *The Scarlet Letter* by Hawthorne. The study adopts Hyland (2019) as the analytical framework. The findings of the study demonstrate that self mentions and boosters were employed more than other MDMs. The researchers also make a claim that the novelist benefited from a myriad of interactional MDMs to engage and persuade the readers.

Bibi et al. (2024) explored metadiscourse markers utilized by travel bloggers in not just Pakistani English but also Native English contexts. Taking Hyland (2005a) as the analytical framework, the study encompassed 15 travel blogs in both Pakistani English and native English. The findings disclose that engagement markers are the most frequently utilized interactional metadiscourse marker. The study also reveals that the employment of interactional MDMs may vary according to culture-driven preferences.

Mensah et al. (2025) investigated interactional MDMs used on a Ghanaian television talk show, with particular attention to their communicative functions in persuading the audience. The findings of the study demonstrate that the show is a persuasive arena in which social commentators and representatives of political parties build appeals of *logos* (rationality), *ethos* (credibility), and *pathos* (affection) on the audience. The study has also revealed that interlocutors of talk show utilized diverse interactional metadiscourse markers in order to show their stance towards propositions.

3.2. METADISCOURSE STUDIES ON NEWSPAPERS

Metadiscourse has been extensively studied in non-academic contexts throughout the world in a variety of contexts. The studies mentioned below were all written in non-academic contexts specifically in the newspaper domains. There were a variety of studies on this topic and this section of the thesis is going to present those studies carried out so far in literature. The researchers who studied on newspaper discourse are presented below:

Dafouz (2003) investigated the role of metadiscourse in persuasive texts written by professional writers in two newspapers: the Spanish *El País* and the British *The Times*. The researchers aimed at comparing how professional writers organize their texts, guiding their readers and building solidarity between the authors and the audience. The newspapers were analyzed both in terms of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse. It was found that the use of metadiscourse was influenced by culture-driven preferences and genre-driven conventions.

Dafouz-Milne (2008) examined how metadiscourse markers contribute to the construction of persuasion in newspaper discourse. From a cross-linguistic perspective, the study included 40 opinion columns, 20 of which are from the Spanish *El País* and the remaining are from the British *The Times*. The study aimed at revealing the distribution of metadiscourse markers in terms of cross-linguistic preferences. The results disclose that not just textual but even interpersonal metadiscourse markers are present in English and Spanish newspaper columns, even though variations exist as to the distribution of

these markers. In addition, the results also illustrate textual and interpersonal metadiscourse were indispensable for persuasive effect to be elicited.

Abdollahzadeh (2007) studied how writers with from cultures shape their written texts by employing metadiscourse markers. The corpus of the study contained 53 Persian and English newspaper editorials. The results demonstrate that there was not a significant difference between Persian and English newspaper editorials in terms of interactive metadiscourse. However, the findings reveal that whilst English editorials employed more hedges, Persian editorials used more boosters. This difference was linked to Iranian tradition of abstaining from stating uncertainty about social and religious issues.

Noorian and Biria (2010) investigated interactional metadiscourse in persuasive writing. 12 opinion articles from two leading newspapers, *The New York Times* and *Tehran Times*, were taken for the corpus of the study. The study, which adopted Dafouz (2003), aimed at unveiling whether American and Iranian columnists used interactional metadiscourse with the same frequency or not. The results of the study indicate that even if interactional metadiscourse was present in both American and Iranian columns, the frequency of the markers varied significantly. The researchers conclude that genre-driven conventions and cultural preferences are the key reason of difference in the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in either corpus.

Oskouei (2011) analyzed the use of ‘interactional metadiscourse in a corpus of British and Iranian news magazine editorials. The study aimed at proposing a set of criteria in order to distinguish propositional and non-propositional content. The study also aimed to reveal the similarities and differences between the two sets of editorials in terms of interactional metadiscourse. The results show that both British and Iranian editorialists utilize interactional metadiscourse to engage with their readers. Also, it was found that Iranian editorialists harnessed certainty markers more than British. By marked contrast, British editorialists utilized uncertainty markers more than Iranian editorialists. The researcher affiliated this difference with cultural backgrounds.

Hashemi & Golparvar (2012) explored interactive and interactional metadiscourse used in Persian news reports. The corpus of the study is 20 news reports selected through random sampling from 5 Persian news agencies. The study drew on Vande Kopple (1985) as the analytical framework. The study found that metadiscourse markers were frequently used in Persian news reports, yet the frequency of interactive markers were higher than interactional markers.

Kuhi & Mojood (2014) investigated metadiscourse in English and Persian editorials from a contrastive viewpoint. The corpus of the study involves 60 newspaper editorials written in English and Persian taken from 10 newspapers. Drawing on Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse taxonomy, the study found that genre-conventions and cultural backgrounds of two nations determine the way authors use metadiscourse markers to structure their texts. The findings also illustrate that attitude markers are the most frequently employed interactional metadiscourse marker in the editorials. The researchers conclude that the use of metadiscourse is overwhelmingly influential upon the degree of persuasiveness.

Yazdani et al. (2014) investigated the role of interpersonal metadiscourse markers in English front page news articles about 9/11. The corpus of the study is 27 front pages of newspapers in US. The research employed both quantitative and qualitative research methods to analyze the data. At the end of the study, it was found that hedges were the most frequently employed metadiscourse markers in English front page news articles. The study concluded that journalists avoided being too assertive by using indirect strategies like adverbs and adjectives about contentious issues like 9/11.

Abbas et al. (2016) investigated metadiscourse markers in Pakistani press reportage. The corpus of the study contains 2.3 million words and a software named *Antconc 3.4.4* was used to extract metadiscourse markers from the corpus. The study adopted Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse model for the analysis. The findings reveal that engagement markers are the most frequently employed interactional metadiscourse marker. The researchers conclude that the use of metadiscourse is of great importance for Pakistani press, since metadiscourse aids reader in grasping texts efficiently.

Tavanpour et al. (2016) analyzed the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in sport news of newspapers. The aim of the study is to investigate interactional metadiscourse markers in sport news in newspapers written in English by American English native speakers and Iranian non-native speakers of English. The data of the study were chosen from 5 elite newspapers published in Iran and in the United States. By employing Hyland's (2005a) taxonomy, the study concluded that although interactional metadiscourse markers were employed in each newspaper, the number of markers varied. Nonetheless, in both Iranian and American newspapers, self mentions are the most frequently employed interactional metadiscourse marker.

Yazdani & Salahi (2016) investigated differences in the use of metadiscourse markers between Persian and English in online headlines. To that end, 50 Persian and 50 English online headlines were chosen randomly from English and Persian newscasts. Employing Hyland (2005a), the study disclose that attitude markers and hedges are the most dominantly used interactional metadiscourse markers in both corpora.

Siddique et al. (2017) studied interactive and interactional metadiscourse Pakistani English newspaper editorials. The corpus of this study was composed of 1000 editorials taken from four Pakistani newspapers. The researchers adopted their proposed metadiscourse model as the analytical framework. The findings illustrate that interactive metadiscourse markers were used more than interactional ones. The results of the study also indicate that hedges and boosters were the most frequently employed interactional metadiscourse markers in the newspaper editorials.

Ahmed & Masroor (2018) examined interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers and persuasive strategies in British and Pakistani English newspapers' letters to editor. The corpus of the study is composed of 100 letters, of which 50 are from Pakistani English newspapers and the rest of which are from the British newspapers. The study took Hyland (2005a) as the analytical framework. In light of the results, interactional metadiscourse markers were used more than interactive metadiscourse markers. The findings also indicate that boosters were employed more than other markers.

Farnia & Mohammadi (2018) studied the role of interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the construction of persuasion in local British and Iranian newspapers. The corpus of the study included 120 persuasive opinion articles published in two local Iranian newspapers, that is *Isfahan Ziba* and *Isfahan (Emrooz) Today*, and two local British newspapers, viz *Liverpool Echo* and *Chronicle Live*. Using Dafouz-Milne's (2008) taxonomy of interpersonal metadiscourse marker as the theoretical framework, the study unearthed that commentaries are the most frequently used interpersonal metadiscourse in both corpora.

Siddique et al. (2018) explored interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers in Pakistani English newspaper editorials. The corpus of the study involves 250 editorials from four different newspapers. The study adopts Hyland (2005a) for the theoretical framework of the study. The findings of the study disclose that the number of interactive metadiscourse markers is more than that of interactional metadiscourse markers. Moreover, the study found that engagement markers are the most frequently employed interactional metadiscourse marker in all the corpora.

Akhter et al. (2019) investigated the use of interactional metadiscourse in letters to editor from Pakistani English newspaper. The corpus of the study encompasses 30 letters to editors published in *Dawn News*. Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse model was taken as a basis for analytical framework. The study revealed that engagement markers and self mentions are the most frequently employed interactional metadiscourse markers in the letters to editors. The study concludes that the authors use a great number of metadiscourse markers in the letters to persuade their readers.

Hassan et al. (2019) analyzed language used by male and female Pakistani journalists in terms of interactional metadiscourse. The corpus for the study involves 200 opinion columns, which were gathered from four different newspapers. The study adopted Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse model. The results illustrate that just as there are similarities in the language used by male and female authors, so are there differences, too. However, both groups mainly employed engagement markers and hedges in the texts.

Siddique et al. (2019) analyzed engagement markers in four Pakistani English newspapers. The corpus of the study is 1000 editorials taken from four Pakistani English newspapers. The study propose a new metadiscourse model for engagement markers. In accordace with the results of the study, the use of engagement markers influences to what extent text are reader-friendly.

Abdullah et al. (2020) studied interactional metadiscourse markers used by a Malaysian and a South Korean authors in their online newspaper articles. The study adopted Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse model. The findings indicate that self mentions were absent in either article but the distribution of other interactional metadiscourse markers are identical to each other. The researchers link this findings to the fact that the authors of the articles strived for being more informative.

Alipour & Jahabin (2020) studied proximity in Iranian and American newspaper editorials from a metadiscursive viewpoint. The corpus of the study includes 240 newspaper editorials. The study adopts Hyland's proximity model (2010a) which comprises five major elements, organization, argumentative structure, stance, engagement, and credibility. The study disclose that when compared with the American newspaper editorials, the Iranian newspaper editorials include more engagement markers. It is argued that this difference stems from cultural, social and political backgrounds of two countries.

Nugroho (2020) studied whether there are similarities and differences between how American and Indonesian writers integrate metadiscourse markers into their opinion and business articles. The corpus was taken from two newspapers, *Washington Examiner* and *The Jakarta Post*, and included 7,000 words for each type of article. Adopting Dafouz-Milne's (2008) taxonomy of metadiscourse, the study found that attributors were used more than other markers in *Washington Examiner*, while hedges were employed more than other markers in *The Jakarta Post*.

Shahid et al. (2020) analyzed similarities and dissimilarities in the use and distribution of metadiscourse markers between two languages, Urdu and English, in newspaper

editorials. The corpus consists of 100 newspaper editorials, of which 50 were taken from English newspapers and the remaining 50 were gathered from Urdu newspapers. The study utilizes Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse model as the theoretical framework. At the end of the study, it was found that the use of interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers are varied in both corpora and that attitude markers are the most frequently employed interactional metadiscourse marker in the study.

Koutchadé (2021) studied metadiscourse markers two online newspapers' editorials in Nigeria, *PUNCH* and *THE NATION*. This study utilizes Hyland's (2005a) model of metadiscourse to analyze the texts. The researcher revealed that except for code glosses and self-mentions, other interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers were employed in either newspapers' editorials. At the end of the study, it was found that in terms of interactional metadiscourse, hedges and engagement markers are the most frequently employed markers in *PUNCH* editorial while hedges and attitudes makers are mostly used in *THE NATION*.

Putri et al. (2023) investigated the use of interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers in news articles about the conflict between Russia and Ukraine. The study, which is both quantitative and qualitative, benefits from Hyland (2005a) for the analytical framework. Five news articles collected from The New York Times' English news article website form the corpus of the study. The findings of the study illuminate that all types of interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers were used in the news articles. The results also demonstrate that self-mentions was the most frequently employed interactional metadiscourse marker in the articles.

Alghazo et al. (2024) investigated the construction of authorial stance in English and Arabic newspaper editorials. The corpus of the study is composed of 80 newspaper editorials retrieved from two newspapers. The study benefits from Hyland's taxonomy of stance as the theoretical framework. The analysis showed that the most frequently employed stance devices in Arabic editorials are the attitude markers, and boosters, whilst the most frequently used stance device is hedging, and attitude markers in English

newspaper editorials. Hence, either language constructs stance differently from each other in editorials.

3.3. TURKISH METADISOURSE STUDIES IN NON-ACADEMIC CONTEXTS

Starting with Lautamatti (1978), Meyer (1975), Bunton (1999), Mauranen (1993) Valero-Garces (1996), Crismore et al. (1993) Hyland (1994) Vande Kopple (1985), metadiscourse has been handled from the point of academic language since they aimed to uncover the metadiscursive features of academic texts. This tendency caused the researchers to focus on academic contexts. Therefore, although it can be said that Turkish studies of metadiscourse in non-academic context are quite limited in number, there are some studies that focused on non-academic discourse.

Doyuran (2009) investigated hedging in Turkish newspaper articles. The corpus of the study involves 43 opinion columns from different daily Turkish newspapers and 20542 words in total. Given that just quantitative analysis could be insufficient, the study is therefore employs mixed method research design. The results indicate that hedging is a tool which can reflect both uncertainty and certainty in tandem with a hallmark interactive positive politeness, by contrast with scientific articles.

Esmer (2018) examined how MDMs were used in the persuasive texts. The data contains 30 persuasive written texts. The study, which made use of Hyland (2005a) as the analytical framework, found that students who learn Turkish as a foreign language are unable to employ metadiscourse markers in their texts effectively and thus they are unable to produce any well-formed persuasive text.

Akıncı Oktay (2020) examined the tendencies in advice-giving practices of Turkish culture in opinion columns through hedges and boosters, placing advice as a starting point for comprehending metadiscursive aspects of language. The findings of the study indicated that the use of boosters and hedges in speech acts and their interpretation should be estimated in accordance with that specific speech act.

Soyşekerci (2023) investigated the use of metadiscourse markers in different text types. The study aimed to disclose the frequency of MDMs in those text types to observe the differences in the use of metadiscourse markers in various genres, viz essays, short stories and research articles. The corpus is composed of 295 texts and analyzed with respect to Hyland (2005a). The findings illustrate the frequency of MDMs were different in each text type and such a difference existed mainly due to genre-specific use of metadiscourse markers.

3.3.1. Categories of Interactional Metadiscourse Markers in Turkish

3.3.1.1. Boosters

Boosters are linguistic tools which increase authors' certainty and present a confident style in texts. Hyland (2005a) states that Boosters function to convey a sense of certainty, confidence, and conviction in arguments. Likewise, Kuhl & Babapour (2019) assert that the use of boosters is an indication of a strong and certain authorial position which cannot be defied.

Boosters can be examined under four sub-categories, amplifiers, modal suffixes indicating certainty, emphatics and universal pronouns.

(i) Amplifiers

Amplifiers embody a group of intensifiers, such as always, so, too, very, very much, never, everytime (Hinkel, 2005). These structures, as Hinkel (2002) argues, intensify the meanings of gradable adverbs and verbs, and act as exaggerative, overstatement and intensifier.

(ii) Modal suffixes indicating certainty

In accordance with Kornfilt (1997), the suffix *-Dir* is used either to express emphatic certainty at a formal, stylistic level or to indicate inferred probability. What is more, can be used when stating a fact someone has a strong feeling or impression (Lewis, 2000). Furthermore, Göksel & Kerslake (2005) indicate that the suffix *-Dir* can be employed to

stress a generalization, general rule, or statement of principle. The suffix is used to attribute certain permanent qualities to a subject in nominal sentences. Göksel & Kerslake (2005) give the following sentence to exemplify this.

(1) Antropoloji, [insan topluluklarını inceleyen] bir bilim(dir). “Anthropology is a science which studies human communities.”

The suffix *-Dir* in example (1) is a non-fact modality marker which generalizes the subject. As a consequence, *-Dir*, when used for the purpose of expressing certainty, can function as a type of booster in texts. Even though the suffix *-Dir* can be used to convey inference, *-Dir* is used to express great certainty as well (Kornfilt, 1997).

The other modal suffixes indicating certainty that function as boosters are *-mAktA*, *-mİş*, *-AcAk*. The aorist *-Dir* can occur in verbal forms which include one of the position of three suffixes, namely *-mAktA*, *-mİş*, *-AcAk* (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005). Each of these modal suffixes indicating certainty will be examined in detail below.

To illustrate, in Dağ Tarcan’s (2019) study, Turkish writers used *-mAktA+dir* in scientific articles so as to give the certainty reading in the following statement as a booster:

(2) Sınıf bilinci, sınıf ideolojisi, sınıf çıkarı ya da sınıf çatışması üstüne söyleyecek çok az şeyi olan Foucault ise, genel bir iktidar kuramı geliştirmeyi kesinlikle reddetmektedir “Foucault, who has little to say about class consciousness, class ideology, class interest or class conflict, absolutely refuses to develop a general theory of power.”

By the same token, Akbaş’s (2014) study indicated that the writers used specific verbs with a particular suffix (*-mİş+dir*) to show their confidence in their arguments they support as in the following sentence:

(3) Öğrencilerin araştırma öncesindeki ve sonrasındaki basketbol temel becerileri uygulamalarında anlamlı düzeyde farklılık bulunmuştur “A significant difference was found in the students' basketball basic skills practices before and after the research.”

In her study, Güçlü (2022) found that Turkish writers employed *-mİştİr* to elicit emphatic impressions in the readers and show their confidence about their arguments in texts.

Güçlü gives the following sentence as the example for *-mİştİr*:

(4) Gazete devrin siyasî ve sosyal olaylarının yanı sıra edebî ve kültürel faaliyetlerini de yakından takip et-miştir “The newspaper closely followed the literary and cultural activities as well as the political and social events of the period.”

In his study, Kan (2016) argues that *-AcAk+Dİr* can be used as a booster to show confidence and increase certainty of arguments and gives the following sentence as the example:

(5) Bu nedenle Türkçe derslerinde dil becerilerini kazandırmada dramanın kullanımı fayda sağlayacaktır “Therefore, the use of drama would increase the gain in language abilities in Turkish courses.”

Güçlü (2022) emphasizes that Turkish writers made use of *-Dİr*, which is a modal suffix indicating certainty, in the conclusion sections of MA theses in a bid to strengthen their confidence about arguments presented. The following is an example from Güçlü as to the use of *-Dİr*:

(6) Yakut türklerinde “Evlilik sönmez bir ateş yakmaktır” sözü evliliğe ilişkin, güzel bir tanımdır “The statement “Marriage is to light an unquenchable fire” in Yakut Turks is a beautiful definition of marriage.”

The suffix *-(A/I)r* is a modal suffix indicating certainty, which can also function as booster in texts, In accordance with Göksel & Kerlake (2005), *-(A/I)r* can be used in a generalization, general rule, or statement of principle, but this does not necessarily mean that the use of *-(A/I)r* is restricted to this feature, since *-(A/I)r* can also be employed whilst making an assumption or hypothesis. This difference can be seen better in the example below.

(7) Ali problemi çözer “Ali solves the problem”

(8) Ali problem çözer “Ali solves problem” (Erguvanlı-Taylan, 2018).

Erguvanlı-Taylan (2018) maintains that the suffix *-(A/I)r* in the example (7) has an assumptive meaning as the object of the sentence (problem) takes case suffix; by stark contrast, the example (8) includes a generalization as the object of the sentence is generic.

Additionally, Göksel & Kerslake (2005) draw attention to the same point about the use of *-(A/I)r*. The following two examples make the distinction more apparent.

(9) Koşma, düşersin. “Don’t run; you’ll fall over.”

(10) Kaplumbağa yavaş yürür. “A tortoise walks slowly.” (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005)

Whereas the example (9) includes an assumptive reading, the example (10) contains a generalization reading, viz a generic statement and thus can function as a modal suffix indicating certainty.

(iii) Emphatics

Just like other types of boosters, Hyland (2005a) argues that emphatics also increase the certainty of arguments in texts. In other words, emphatics imply certainty and strengthen the force of the proposition (Hyland, 1998). The examples of emphatics are as follows: *açıkça* “clearly”, *bile* “even”, *gerçekten* “really”, *gözlen-* “to be observed”, *istisnasız bir şekilde* “unexceptionally”, *kesin* “definite”, *kesinlikle ama kesinlikle* “definitely but definitely”, *olsun olmasın* “whether or not”, *ortaya kon-* “to be revealed”, *şüphesiz* “no doubt”, *tek tek* “one by one” and the like (Güçlü, 2022).

(iv) Universal pronouns

In accordance with Hinkel (2005), universal pronouns are those that encompass every member of audience referred and the examples of universal pronouns are presented in the following: *her şey* “everything”, *hiç kimse* “no one”, *tümü* “all”, *hepsi* “all” and etc.

Some of the examples of boosters which are utilized in Turkish texts are presented as in the following: *hepsi* “all”, *her şey* “everything”, *asla* “never”, *başta* “first”, *büyük oranda* “drastically”, *çok* “a lot”, *daha fazla* “more”, *en çok* “the most”, *hayli* “a lot”, *hep* “always”, *her yer* “everywhere”, *her zaman* “anytime”, *hiçbir* “no”, *oldukça*

“increasingly”, *pek* “very”, *son derece* “extremely”, *her konuda* “in all matters” *tamamen* “totally”, *açıkça* “clearly”, *bariz* “obvious”, *elbette* “certainly”, *halen* “currently”, *hatta* “even”, *hiç kuşkusuz* “no doubt”, *kesin olarak* “definitely”, *özellikle* “especially”, *şüphesiz* “no doubt” (Akbaş, 2012; Akıncı Oktay, 2020; Algı, 2012; Atmaca, 2016; Bayyurt, 2010; Can & Yuvayapan, 2018; Dağ Tarcan, 2019; Doyuran, 2009; Esmer, 2018; Güçlü, 2022; Hatipoğlu & Algı, 2017; Hatipoğlu & Algı, 2018; Önel, 2020; Şen, 2019; Ünsal, 2008).

3.3.1.2. Engagement Markers

Engagement markers refer to the diverse ways authors bring readers into the discourse relate to them and foresee their possible objections (Hyland, 2005b). That is to say, engagement markers are linguistic devices that directly address readers to include them as discourse participants.

In accordance with Hyland (2005b), engagement markers are divided into 5 sub-types as inclusive “we”, reader pronouns, such as singular and plural form of “you”, rhetorical questions and directives, personal asides, like personal opinions presented in the parantheses, and appeals to shared knowledge.

Therefore, engagement markers can be examined under six sub-types as inclusive “we”, reader pronouns, rhetorical questions, directives, personal asides and appeals to shared knowledge. The sub-types of engagement markers are clarified sequentially in the light of other studies in the literature.

(i) Inclusive “we”

The writers establish solidarity with the readers with the aid of inclusive “we” and create a sense of immediacy with the reader, in addition to providing a membership by constructing both the writer and the reader as discourse participants (Hyland, 2005b).

Making use of inclusive “we”, as Ädel (2006) argues, can increase persuasive effect of arguments because its use might lead to the fact that the writer and the reader take the

same perspective and the use of we also underlie consensus between the writer and the imagined reader. The authors of the texts include readers in the text to guide them towards the desired interpretation with *biz*, *-dik*, *-miz* (Akbaş, 2014; Güçlü, 2022; Önel, 2020; Şen, 2019).

The following first person plural pronouns and suffixes are engagement markers in Turkish that are utilized for involving the readers in the text: first person plural subject pronoun *biz* “we”, first person plural suffixes *-(I)z*, *-(I)k*, first person plural possessive adjective *bizim*, “our”, first person plural possessive pronoun *bizimki* “ours”, first person plural possessive suffix *-(I)miz*, first person plural object pronouns *bizi/bize* “us”, first person plural reflexive pronoun *kendimiz* “ourselves”. Moreover, the other first person plural pronouns include first person plural reciprocal pronoun *birbirimiz* “each other”, and first person plural reflexive possessive pronoun + *ki kendimizin* (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Kornfilt, 1997; Lewis, 2000; van Schaik, 2020).

Akbaş (2014) illustrates the use of engagement markers by Turkish writers in texts in the following example:

(11) Uygulanan akademik başarı testi sonuçlarına göre şunları söyleyebiliriz
“According to the results of the academic achievement test applied, **we** can say the following.”

The writers of the texts explicitly include the readers in the texts by grabbing their attention towards the texts with the employment of engagement markers, namely inclusive “we”.

(ii) Directives

Directives are a type of engagement marker employed to guide the reader to fulfill an action or see things in a way determined by the writer and they are presented via an imperative, by a modal of obligation addressed (such as *must*, *should*, and *ought*) and by a predicative adjective expressing the writer’s judgement of necessity/importance (Hyland, 2005a).

As Hyland (2005b) puts forth, directives increase the persuasive effect of the texts by making the shared interests of writer and reader clear. Directives, albeit with a different kind of emphasis, transmit the authority of the authors in determining how the reader ought to participate in the text or implement an action outside it (Hyland, 2002a).

Kornfilt (1997) & Lewis (2000) state that the personal pronoun suffixes *-(y)In(Iz)*, (*-Iz* can be used in polite and official contexts), *-sIn*, a colloquial imperative *-sAnA* for a non-polite situation and *-sAnIzA* for a polite situation function as imperatives. Furthermore, Göksel & Kerslake (2005) maintain that the first person singular optative *-(y)AyIm* and the first person plural form *-(y)Allm* expresses action that the speaker asks for performance together with the hearer.

In Turkish language, Akbaş (2014) maintained that Turkish writers used directives such as *unutulmamalıdır ki* in their texts. Likewise, Dağ Tarcan (2019) exemplifies the use of directives in the following sentence:

(12) Programda uygulanması öngörülen öğrenme yaklaşımları ve değerlendirme teknikleri hakkında ciddi ve sistematik bir hizmet içi eğitim **verilmelidir**. “Serious and systematic in-service training should be given on the learning approaches and evaluation techniques to be implemented in the program.”

The researcher states that the writers used directive *verilmelidir* ‘It should be given’ in the example (12) to involve the readers in the text.

Furthermore, Güçlü (2022) illustrates the following two examples for directives used in Turkish texts:

(13) Locke’un bileşik fikirlerin oluşmasının iradi olduğu iddiasına bakalım “Let’s consider Locke's claim that the formation of compound ideas is voluntary.”

(14) Her şeyden önce şu unutulmamalıdır ki İslam kültüründe beden insanı günaha sevk eden bir güç olarak algılanmaz “First of all, it should not be forgotten that the body is not perceived as a force that leads people to sin in Islamic culture.”

Güçlü (2022) argues that the authors of the texts use these directives to foster reader interaction via imperatives like *bakalım* ‘Let’s consider’i and necessity modal such as *unutulmamalıdır* ‘‘It should not be forgotten’’

In the light of other studies in Turkish, it is apparent that Turkish writers made use of directives such as *-mAlI* ‘‘should/ought/must’’ to guide the readers to implement action, including *unutulmamalıdır* ‘It should not be forgotten’ and *verilmelidir* ‘It should be given’ (Dağ Tarcan, 2019; Güçlü, 2022).

(iii) Reader pronoun

Reader pronouns, including *sen/siz* ‘‘you’’, and *sizin* ‘‘your’’, *senin* ‘‘your’’, are linguistic tools that provide offer the most explicit ways of including readers into a discourse (Hyland, 2008). Reader pronouns also offer authority and communality, given that these let the authors address the reader from a position of confidence, whilst setting up a dialogue (Hyland, 2005a).

Earlier research indicate that Turkish writers include the readers in their texts with the help of reader pronouns such as *kendin/kendiniz* ‘‘yourself/yourselves’’, *sizlere* ‘‘to you’’, *sizin* ‘‘your’’, *senin* ‘‘your’’, *benzettiğinizde* ‘‘When you compare’’, *kabul edersiniz* ‘‘You accept it’ and the like (Can, 2006; Dağ Tarcan, 2019; Güçlü, 2022; Kan, 2016; Şen, 2019).

The remaining second person singular/plural pronouns and suffixes act as reader pronouns, since they can be employed for involving the reader in the text by referring them. In accordance with Kornfilt (1997), Göksel & Kerslake (2005) and van Schaaijk (2020), the following are reader pronouns in Turkish: second person singular pronoun *sen* ‘‘you’’, second person plural pronoun *siz*, which is the polite form, ‘‘you’’, second person singular possessive adjective *senin* ‘‘your’’, second person plural possessive adjective *sizin* ‘‘your’’, second person singular possessive pronoun *seninki* ‘‘yours’’, second person plural possessive pronoun *sizinki* ‘‘yours’’, second person singular/plural object pronouns *seni-sizi-sana-size*, second person singular reflexive pronoun *kendin* ‘‘yourself’’, second person plural reflexive pronoun *kendiniz* ‘‘yourselves’’, second person singular reflexive possessive pronoun *kendininki* ‘‘that which is yours’’, second person plural reflexive

possessive pronoun *kendinizinki* “that which is yours”, and the suffixes that can function as reader pronouns in Turkish: second person singular suffix $-(I)n$, second person plural suffix $-n(I)z$, second person singular possessive suffix $-(I)n$, second person plural possessive suffix $-(I)nIz$.

(iv) Rhetorical questions

Rhetorical questions are linguistic tools that can be employed for eliciting dialogic involvement where the readers of the texts can be led to the writer's viewpoint by inviting engagement (Hyland, 2002b). As Hyland (2005b) conveys, rhetorical questions can provoke interest and can incentivize the readers to explore an issue with the author as an equal and pull the readers into the discourse at critical points. Furthermore, Hyland (2008) also emphasizes that rhetorical questions provide an area to present an opinion as an interrogative in order that the reader seems to be the judge, yet in fact awaiting no response.

To exemplify, Güçlü (2022) gives the following statements for the use of rhetorical questions in Turkish:

(15) *Peki, insanoğlu sınırları, duvarları nasıl yıkabilir?* “Well, how can human beings break down borders and walls?”

(16) *Bu tutsak kültürde, neyi savunabiliriz, neyi amaç olarak belirleyebiliriz?* “In this captive culture, what can we defend, what can we set as a goal?”

Güçlü (2022) states that in the examples (15) and (16) above, Turkish writers make use of rhetorical questions to grab the readers’ attention and to include them in the argument.

(v) Personal asides

In accordance with Hyland (2005b), personal asides are linguistic tools utilized by authors to interrupt the argumentative flow to comment on prepositional information and address the audience directly about the discourse itself. By turning to the reader in mid-flow, the writer accepts and gives response to an active reader with the aim of initiating a brief dialogue, which is interpersonal to a large extent, strengthening the writer-reader relationship (Hyland, 2008). Personal asides, as Hyland (2005b) argues, also function to

demonstrate that not just writer but even readers are engaged in the same game and are in a position to draw on shared understandings.

Güçlü (2022) expresses the use of personal asides, albeit with a low frequency, in Turkish texts in the following statement:

(17) Yirminci yüzyıl sanatının yeni-insanı **(bu tezde tartıştığımız mekanik-insan ütopyaları gibi)** politik ütopyalardı “The new-man of twentieth-century art **(like the mechanical-human utopias we discussed in this thesis)** were political utopias.”

The researcher states that in the example (17), the author interrupts the argumentative flow by offering a comment through the use of paranthesis.

(vi) Appeals to shared knowledge

Hyland (2005b) assert that appeals to shared knowledge are linguistic tools that seek to position readers within apparently naturalized boundaries of disciplinary understandings.

Earlier research on interactional metadiscourse in Turkish showed that Turkish writers employed appeals to shared knowledge to make the readers agree with the authors. For example, Dağ Tarcan (2019) gives the example of the use of appeals to shared knowledge in the following statement:

(18) Yavaş şehir ölçütlerine bakıldığında, kentsel yaşam kalitesi ve sürdürülebilirlik olgusu ile örtüşen amaçları hedeflemekte olduğu; ancak turizm yazınında bu anlamda yürütülen araştırmaların nitelik ve nicelik olarak yeterli olmadığı **görülmektedir** “When it comes to cittaslow criteria, **it is seen that** it aims for goals that coincide with the urban life quality and sustainability phenomenon; however, the research conducted in this sense in the tourism literature is not sufficient in terms of quality and quantity. ”

Moreover, Güçlü (2022) gives the following phrases, *hatırlanacağı üzere* ‘as it may be recalled’, and *anlaşılmaktadır* ‘it is understood that’ as an example for the use of appeals to shared knowledge in Turkish:

(19) **Hatırlanacağı üzere**, temel felsefesi öyle bir büyük yalan söyle ki herkes inansın olan Goebbels, geliştirdiği strateji ve etkili propagandasıyla asıl düşüncelerini kamufle ederek halkı etkisi altına almayı başarmıştır “As it may be recalled, Goebbels, whose basic philosophy was to tell such a big lie that everyone would believe it, succeeded in influencing the public by camouflaging his real thoughts with the strategy and effective propaganda he developed.”

(20) Terörizmin varlığından söz edebilmek için şu üç unsurun mutlak surette bir arada olması gerektiği **anlaşılmaktadır**; bunlar, ideoloji unsuru, örgüt unsuru ve deyim unsurudur “In order to be able to talk about the existence of terrorism, **it is understood that** the following three elements must come together; these are the element of ideology, the element of organization and the element of action.”

The researcher states that the writers use such devices to appeal to shared knowledge in the examples (19) and (20). In other words, appeals to shared knowledge were used so that the new concept provided by the research can be understood by the readers totally.

The following expressions can be considered appeals to shared knowledge in Turkish language: *bilindiği üzere* “as known”, *dikkat edilecek olursa* “if paid attention”, *görmekteyiz* “we see that”, *not* “note”, *göstermektedir* “it shows that”, *anlaşılmaktadır* “it is realized that”, *görülmetedir* “it is seen”, *Tablo X göstermektedir* “Table X shows”, *öngörülmektedir* “it is predicted that”, *...anlamaktayız* “we understand that...”, *...bildiğimiz* “that we know”, *...görmekteyiz* “we see that...” (Dağ Tarcan, 2019; Güçlü, 2022; Kan, 2016; Şen, 2019).

3.3.1.3. Hedges

In accordance with Hyland (2005a), hedges are linguistic devices such as possible, might and perhaps, which demonstrate the authors’ decision to respect for alternative voices and viewpoints and so withhold complete commitment to a proposition. That is to say, hedges increase the subjectivity of a position by helping information be represented as an opinion in lieu of a fact and thereby open a space for debate. Consequently, hedges serve to acknowledge readers’ perspectives and incorporate them into the validation of the writer’s claims (Hyland, 1998). Ädel (2006) states that hedges function to withhold full commitment, and present alternative perspectives,

Furthermore, according to Bhatia (1993) and Cheung (1993), hedges are central to persuasive writing, since they serve to involve readers and lead them toward the interpretations the writer intends to give.

Hyland (1998) maintains that hedges consist of four forms largely utilized in texts: epistemic adverbs (e.g. almost, sometimes, roughly, highly), epistemic adjectives (e.g. some, a few, likely, most), epistemic lexical verbs (e.g. suggest, indicate, assume and seem), epistemic modal verbs.

It is apparent that hedges are employed to give subjectivity to the statements and avoid responsibility for the claims made in the texts. Furthermore, hedges are also used in an attempt to soften the statements and to increase the persuasive effect of the arguments. The forms of hedges will be analyzed in detail by giving reference to previous studies.

(i) Epistemic adjectives

Authors can add uncertainty to their statements by way of epistemic adjectives which gives uncertainty meaning, including *muhtemel* “likely”, *birçok* “many”, *birtakım* “some”, *pek çok* “many”, *bazı* “some”, *şüpheli* “doubtful”, *mümkün* “possible” *yaklaşık* “about”, *biraz* “some”, *çok* “much/many”, *-a yakın* “close to”, *-a doğru* “towards the...”, *-a açık* “-able”, *kimi* “some”, ... *kadar* “as...as”, *izafi* “relative”, *belirsiz* “uncertain”, ...*gibi* “like a...” (Akıncı Oktay, 2020; Ağçam, 2014; Dağ Tarcan, 2019; Güçlü, 2022).

(ii) Epistemic modal suffixes

In accordance with Hyland (1998) epistemic modality is related with the modality of reasoning and belief rather than deontic and causal modality and their usage can encourage the reader to a common logic with the authors.

In Turkish, meaning of some suffixes, such as *-(y)Ebil-* cannot be gathered about whether the main idea is based upon permission (‘may’) or possibility (‘can’), so that the interpretation mostly depends on the situation wherein a question or a statement is uttered (van Schaaijk, 2020). To illustrate, Erguvanlı-Taylan (2018), who examined Turkish

modality markers, revealed that Turkish epistemic modality markers have three readings: the first reading is prediction $-(y)Abil+(A/I)r$, the second reading is assumption $-(A/I)r$, and the last reading is deductive reasoning $ol+mAlI$.

By marked contrast, Turkish non-epistemic modality suffixes also have deontic, such as $-mAlI$, and permission, including $-(y)Abil+(A/I)r$, meanings. In addition to permission, prediction and competence readings (Aksu-Koç, 1988; Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Kornfilt, 1997; Lewis, 2000; Özsoy, 1999; Yavaş, 1980), $-(y)Abil$ has also request reading (van Schaaik, 2020). In a similar fashion, the suffix $-(y)Abil$ can mark possibility in Turkish language (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Kornfilt, 1997; Özsoy, 1999; van Schaaik, 2020). The suffix $-(y)Abil + -(A/I)r$ can be considered an epistemic modal in Turkish. For example, Doyuran (2009) gives the following statements about the use of epistemic modality in Turkish:

(21) örnek olarak verebiliriz “may be given as an example”

(22) betimleyici eklemeler şu şekilde sınıflandırılabilir “might be classified as...”

The researcher states that the writers make use of such epistemic modality markers in the examples (21) and (22) in an attempt to soften their statements and adjust their level of certainty.

To add more, Akıncı Oktay (2020) gives the following statements as to the use of epistemic modality in Turkish opinion columns:

(23) Karşılaştığın şiddet giderek artabilir, çünkü erkeğin eli bir kere kalktı mı arkası gelir... “The violence you are facing may increase day by day, because once a man’s hand lays on you it will continue.”

The researcher argues in the example (23) that epistemic modality marker can be used to leave a room for readers with the writers considering other possible options.

By the same token, Güçlü (2022) exemplifies the use of epistemic modality markers in the following statements:

(24) Araştırmada elde edilen veriler bu bağlamda değerlendirildiğinde, Fromm'un yaşadığı çağın ve olayların düşüncelerini yansıttığı **söylenebilir**. “When the data obtained in the research is evaluated in this context, it say-PASS-PSB-AOR-3SG that Fromm reflects the thoughts of the era and events in which he lived.”

(25) Gullitaire'in bize aktardığı Ayşe Hanım ile Valide Sultan'ın zaman zaman sohbet ettiği görüşü de bunlara eklendiğinde padişah haremi ile vakit geçirmiş **olmalıdır**. “When Gullitaire's opinion that Ayşe Hanım and Valide Sultan chatted from time to time were added to these, and padishah spend-PF AUX-OBLG-COP-3SG time with his harem.”

The researcher states that in the examples (24) and (25), the Turkish writers made use of epistemic modality markers so as to explain the probability and inference in the sentences.

Even so, Erguvanlı-Taylan 2018 states that the permission and ability functions of $-(y)Abil+-(A/I)r$ do not function as hedges; to the contrary, they are no-epistemic modality markers. To add more, whereas Kornfilt (1997) maintains that $-(y)Abil+AcAk$ has reading of the abilitative in the future tense and thus does not function as hedge in accordance with Güçlü (2022), Göksel & Kerslake (2005) argues that $-(y)Abil+AcAk$ also expresses speculative possibility and hence may function as hedge. Göksel & Kerslake (2005) give the following statement as an example for this usage:

(26) Bu evler birkaç yıl sonra yıkılabilecek. ‘These houses may be demolished in a few years’ time.’

Here, the suffix $-(y)Abil+AcAk$ expresses speculative possibility and adds a greater sense of authority to a statement regarding the possible occurrence of a future event.

The other Turkish epistemic modality markers can be given as in the following: $-Dir$ “COP”, $-(y)AcAk+Dir$ “FUT-COP”, $-(A/I)r$ “AOR”, $-malı$ “OBLG” (Akbaş, 2012, 2014; Akıncı Oktay, 2020; Bal-Gezegin, 2016; Can, 2006; Doyuran, 2009; Esmer, 2018; Erguvanlı-Taylan, 2018; Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Güçlü, 2022; Kornfilt, 1997; Lewis, 2000; Yangın, 2020).

Even though the suffix *-(A/I)r* usually present epistemic meaning with another suffix – *(y)Abil*, the suffix-*(A/I)r* can also function as epistemic modality marker per se (Aksu-Koç, 1988; Göksel & Kerslake, 2005).

(27) Ali problemi çözer “Ali solves the problem”

(28) Ali problem çözer “Ali solves problem” (Erguvanlı-Taylan, 2018).

The suffix *-er* in the example (27) conveys an assumptive meaning, since the object of the sentence contains a case suffix; in contrast, the suffix *-er* in the example (28) has the generalization meaning, because the object of the sentence is generic (Erguvanlı-Taylan, 2018).

The suffix *-Dir* can either function as expressing an assumption or inferred probability and the possibility or necessity of the occurrence of an event or expressing a generalization, general rule, or expressing emphatic certainty at a both formal, and stylistic level (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Kornfilt, 1997; Lewis, 2000).

In accordance with Erguvanlı-Taylan (2018), *-Dir* functions as epistemic modality marker, thereby presenting possibility in the proposition as in the following examples:

(29) İnşallah hasta değil-im-dir. ‘I hope I’m not ill.’

(30) Yorgun-sun-dur. ‘You must be tired.’ (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005)

In the examples (29) and (30), the suffix *-Dir* expresses inferred probability (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005).

However, the use of *-Dir* is not restricted to just nominal sentences; on the contrary, it can be employed in verbal sentences, expressing possibility (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Kornfilt, 1997). For example,

(31) Herhalde bir yerlerde karşılař-mıř-ız-dır. ‘We have probably met somewhere or other.’ (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005).

Göksel & Kerslake (2005) states that the suffix *-Dir* in the example (31) adds the reading of probability to the proposition. That is to say, the suffix *-Dir* following another suffix *-miş* presents possibility in the proposition.

When *-(y)AcAKtIr* is used, this means that the sentence conveys an assumption that the predicted action is planned or otherwise predetermined and this means that *-(y)AcAKtIr* adds possibility reading to the proposition (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005). In other words, the combination of *-AcAk* and *-Dir* results is epistemic modality (Kerimoğlu, 2010). Furthermore, as Sansa Tura (1986) claims, *-AcAk + -Dir* adds strong possibility to a proposition as supported by Hatipoğlu & Algı (2017). For instance, Güçlü (2022) gives the following statement about the use of *-AcAk + -Dir* as an epistemic modality marker:

(32) Belki de bir gün, kültürel üretim alanının toplumsal mantık kavramına göre yazma isteği, Yapıtlar bilimi projesinin olanağı ile **gerçekleştirilecektir** “Perhaps, one day, the desire to write according to the concept of social logic of the field of cultural production **realize-PASS-FUT-COP-3SG** with the possibility of the science of Works Project.”

In accordance with Güçlü (2022), Turkish writers employed epistemic modality marker *-AcAk + -Dir* in an attempt to diminish certainty presented in the argument (32).

Aside from expressing necessity (van Schaaik), the suffix *-mAll* could also convey the reading of the possibility or necessity of the occurrence of an event or state (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Lewis, 2000). As Lewis (2000) points out, the suffix *-mAll* can be conjugated with inferential of 'to be' to give the possibility reading. Hatipoğlu & Algı (2017) give the following statement as an example for the inferential meaning of the suffix *-mAll*:

(33) İkinci sebep ise çocuklar üniversiteye geldiklerinde o üniversite çocuğun okula başladığı dili öğretiyorsa bu çocuk için büyük bir avantaj olacaktır. Özet geçmek gerekirse çocuklar okula başlamalarının akabinin de yabancı dil **gör-meli-ler** “The second reason is that when children enter university and the university gives education in the foreign language the child knows, this will be a great advantage for the child. In summary, children **should start learning** a foreign language as soon as they start school.”

Doyuran (2009) claims that the combination of *mAll+Dir* might also function as a hedging tool, once it carries inferential meaning:

(34) ...*kanal niteliğine bürünmüş ol-malıdır* "...must have a channel function"

What is more, Hatipoğlu & Algı (2017) also exemplify the use of as a hedging device which adds inferential meaning to the proposition in the following example (35):

(35) *Okulla beraber İngilizce eğitimi başla-malıdır. Çocuk ne kadar erken öğrenirse o kadar avantajlıdır* "Together with the school, English education must **start-mEII-AORIST**. The sooner the child learns the language the more advantageous it will be for him/her."

Additionally, in accordance with Corcu (2003) maintains that several aspect markers including *-AcAk*, *(I)yor*, and *-mİş* can be conjugated with *-mAll* in a bid to give epistemic meaning to a proposition as in the following statement:

(36) *Sayım uzun sürmüş olmalı, baksanıza ekimin 3'üne zor yetiştirdiler* "The census must have lasted long, as they could hardly finished it at the 3'rd October." (Corcu, 2003)

Corcu (2003) further states that the causative suffixes *-Ir*, *-Dir* *-T* and the passive marker *(I)n/l* can be placed before *-mAll* so as to give epistemic meaning.

(iii) Epistemic adverbs

In accordance with Biber et al. (2021), epistemic adverbs express the speaker's judgement about the certainty, reliability, and limitations of the proposition can reveal the speaker's doubt about the proposition. Furthermore, Giang (2015) states that these epistemic adverbs can either strengthen or weaken the force of epistemic modality. Epistemic adverbs in Turkish are as follows: *belki* "probably", *hemen hemen* "roughly", *yaklaşık olarak* "approximately", *bazen* "sometimes", *muhtemelen* "perhaps", *herhalde* "perhaps", *olasılıkla* "probably", *genellikle* "generally", *sık sık* "often", *oldukça* "somewhat", *neredeyse* "approximately", *yaklaşık* "approximately", *çokça* "mostly", *epeyce* "mostly", *genel olarak* "generally", *genelde* "generally", *görece* "relatively",

hayli “quite”, *kısmi* “partially”, *nispeten* “relatively”, *tartışmalı* “contentious”, *takriben* “almost” (Güçlü, 2022).

In sum, epistemic adverbs in Turkish can function as a hedging device in that they by nature give uncertainty, and possibility reading to any proposition.

(iv) Pronouns

Pronouns are another category of hedges which are employed for softening propositions and adding uncertainty to statements. Pronouns which function as hedge are given as in the following: *bir kimse* “someone” *biri* “somebody”, *birisi* “anybody”, *birileri* “somebody”, *bir şey* “something”, *herhangi biri* “anybody”, *herhangi birisi* “anybody”, pronominal quantifier *herhangi bir şey* “anything”, pronominalized determiners such as *bazısı/bazıları* “some of them”, *bazı(ları)mız* “some of us”, *bazı(ları)nız* “some of you”, *kimi/kimisi/kimileri* “some of them”, *kimimiz* “some of us”, *kiminiz* “some of you”, *birimiz* “one of us”, *biriniz* “one of you”, *birileri* “one of them”, *çoğu / birçoğu* “most/many (of them)” and nonspecific indefinite pronoun *insan* “one” (Güçlü, 2022).

(v) Epistemic lexical verbs

Epistemic lexical verbs are a subtype of hedges which are employed to soften statements and adds probability to a proposition. In accordance with León (2006), epistemic lexical verbs are rhetorical tools which are employed to convey judgement and to interact with audiences. Epistemic lexical verbs, which serve as hedges, gives information as regards the extent of certainty (Vold, 2006). Furthermore, Szczygłowska (2022) maintains that epistemic lexical verbs allow the readers to discern certain and uncertain information and unveil which statement is a fact and which is authors’ opinion, as a consequence.

Epistemic lexical verbs deciphered in Turkish are given as follows: *san-* “to suppose”, *öner-* “to suggest”, *çalış-(m.AyA çalış-)* “to try to”, *kuşkul-* “to suspect”, *inan-* “to believe”, *görün-* “seem” (Güçlü, 2022).

Passive structure can also function as a lexical verb in texts. The following are the examples of passive structures from earlier research that function as lexical verbs: *öneril-* “to be suggested”, *iddia edil-* “to be asserted”, *düşünül-* “to be thought”, *çalışıl-* “to be worked” (Akbaş, 2014; Doyuran, 2009; Güçlü, 2022; Kan, 2016). To add more, it is demonstrated that copulas including *gözük-*, *görün-* “seem” can also function as epistemic lexical verbs (Doyuran, 2009; Güçlü, 2022).

Doyuran (2009) suggests that the use of passive structure conceals the presence of the author to some extent and imply that a statement is based on a judgement as opposed to certain knowledge. *Il* and *(I)n* function as passive suffixes in Turkish (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Kornfilt, 1997; Lewis, 2000; Özsoy, 1999).

(37) ...yaşlı birimlerin denizdeki devamı olarak düşünülmüştür. (It is thought as seaward continuation of older units)

In the example (37), *düşünülmüştür* “is thought” functions as a hedge in the form of a passive structure.

As a result, epistemic lexical verbs are a sub-category of hedges, given that they add probability and uncertainty to any statement by way of lessening the impact of the writers commitment to the proposition.

3.3.1.4. Attitude Markers

Attitude markers are linguistic tools which refer to issues that the writers deem important, interesting or unexpected so as to properly suit their arguments into expected background understandings of the readers (Hyland, 2005a). That is to say, attitude markers, as Vande Kopple (1985) states, allow the writers to demonstrate the importance of something, and about the personal emotional con-comitants of linguistic material. Hence, attitude markers guide them about how they might themselves respond to the argument (Hyland, 2005a).

In accordance with Hyland (2008), attitude markers are composed of sentence adverbs (e.g. effectively, comparatively, increasingly, at least, attitude verbs (e.g. matter, care, hope, think) and adjectives (e.g. primary, serious, profound, critical).

Nonetheless, judging from the findings of earlier research in Turkish language about metadiscourse, attitude markers can be examined under five types as follows: attitudinal adjectives, attitudinal lexical verbs, attitudinal adverbs, attitudinal verbs and deontic modal suffixes. These types of attitude markers are expressed in detail in the light of previous studies about the topic.

(i) Attitudinal adjectives

Earlier research on Turkish metadiscourse indicate that Turkish writers draw upon attitudinal adjectives to mark their attitudes and foreground themselves by means of *şaşırtıcı* “interesting”, *önemli* “vital”, *iyi* “good”, *yeni* “new”, *uzun* “long”, *karmaşık* “complicated”, *büyük* “big”, *anlamlı* “meaningful”, *basit* “easy”, *benzersiz* “unmatched”, *başarılı* “successful”, *değerli* “precious”, *can alıcı* “crucial”, *sıkıcı* “dull” (Akbaş, 2012, 2014; Bal-Gezegin, 2016; Güçlü, 2022).

(ii) Attitudinal lexical verbs

Another category of attitude markers is attitudinal lexical verbs. In Turkish, *gerek-* “to be necessary” is also an obligation or necessity marker (Lewis, 2000). *Gerek-* can also function as a verb with the meaning of “to be necessary” (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005).

Turkish writers make use of deontic lexical verbs such as *gerektir-* “to require” , *zorunda/meçbur bırak-* “to compel”, *meçbur et-* “to force”, *şart koş-* “to stipulate”, *zorunlu gör-* “to regard necessary”, *-mAsI gerek-* “it has to”, *-mAk gerek-* “have to”, *-sI lazım* “it has to” so as to mark their attitude (Corcu, 2003; Güçlü, 2022).

(iii) Attitudinal adverbs

Previous studies on Turkish metadiscourse demonstrate that Turkish writers deploy attitudinal adverbs to show their attitude by means of such adverbs as *ilginç*

biçimde/şekilde “interestingly”, *önemli olarak* “importantly”, *maalesef* “unfortunately”, *şaşırtıcı olarak*, “surprisingly”, *umut verici şekilde* “hopefully”, *bilinçsizce* “unconsciously”, *kolaylıkla* “easily”, *en azından* “at least”, *yeterince* “enough”, *ustalıkla* “skillfully”, *neyse ki* “fortunately”, *etkin bir biçimde* “effectively” (Bal-Gezegin, 2016; Dağ Tarcan, 2019; Esmer, 2018; Şen, 2019; Güçlü, 2022).

Other adverbials which have not been treated as an attitudinal adverb thus far are *inşallah* “hopefully, I hope”, *Allahtan* “fortunately” and *çok şükür* “fortunately”. Göksel & Kerslake (2005) points out that *inşallah*, *Allahtan* and *çok şükür* mentions about people’s stance as to a particular topic. Therefore, *inşallah*, *Allathan* and *çok şükür* can function as an attitudinal adverb in Turkish.

(iv) Attitudinal verbs

Turkish writers draw on attitudinal verbs to mark their attitude in texts. Previous studies indicate the following are the examples of attitudinal verbs in Turkish: *destekle-* “to support”, *faydalı ol-* “to be beneficial”, *yararlı ol-* “to be beneficial”, *dikkat çek-* “to draw attention”, *katıl-* “to share”, *tercih et-* “to prefer”, *yeğle-* “to prefer”, *endişe duy-* “to be concerned about”, *inan-* “to believe”, *önem kazan-* “to gain importance”, *aydınlat-* “to enlighten”, *hak et-* “to deserve”, *-mek istemek* “to want to”, *umut etmek* “to hope” (Can, 2006; Esmer, 2018; Güçlü, 2022).

(v) Deontic modal suffixes

The suffix *-mAll* which adds deontic meaning to a proposition is a modality marker which marks necessity (Corcu, 2003; Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Kornfilt, 1997; Lewis, 2000).

Erguvanlı-Taylan (2018) argues that *-mAll* can function as deontic modality which is non-epistemic, much as it can give deductive meaning and hence function as a hedge. Nevertheless, given that *-mAll* can function as deontic modality, it can be considered an attitude marker. The context where *-mAll* appears determines whether the suffix is a hedge or attitude marker. In the example (38), the suffix *-mAll* functions as a modality marker:

(38) Bir kişinin yaşamına son verilmesi ile sonuçlanabilecek bir durumda hekim, hem kendisini hem de içinde bulunduğu durumu doğru değerlendirmelidir. “In a situation that may result in the death of a person, the physician evaluate-OBLG-COP-3SG both herself and the situation she is in” (Güçlü, 2022).

Deontic meaning of *-mAll* is regarded as attitude marker, since it contains the requirement of written or unwritten social rules as opposed to involving epistemicity (Bal-Gezegin, 2016; Esmer, 2018; Güçlü, 2022). To add more, the combination of *-Dir* with *-mAll* bolsters the force of necessity as in the following example:

(39) Çevre eğitimi dersi sadece eğitim fakültelerinde değil aynı zamanda üniversitelerin tüm bölümlerinde seçmeli ders olarak okutulmalıdır. “Environmental education course teach-PASS-OBLG-COP-3SG as an elective course not only in education faculties but also in all departments of universities” (Güçlü, 2022).

3.3.1.5. Self-Mentions

Hyland (2005a) states that self-mentions refer to the level of explicit author presence in the text evaluated by the frequency of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives. The presence or absence of explicit author reference is a conscientious preference by writers to adopt a specific stance (Hyland, 2001b). Thereupon, the use of self mention is a clear sign about which perspective the reader should interpret the statements of the authors (Hyland, 2005a).

Self-mentions are divided into two categories: explicit authorial references and implicit authorial references. The categories of self-mentions are elucidated consecutively in the light of earlier research in Turkish literature.

(i) Explicit authorial reference

Personal pronouns such as I- or we-based references are explicit authorial references in Turkish (Akbas, 2014).

Earlier research on Turkish MDMs demonstrate that Turkish writers make use of self-mentions so as to explicitly mention themselves and their presence in their text. Explicit authorial references in Turkish are as follows: first person singular pronoun *ben* “I,” first

person plural pronoun *biz* “we”, *benim* “my”, *bizim* “our”, *beni* “me”, *bizi* “us”, *bana* “me”, *bize* “us”, *kendim* “myself”, *kendimiz* “ourselves”, first person singular suffixes *-(U)m*, *-(I)m*, in tandem with and first person plural suffixes including *-(I)k*, *-(I)z*, *-(I)mIz*, *-(U)mUz* (Akbaş, 2012, 2014; Bal-Gezegin, 2016; Bayyurt, 2010; Can, 2006; Dağ Tarcan, 2019; Esmer, 2018; Güçlü, 2022; Kan, 2016; Şen, 2019).

Additionally, Turkish also possesses the following first person pronouns: first person singular possessive pronoun formed by the suffix *ki(n)* *benimki* “the one which is mine”, first person plural possessive pronoun formed by the suffix *ki(n)* *bizimki* “the one which is ours”, first person singular reflexive possessive pronoun formed by the suffix *ki(n)* *kendiminki* “that which is mine”, first person plural reflexive possessive pronoun formed by the particle *ki(n)* *kendimizinki* “that which is ours” (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005; Kornfilt, 1997; Lewis, 2000; Underhill, 1979; van Schaaik, 2020).

In addition to these, *bendeniz*, *kulunuz*, *köleniz*, and *hizmetkarınız* are personal pronouns that can be employed instead of “I” to show modesty and to be more polite (Turkish Language Association, 2025).

These pronouns and suffixes function as self-mentions, since Turkish writers use these personal pronouns and suffixes to explicitly refer to themselves. The employment of “we” for explicit presence of writers is called the “collective we” or “exclusive we”, in that such kind of “we” has an inclusive function, namely “collective we” refers to every author of the text which is produced by more than at least one author (Ädel, 2006; Hyland, 2001a).

Each of the opinion columns in the corpus of this study belongs to single author. For this reason, the use of “collective we” was not taken into consideration and not included in the data analysis. As a consequence, just first person singular pronouns and personal suffixes were examined in this study in terms of explicit authorial reference.

(ii) Implicit authorial reference

Implicit authorial reference is a key strategy employed by authors in order to hide their involvement into texts or make the texts more objective (Akbas, 2014).

In Turkish, it was detected that Turkish writers opted for marking their self implicity by means of regarding themselves as *yazar* “the author”, *arařtırmacı* “the researcher”, *arařtırma ekibi* “the research team”, *tarafımızca* “by us”, *kanaatimce* “in my opinion” (Güçlü, 2022).

Aside from inanimate phrases, it was also found that Turkish writers also made use of passive structures to implicitly mark their personal identity, such as *rastlanmıřtır* “It was found”, *incelenmiřtir* “It was examined”, *yapıldı* “It was done”, *ortaya koyulmuřtur* “It has been revealed” (Akbař & Hardman, 2017; Güçlü, 2022).

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

This study aims at uncovering interactional metadiscourse markers used in opinion columns in selected Turkish newspapers and attempts to reveal the functions they fulfill in the opinion columns. This study is based on quantitative research method. Quantitative research methods are crucial in that they provide researchers with a systematic approach to investigate and assess phenomena using numerical data (Zyoud et al., 2024). Furthermore, quantitative research findings delineate what is significant or influential within a data (Burrell & Gross, 2017). Hence, quantitative research methods are extensively utilized to identify patterns, and to test theories in a great number of academic fields (Trochim, 2006). The description of frequencies and tokens of MDMs makes up the quantitative data of the study.

4.1. CORPUS OF THE STUDY

The corpus of the current study was established through a multi-stage sampling approach. In the first stage, purposive sampling (i.e., criterion sampling) was utilized to identify ten newspapers with the highest circulation rates in Türkiye. To mitigate selection bias, a simple random sampling technique was subsequently applied to this group. Each of the top ten newspapers was assigned a numerical code, and four, *Sözcü*, *Yeni Şafak*, *Hürriyet*, and *Milliyet*, were selected for inclusion in the study.

In the second stage, stratified random sampling was employed to select the specific columnists for analysis. By treating each newspaper as a distinct stratum, three authors were randomly selected from each publication. This method was implemented to guarantee equal representation across four newspapers, thereby preventing accidental overrepresentation of any single newspaper. Furthermore, this approach was adopted to ensure that the findings reflected the broader institutional voice of the newspapers rather than the idiosyncratic styles of individual authors. Concerning this, the following lines present information about the composition of the corpus.

Table 9 below presents the distribution of these opinion columns across the four newspapers:

Table 9

The Number of Opinion Columns per Newspaper

Newspapers	Opinion Columns
Milliyet	10
Sözcü	9
Yeni Şafak	7
Hürriyet	6
Total	32

According to Table 9, it is evident that a total of 32 opinion columns have been selected for the study. *Milliyet* has the highest number of opinions columns ($N = 10$, 31.2%). *Sözcü* is the second in terms of number of opinion columns ($N = 9$, 28.1%). *Yeni Şafak* has less opinion columns than *Sözcü* ($N = 7$, 21.8%). Among the newspapers selected, *Hürriyet* includes less opinion columns than the other newspapers, ($N = 6$, 17.7%). The reason that lies behind the difference of numbers among newspapers is the word count in each opinion column. For newspapers to be congruent with each other in terms of word count, the word count in all the opinions columns needs to be either near 5000 or a bit more than this number. Because word limit dedicated to opinion columns might vary between newspapers, the number of opinion columns shows difference, as well. This problem is resolved by diminishing or escalating the number of opinion columns. For instance, one newspaper involves 6 opinion columns in total, since the number of words in the columns is high. In contrast, another newspaper includes 10 opinion columns in total, inasmuch as the number of words in the columns is less than aforementioned opinion columns. Hence, more opinion columns from some newspapers have been selected in order that the word count of newspapers can be akin to each other. In other words, the number of opinion columns is higher in some newspapers, which was done so as to equate or make the word counts of the newspapers similar to each other. Therefore, the difference among newspapers in terms of the number of opinion columns stems from this imbalance between newspapers. However, this study does not compare newspapers. On the contrary, it evaluates the corpus in its entirety.

Table 10 demonstrates the number of words in the opinion columns of each newspaper:

Table 10

The Frequency of Words in the Opinion Columns of Newspapers

Newspapers	Word Count
Milliyet	5034
Hürriyet	5028
Sözcü	4872
Yeni Şafak	4803
Total	19.737

According to Table 10, it is clear that *Milliyet* has the highest number of words ($N = 5034$, 25.5%), followed by *Hürriyet* ($N = 5028$, 25.4%). By marked contrast, *Yeni Şafak* has the least number of words ($N = 4083$, 20.6%), followed by *Sözcü* ($N = 4872$, 24.6%). The total number of words in newspapers is 19.737. The word counts of opinion columns were identified through *Word*.

4.2. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

With respect to data collection process, purposeful and simple random sampling methods were used. Purposeful sampling method was applied, as the Turkish newspapers were chosen in compliance with their circulation. Granted, the newspapers were also selected randomly, albeit from those with the highest circulation. This lies in the fact that regardless of whether it is qualitative or quantitative, purposeful sampling method can be preferred in order to strengthen a research's credibility and effect (Morse & Niehaus, 2009).

To further enhance the objectivity of the selection, a purposive random sampling strategy was implemented in the second stage. Within the pool of the ten most widely read newspapers, a randomization procedure was conducted; each outlet was assigned a numerical code, and four newspapers, *Sözcü*, *Yeni Şafak*, *Hürriyet*, and *Milliyet*, were

selected for the analysis. Random sampling is employed by researchers in order that the sample can represent the population it encompasses (Sargeant, 2012). Furthermore, random sampling is significant in that it is capable of lessening sampling errors and can bolster the reliability of the study (Palinkas et al., 2015). As a consequence, random sampling is mainstream in quantitative studies (Delice, 2010).

In the third stage, a similar systematic procedure was applied to select the columnists from the chosen newspapers. To ensure that the data reflected the broader institutional discourse rather than individual idiosyncratic styles, three authors were selected from each newspaper. While the selection of the columnists was randomized, the selection of specific opinion columns was conducted purposively to manage the data volume. Due to differing writing styles and varying average word counts across different newspapers and authors, a target corpus of approximately 5000 words per newspaper were established. This quantitative threshold was implemented to prevent data inequivalence between the outlets and to ensure a balanced distribution of text across the four strata. In other words, because of the presence of the different writing styles and varying word counts, a corpus of nearly 5000 words for each newspaper was determined so as to avert unequal distribution of text among four newspapers.

Finally, it should be noted that although the sampling was stratified by newspaper to ensure diversity, the current study does not aim to compare the individual results of the newspapers against one another. Rather, the selected texts are treated as a collective corpus representing a unified discourse.

The following Table 11 presents the word counts of newspapers and their circulation rates.

Table 11

Newspapers and Their Rates of Circulation

Newspaper	Circulation
Milliyet	107.978
Hürriyet	104.168

Sözcü	101.347
Yeni Şafak	50.617
Total	364.110

In accordance with Table 11, *Hürriyet* ranks as the second most read newspaper in 2024 and its circulation number is 107.978. *Sözcü* is the third most read newspaper and closely follows *Hürriyet* with its circulation number being 104.168. *Milliyet* holds 6th place among the most read newspapers and its circulation number is 101.347. *Yeni Şafak* is the 10th most read newspaper among other newspapers and possesses circulation number which equals to 50.617.

The selection of specific opinion columns was conducted purposefully to ensure that the total word count for each newspaper was approximately equivalent, thereby facilitating a balanced comparative framework. In this process, the attainment of quantitative parity across the four sub-corpora was prioritized over chronological synchronization. Nevertheless, a temporal boundary was maintained to ensure the relevance of the discourse; the publication dates of the selected opinion columns range from 2022 to 2024.

Regarding the technical preparation of the data, a systematic archival procedure was followed. Individual digital documents (i.e., MS Word) were created for each of the selected authors to serve as primary data units. The texts were obtained from the websites of newspapers and transferred into these documents to facilitate a more streamlined linguistic analysis.

In the final stage of data organization, these individual author files were categorized and merged into consolidated directories based on their newspaper affiliation. By grouping the columns according to newspaper to which they belong, a structured hierarchy was established, allowing for collective analysis of the newspaper's broader editorial discourse.

Table 12 below features authors and their affiliations:

Table 12*Newspapers and Authors of Newspapers Included in the Corpus*

Name of Newspaper	Authors of Newspaper
Milliyet	Abbas Güçlü, Belma Akçura, and Beyhan Budak
Hürriyet	Gülseren Budayıcıoğlu, İlber Ortaylı, and Osman Müftüoğlu
Sözcü	Ege Cansen, Pınar Turan, and Uğur Dündar
Yeni Şafak	Gökhan Özcan, Süleyman Seyfi Öğün, and Yasin Aktay

As can be seen from Table 12, the authors of *Milliyet* are as follows: Abbas Güçlü, Belma Akçura, and Beyhan Budak. The authors of *Hürriyet* are: Gülseren Budayıcıoğlu, İlber Ortaylı, and Osman Müftüoğlu. The authors of *Sözcü* are as in the following: Ege Cansen, Pınar Turan, and Uğur Dündar. Lastly, the authors of *Yeni Şafak* are: Gökhan Özcan, Süleyman Seyfi Öğün, and Yasin Aktay.

4.3. ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Hyland's (2005a) theoretical framework and Aristo's (2007) persuasive appeals were employed as the analytical framework, since Hyland's model is up-to-date, plain, clear and extensive (Abdi, 2011; Fu & Hyland, 2014; Vasheghani Farahani, 2018). Furthermore, Hyland's analytical framework was applied as this framework focuses upon how writers achieve persuasion. Since this study's intention is to find out how writers persuade their potential readers in their texts, Hyland's (2005a) analytical framework is drawn upon in the current study.

Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse model is divided into two major categories: interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers. Table 15 elucidates functions and examples of each metadiscourse marker.

In accordance with Hyland (2005a) metadiscourse markers are divided into two categories. The former group, namely interactive, guides readers through text, thereby

facilitating readers' grasping the flow and structure of information. The latter group called interactional, engage readers and convey writer's attitude. Nonetheless, this study focuses on interactional MDMs. Thereupon, interactive MDMs were not selected for this study and exempted from analysis.

Nonetheless, Hyland's (2005a) list including metadiscourse markers is not the only resource by which to analyze the corpus, since earlier research have illuminated the employment of MDMs vary depending on language (El-Dakhs, 2020; Hyland et al., 2022; Innocentini & Navarro, 2022; Mur-Dueñas, 2011; Mu et al., 2015), culture (Akbaş, 2012; Blagojevic, 2004; Gai & Wang, 2022; Lotfi et al., 2019; Pérez-Llantada, 2010). In addition, Turkish's morphological system differs from that of English. Correspondingly, it has been mandatory for us to form a list of each MDM category which also reflects unique features of Turkish so as to analyze the corpus of the study.

Two notions have been applied for the analysis of MDMs to the end that the analysis can be less challenging and understandable. Firstly, MDMs which, whether they are homographic or not, can have multiple functions in a context are treated as having one in place of separately including its diverse meanings in a clause. To exemplify, *biz bu görevde birtakım aksiliklerle karşılaşabiliriz* '*we might/can face some challenges in this duty*' includes two different metadiscoursal functions. One of them is as engagement marker because *we* can function as an engagement marker to include reader into text. The other is as a hedge, since *we* can also indicate hesitation in the sentence. In such a condition, of two functions, the proper MDM has been determined and selected in accordance with the context and the flow of text. For this reason, Hyland's metadiscourse framework has been utilized in the analysis of MDMs in the current study.

Secondly, metadiscourse markers are by nature non-propositional because propositions convey a specific assertion or core ideas outside the text, whilst metadiscourse is, as Hyland (2005a) states, a term denoting aspects of a text that symbolizes writer-reader interactions. By the same token, according to Crismore et al. (1993) metadiscourse is different from propositional content, seeing that it is employed to aid listener or reader in organizing, and assessing information given.

MAXQDA was used to find interactional MDMs in the opinion columns. However, to avoid confusion and mistake, all the markers in the texts were manually analyzed, as well. When a proposition, in contrast to a metadiscourse marker, was detected, it was not counted as a metadiscourse marker and exempted from MDMs detected in the corpus. Furthermore, by way of *MAXQDA*, data cleaning was undertaken, now that interactional MDMs were identified from the data rich in words. The translation of sentences from the corpus given in findings and discussion chapter was mostly undertaken with the help of *Google Translate*, yet some of the sentences were translated by the researcher per se.

In addition to Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse framework, this study also capitalizes upon Aristotle's persuasive appeals in an attempt to uncover which persuasive appeals the columnists make use of in order to convince their readers. Nevertheless, since Hyland's (2005a) framework encompasses Aristotle's persuasive appeals, the study analyzed persuasive appeals with regard to Hyland's grasp of persuasive appeals. Therefore, in place of purely focusing upon Aristotle's explanations, this study takes Hyland's understanding of persuasive appeals into consideration. Otherwise, the study would go beyond the analytical framework of Hyland (2005a).

Aristotle's (2007) persuasive appeals are divided into three modes: *ethos*, *pathos*, and *logos*. Succinctly, *ethos* can be considered speaker's character or the way how the audience conceive of that character by means of the speech. That is to say, *ethos* is about the character of the speaker and his or her credibility and thereby highlighting the authors' authority and credibility (Hyland, 2005a). In accordance with Crismore & Fansworth (1989), *ethos* is considered as an indispensable component of attaining persuasion in texts. That is why, the writers draw upon interactional metadiscourse markers whilst realizing a credible appeal or *ethos* of being pragmatic and realistic with the aim to persuade their readers (Abusalim et al., 2022; Ho, 2016). For instance, Hyland (2005a) gives the following statement from Darwin with regard to function of *ethos* (p.71):

(1) **Let us** now briefly consider the steps by which domestic races have been produced, either from one or from several allied species.

Hyland states that by including readers in texts, as in the example 1, Darwin could claim an equality with his audience and form a sense of a joint pursuit, thereby increasing his credibility through appealing to *ethos*.

The second mode is *pathos*. *Pathos* is the emotional disposition of the listeners or what they undergo in consequence of the speech (Aristotle, 2007). In other words, *pathos* is the deployment of a rhetorical appeal which focuses on the sentiments of the audience (Keith & Lundberg (2008; Lauer, 2004). Apart from showing authority and boasting credibility, the authors also need to attend to the desired effects of their texts upon the readers, by making use of *pathos* and this persuasive appeal includes looking from the perspective of the readers as well (Hyland, 2005a). Namely, *pathos* enables the authors to transmit their messages to the readers in parallel to his or her desired emotional action (Mshvenieradze, 2013). Therefore, it is apparent that *pathos* is a significant part of attaining persuasion in texts by way of its influence upon readers emotions (Kyei et al., 2023). Hyland (2005a) presents the following statement so as to give information about the function of *pathos* in texts:

(2) **Fortunately**, in the past few years we have taken full advantage of the rising markets. (Amoy Properties, 1994)

In accordance with Hyland, attitude markers, as in fortunately, appeal to an implicit assumption that readers will experience texts in the same manner and they form and emphasize a set of shared purposes and understandings by appealing to *pathos*.

The third mode of persuasion is called *logos*. Aristotle (2007) states that *logos* is the argument per se or establishing or appearing to establish anything. To put it differently, *logos* concerns reasonable arguments that are coherent, rational, credible and justifiable (Ramage et al., 2009). According to Hyland (2005a), how the authors develop arguments and the way they substantiate these arguments with reason or evidence substantially influence whether the audience accept these arguments. Therefore, as Ramage et al. (2009) claim, *logos* is a strategy of persuasion which can be drawn upon in order that the audience accept the arguments proposed by the authors. As a consequence, Effendi &

Effendi & Wahyudi (2023) report that by way of interactional MDMs, the authors can capitalize upon both critical thinking and logical reasoning so that the readers comprehend their arguments and accept them in turn. Nevertheless, as the current study solely takes interactional metadiscourse into account, *logos* was not observed in our data as a persuasive appeal. It is Hyland (2005a) who claims that *logos* is not under the scope of interactional metadiscourse, not Aristotle. However, even if *ethos*, *pathos* and *logos* might not be inseparable from each other, Hyland (2005a) takes *logos* under the scope of interactive metadiscourse. Therefore, we did not draw on *logos* in our study.

The following Table 13 below indicates the categories of persuasive appeals and their relation with metadiscourse markers with respect to Hyland (2005a).

Table 13

Functions and Metadiscourse Markers of Persuasive Appeals in Hyland (2005a)

Persuasive appeals	Function	MDMs
<i>Ethos</i>	Speaker's character or the way how the audience conceive of that character by means of the speech	Hedges, boosters
<i>Pathos</i>	Emotional disposition of the listeners or what they in consequence of the speech	Engagement markers, attitude markers, hedges
<i>Logos</i>	Attending to the desired effects of their texts upon the readers	Frame markers, code glosses, transitions

Table 13 above illustrates how interactional MDMs are utilized by authors to persuade their readers. While hedges and boosters are employed to appeal to *ethos*, attitude markers, hedges and engagement markers are used to build *pathos*. Both *ethos* and *pathos* are employed for their persuasive side. However, *ethos* is about making claims stonger, while *pathos* is about making emotional appeal.

4.3.1. Analytical Framework for Turkish Metadiscourse Markers

For the current study that investigates interactional metadiscourse markers in Turkish opinion columns, a list of MDMs has been collected and compiled as the guidance from

Akbaş (2012), Akıncı Oktay (2020), Aydın et al. (2023), Aydın Öztürk & İşeri (2023), Algı (2012), Atmaca (2016), Bayyurt (2010), Can & Yuvayapan (2018), Dağ Tarcan (2019, 2024), Demirel Aydemir & Genç (2023), Esmer (2018), Güçlü (2022, 2024, 2025), Hatipoğlu & Algı (2017, 2018), Şen (2019), Şen & İşeri (2023), Önel (2020), Ünsal (2008), Yılmaz & İlerten (2024), Yazıcı & Gündüğü (2023). However, since metadiscourse on non-academic discourse, especially on opinion columns, are quite limited in number, MDMs were compiled from other studies that dealt with MDM use in academic genres. Hence, the majority of the studies mentioned above examined metadiscourse in academic contexts, as opposed to non-academic genres.

As the first step, as aforementioned, a list for interactional metadiscourse markers was created. Afterwards, the corpus of the study was scanned and analyzed with respect to Hyland's (2005a) metadiscourse model.

Table 14 below illustrates interactional MDMs in Turkish:

Table 14

Hyland's (2005a) Interactional Metadiscourse Model Adapted to Turkish

Interactional Metadiscourse	Functions and Examples
HEDGES	
Epistemic adverbs	Adverbs of frequency (e.g. <i>bazen</i> “sometimes”, <i>nadiren</i> “occasionally”) Possibility/probability adverbs (e.g. <i>belki</i> “perhaps”, <i>muhtemelen</i> “may be”) Indefinite adverbs (e.g. <i>neredeyse</i> “virtually”, <i>kısmen</i> “comparatively”)
Epistemic adjectives	Possibility and probability adjectives (e.g. <i>olası</i> “possible, feasible”) Indefinite adjectives (e.g. <i>belirsiz</i> “dubious”, <i>birtakım</i> “some”)
Epistemic lexical verbs	e.g. <i>san-</i> “to suppose”, <i>öner-</i> “to suggest” Passive forms <i>-(I)n/l</i> (e.g. <i>sanılmaktadır</i> “It is supposed”); Copulas (e.g. <i>gözük-</i> “seem”)
Pronouns	Indefinite pronouns (e.g. <i>bir kimse</i> “someone” <i>biri</i> “somebody”, <i>birisi</i> “anybody”, <i>birileri</i> “somebody”, <i>bir şey</i> “something”, <i>herhangi biri</i> “anybody”, <i>herhangi birisi</i>

	<p>“anybody”, pronominal quantifier <i>herhangi bir şey</i> “anything” and nonspecific indefinite pronoun <i>insan</i> “one” and <i>kişi</i> “person” Pronominalized determiners (e.g. <i>bazısı/bazıları</i> “some of them”, <i>bazı(ları)mız</i> “some of us”, <i>bazı(ları)nız</i> “some of you”, <i>kimi/kimisi/ kimileri</i> “some of them”, <i>kimimiz</i> “some of us”, <i>kiminiz</i> “some of you”, <i>birimiz</i> “one of us”, <i>biriniz</i> “one of you”, <i>birileri</i> “one of them”, <i>çoğu / birçoğu</i> “most/many (of them)”)”</p>
Epistemic modal suffixes	<p>-<i>Dİr</i> “COP” -(y)<i>Abil</i>+(A/I)<i>r</i> “PSB-AOR” -(y)<i>AcAK</i>+<i>Dİr</i> “FUT-COP” -<i>AcAk ol+mAlI</i>+<i>Dİr</i> “FUT AUX-OBLG-COP” -(A/I)<i>r</i> “AOR” -<i>mİş</i>+<i>Dİr</i> “PRF-COP” -<i>mİş ol+mAlI</i>+<i>Dİr</i> “PF AUX-OBLG-COP” -(I)<i>yor ol+mAlI</i>+<i>Dİr</i> “IMPF AUX-OBLG-COP”</p>
BOOSTERS	
Universal Pronouns	e.g. <i>hepsi</i> “all”, <i>herkes</i> “everybody”, <i>her şey</i> “everything”, <i>kimse</i> “nobody”, <i>hiçbiri</i> “none”
Amplifiers	e.g. <i>asla</i> “never”, <i>aslında</i> “in fact”, <i>bütün</i> “all”, <i>çok</i> “a lot”, <i>daha</i> “more”, <i>hep</i> “always”, <i>her</i> “each” <i>her yer</i> “everywhere”, <i>her zaman</i> “anytime”, <i>hiç</i> “none”
Emphatics	e.g. <i>açıkça</i> “clearly”, <i>bile</i> “even”, <i>bilhassa</i> “especially”, <i>elbette</i> “certainly”, <i>gerçekten</i> “really”, <i>hiç kuşkusuz</i> “no doubt”, <i>kesin</i> “definite”, <i>şüphesiz</i> “no doubt”, <i>temelde</i> “basically”
Modal suffixes indicating certainty	e.g. - <i>Dİr</i> “COP-3SG” -(A/I) <i>r</i> “AOR-3SG” - <i>Il-mİş</i> + <i>Dİr</i> “PASS+PRF-COP-3SG” - <i>mİş</i> + <i>Dİr</i> “PRF-COP-3SG” - <i>mİş+lAr</i> - <i>Dİr</i> “PRF-3PL-COP” -(y) <i>AcAK</i> + <i>Dİr</i> “FUT-COP-3SG” - <i>mAktA</i> + <i>Dİr</i> “IMPF+COP-3SG”
ATTITUDE MARKERS	
Attitudinal verbs	e.g. <i>başar</i> - “to succeed”, <i>dikkat çek</i> - “to take attention”, <i>düşün</i> - “to think”, <i>önem kazan</i> - “to gain importance”, <i>öneril</i> - “to be recommended”, <i>göze çarp</i> - “to draw the attention”
Attitudinal adjectives	e.g. <i>basit</i> “simple”, <i>büyük</i> “big”, <i>derin</i> “profound”, <i>eleştirel</i> “critical”, <i>esas</i> “basic”, <i>ilginç</i> “interesting”, <i>karmaşık</i> “intricate”, <i>vahşi</i> “brutal”, <i>sıra dışı</i> “extraordinary”, <i>tartışmalı</i> “contentious”, <i>temel</i> “fundamental”, <i>kaçınılmaz</i> “inevitable”, <i>acımasız</i> “pitiless”, <i>kapsamlı</i> “far-reaching”
Attitude adverbs	e.g. <i>asıl olarak</i> “chiefly”, <i>dolaylı olarak</i> “relatively”, <i>kapsamlı bir biçimde</i> “broadly”, <i>uygun bir şekilde</i> “appropriately”, <i>zorunlu olarak</i> “necessarily”

Deontic modal suffixes	e.g. <i>-mAlI</i> “OBLG”
Deontic lexical verbs	e.g. <i>-mAm gerek</i> “I have to” <i>-mAk gerek-</i> “have to” <i>-mAsI gerek-</i> “it has to <i>gerektir-</i> “to require” <i>zorunlu kıl-/zorunda bırak-</i> “to oblige”
SELF-MENTIONS	
Explicit authorial references	e.g. first person singular pronoun <i>ben</i> “I,” first person plural pronoun <i>biz</i> “we”, <i>benim</i> “my”, <i>bizim</i> “our”, <i>beni</i> “me”, <i>bizi</i> “us”, <i>bana</i> “me”, <i>bize</i> “us”, <i>kendim</i> “myself”, <i>kendimiz</i> “ourselves”, first person singular suffixes <i>-(U)m</i> , <i>-(I)m</i> , in tandem with and first person plural suffixes including <i>-(I)k</i> , <i>-(I)z</i> , <i>-(I)mIz</i> , <i>-(U)mUz</i> , first person singular possessive pronoun formed by the suffix <i>ki(n)</i> <i>benimki</i> “the one which is mine”, first person plural possessive pronoun formed by the suffix <i>ki(n)</i> <i>bizimki</i> “the one which is ours”, first person singular reflexive possessive pronoun formed by the suffix <i>ki(n)</i> <i>kendiminki</i> “that which is mine”, first person plural reflexive possessive pronoun formed by the particle <i>ki(n)</i> <i>kendimizinki</i> “that which is ours” Bendeniz (polite form of saying “I” or “me”) Kulunuz (polite form of saying “I” or “me”) Köleniz (polite form of saying “I” or “me”)
Implicit authorial references	e.g. ...ortaya çıkarılmıştır “it was found out that ...”, araştırma ekibi “the research team”, kanaatimizce “in our opinion”, tarafımızca “by us”
ENGAGEMENT MARKERS	
Inclusive “we”	e.g. first person plural subject pronoun <i>biz</i> “we”, first person plural suffixes <i>-(I)z</i> , <i>-(I)k</i> , first person plural possessive adjective <i>bizim</i> , “our”, first person plural possessive pronoun <i>bizimki</i> “ours”, first person plural possessive suffix <i>-(I)mIz</i> , first person plural object pronouns <i>bizi/bize</i> “us”, first person plural reflexive pronoun <i>kendimiz</i> “ourselves”, first person plural reciprocal pronoun <i>birbirimiz</i> “each other”
Reader pronouns	e.g. second person singular pronoun <i>sen</i> “you”, second person plural pronoun <i>siz</i> , which is the polite form, “you”, second person singular possessive adjective <i>senin</i> “your”, second person plural possessive adjective <i>sizin</i> “your”, second person singular possessive pronoun <i>seninki</i> “yours”, second person plural possessive pronoun <i>sizinki</i> “yours”, second person singular/plural object pronouns <i>seni-sizi-sana-size</i> , second person singular reflexive pronoun <i>kendin</i> “yourself”, second person plural reflexive pronoun <i>kendiniz</i> “yourselves”, second person singular reflexive possessive pronoun <i>kendininki</i> “that which is yours”, second person plural reflexive possessive pronoun <i>kendinizinki</i> “that which

	is yours”, and the suffixes that can function as reader pronouns in Turkish: second person singular suffix $-(I)n$, second person plural suffix $-n(I)z$, second person singular possessive suffix $-(I)n$, second person plural possessive suffix $-(I)nIz$
Directives	e.g. <i>-sIn,-AlIm</i> and <i>-In(Iz)</i> ,, imperative suffix, ... <i>-mAk gerekir ki</i> “it has to do...”
Personal asides	e.g. To make use of paranthesis ()
Appeals to shared knowledge	e.g. ... <i>anlamaktayız</i> “we understand that...”, <i>bilindiği gibi</i> “as known”, ... <i>görmekteyiz</i> “we see that...”, <i>hatırlanacağı üzere</i> “as may be recalled”, ... <i>görülmektedir</i> “it is observed that...”
Rhetorical questions	e.g. <i>Haberdar olduğumuz şeyleri biz mi seçiyoruz yoksa birileri seçip önümüze mi koyuyor?</i> “Do we choose what we are informed about, or does someone else choose it and put it in front of us?”

4.4. DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

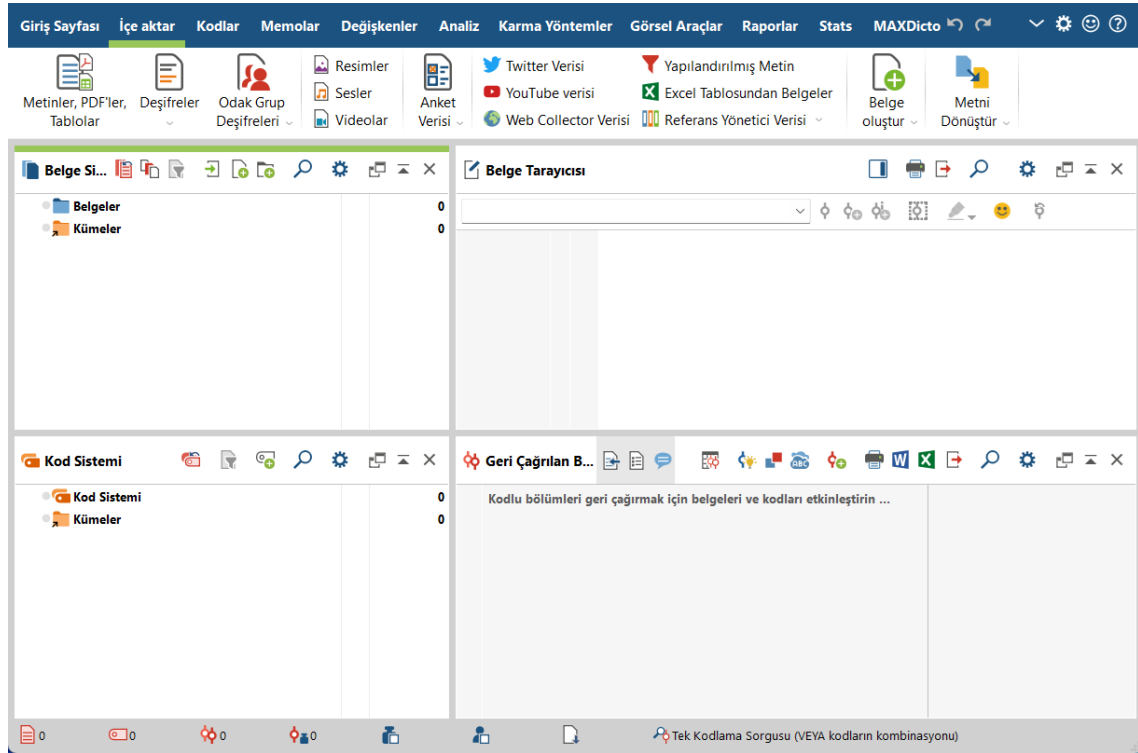
The data analysis in the current study was primarily conducted through a quantitative lens, focusing on the calculation of frequencies and percentages of interactional MDMs. These descriptive statistics served as the foundation for subsequent interpretation of discourse strategies utilized by the columnists. All analytical steps were facilitated through *MAXQDA*, a software designed for computer-assisted qualitative and quantitative data analysis.

4.4.1. File Preparation and Software Integration

Regarding the technical organization of the data, a systematic file preparation procedure was implemented before the analysis. The interface of *MAXQDA* gives information about what can be fulfilled with the implementation of the software. The software allows not simply the analysis of qualitative data but quantitative data as well. This section of *MAXQDA* gives brief information about the current status of data. For example, its interface shows total frequencies of interactional MDMs. Moreover, it also indicates the frequencies of sub-types of each interactional MDM. The following figures will demonstrate these features of *MAXQDA*. All the same, the following Figure 1 shows the initial interface of *MAXQDA*, which demonstrates current status of data.

Figure 1

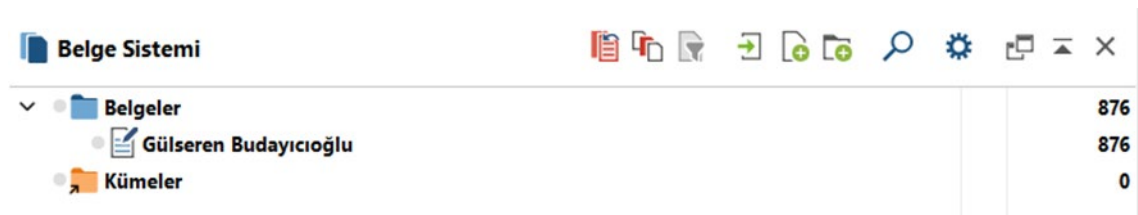
Interface of MAXQDA Data Analysis Software



To facilitate the analysis, opinion columns were divided into individual *Word* (.docx) files. These files were then categorized into separate folders named according to the respective newspapers, i.e., *Hürriyet*, *Milliyet*, *Yeni Şafak* and *Sözcü*. Within these institutional directories, files were further organized based on the specific columnist. Following this organization, each author's opinion columns were added to the *Document System* section of *MAXQDA* separately. Concerning this, the following Figure 2 illustrates this phase:

Figure 2

The Document System of MAXQDA



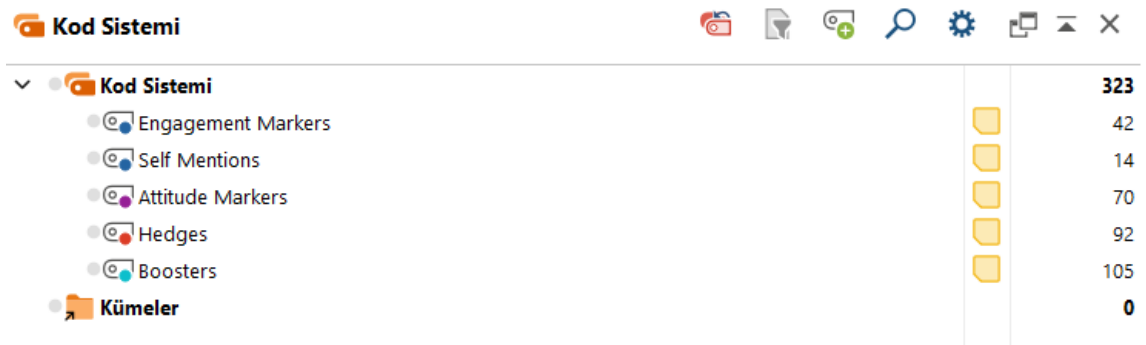
This section of software provided a clear overview of the columnist's names alongside the total word counts for their respective columns, ensuring the corpus remained structured and accessible for coding.

4.4.2. Coding and Lexical Search

To initiate the analysis, *Codes System* was established within *MAXQDA*. Five primary codes were created to represent Hyland's (2005a) interactional MDMs, i.e., hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, self mentions. Figure 3 below illustrates this stage:

Figure 3

Codes System in MAXQDA

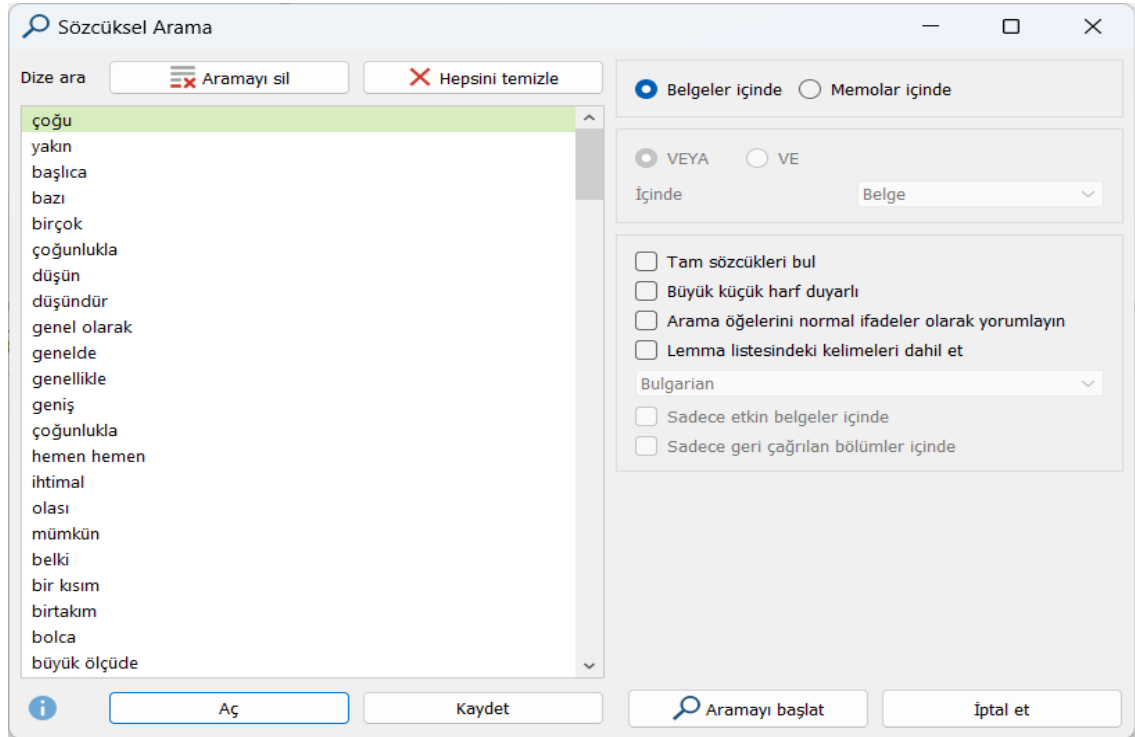


Code Name	Word Count
Kod Sistemi	323
Engagement Markers	42
Self Mentions	14
Attitude Markers	70
Hedges	92
Boosters	105
Kümeler	0

After the codes are created, inputs are formed within the program. Potential markers were identified using the *Lexical Search* function within the *Analysis* menu. Specific linguistic items and functional examples were manually inserted as search inputs to scan the digitized corpus for potential metadiscursive items. Just as linguistic items and functional examples can be inserted into the software by writing them in the software, they can be inserted into the program by adding a *Word* (.docx) file including examples of interactional MDMs. The following Figure 4 below illustrates examples of hedge inputs added into lexical search section:

Figure 4

Input Section in MAXQDA



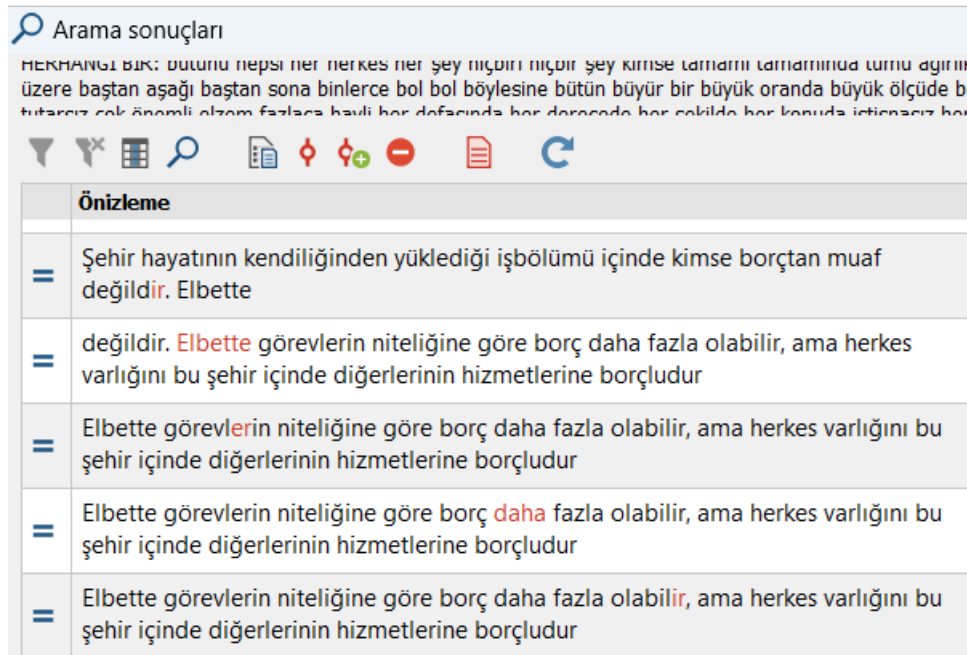
4.4.3. Data Cleaning Protocol

A critical stage of the procedure involved a detailed data cleaning protocol to ensure the validity of the quantitative results. While the software is proficient at identifying lexical strings, it cannot autonomously distinguish between core propositional content and metadiscursive functions. Consequently, every search result was manually analyzed to confirm its function before being included in the final dataset. The manual verification was particularly vital due to the morphological complexity of the Turkish language. The software often flags strings that are homographic with free roots but lack metadiscursive value. In this respect, there are two issues to be highlighted in this stage. First of all, even though *MAXQDA* can figure out words, it is unable to distinguish affixes from a couple of letters in words. To illustrate, when one searches for the suffix *-(A/I)r* “aor-3sg”, the software shows not simply results about suffixes but even letters, which the mentioned suffix includes, as in *gel+-(A/I)r* (En. comes or come) and *gelir* (En. income). Although the word *gelir* does not contain any suffixes and it is just a free root without any affix, the

software cannot notice this difference. Hence, the researcher manually analyzed the search results and discarded items that did not function as an interactional MDM. In other words, the researcher checked all the items whether highlighted words are metadiscourse markers or not. This systematic data-cleaning process ensured that non-propositional interactional markers were accurately isolated from the general text, a process that required extensive time and precision to stabilize the findings. Figure 5 below indicates the scanning results of the example of boosters in the corpus, which can be representative of the data-cleaning illustrated above.

Figure 5

Scanning in MAXQDA



The screenshot shows the search results interface in MAXQDA. At the top, there is a search bar with the text "Arama sonuçları" and a magnifying glass icon. Below the search bar, there is a list of search results. The first result is "Şehir hayatının kendiliğinden yüklediği işbölümü içinde kimse borçtan muaf değildir. Elbette". The second result is "değildir. Elbette görevlerin niteliğine göre borç daha fazla olabilir, ama herkes varlığını bu şehir içinde diğerlerinin hizmetlerine borçludur". The third result is "Elbette görevlerin niteliğine göre borç daha fazla olabilir, ama herkes varlığını bu şehir içinde diğerlerinin hizmetlerine borçludur". The fourth result is "Elbette görevlerin niteliğine göre borç daha fazla olabilir, ama herkes varlığını bu şehir içinde diğerlerinin hizmetlerine borçludur". The fifth result is "Elbette görevlerin niteliğine göre borç daha fazla olabilir, ama herkes varlığını bu şehir içinde diğerlerinin hizmetlerine borçludur". The toolbar below the search bar includes icons for filtering, sorting, and other search functions.

Önizleme
= Şehir hayatının kendiliğinden yüklediği işbölümü içinde kimse borçtan muaf değildir. Elbette
= değildir. Elbette görevlerin niteliğine göre borç daha fazla olabilir, ama herkes varlığını bu şehir içinde diğerlerinin hizmetlerine borçludur
= Elbette görevlerin niteliğine göre borç daha fazla olabilir, ama herkes varlığını bu şehir içinde diğerlerinin hizmetlerine borçludur
= Elbette görevlerin niteliğine göre borç daha fazla olabilir, ama herkes varlığını bu şehir içinde diğerlerinin hizmetlerine borçludur
= Elbette görevlerin niteliğine göre borç daha fazla olabilir, ama herkes varlığını bu şehir içinde diğerlerinin hizmetlerine borçludur

4.4.4. Quantitative Analysis and Interpretation

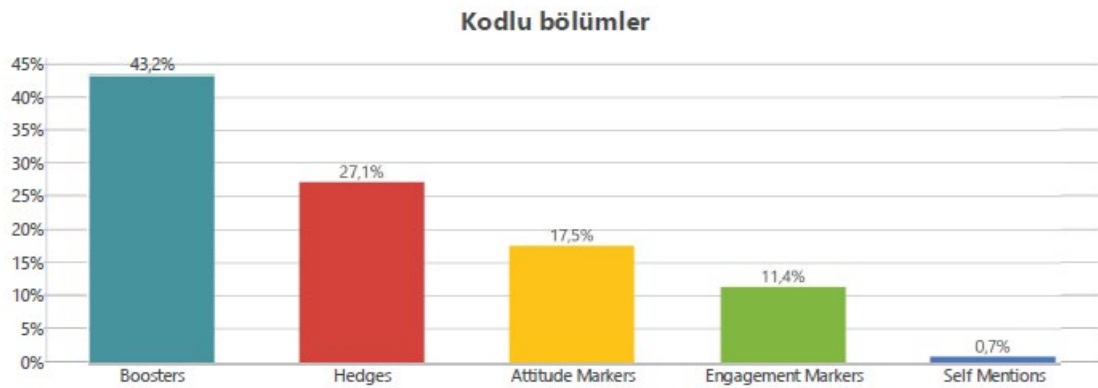
Once the data cleaning was finalized, the software was utilized to calculate the final frequencies and percentages of the interactional MDMs. *MAXQDA* allowed for the comparison of overall frequencies as well as specific sub-types of markers across the collective corpus. The final stage of the data analysis procedure involved the interpretation of these descriptive statistics associated with the MDMs. By analyzing the

dominant patterns in the frequency data, the researcher identified the specific persuasive and interpersonal strategies utilized by the authors, providing an overview of the Turkish metadiscursive landscape.

As mentioned before, once scanning is finished, words or letters which do not function as interactional MDMs are excluded from the results and the number of MDMs is inserted into the congruent code mentioned in the codes section. After all types of interactional MDMs are analyzed and the results become apparent, the software enables the researcher to have information about overall frequency of all types of interactional MDMs. Just as the software can show the frequency of one type of interactional MDM with its sub-types, so can it demonstrate all types of interactional MDMs in comparison. In the following Figure 6 below, the software illustrates the frequency of a sample of all types of interactional MDMs in total.

Figure 6

An example of Frequencies of MDMs in MAXQDA



As mentioned above, when the analysis of the data is completed, the software can show the frequencies of all interactional MDMs. In addition to giving information about the frequencies of interactional MDMs, *MAXQDA* can also show the frequencies of sub-types of interactional MDMs, if adjusted in that way. Information with regard to frequencies is present in a section called *Documents with Code* (Kodlu Bölümler).

4.5. INTER-RATER RELIABILITY

Inter-rater reliability is a technique referring to a condition in which two or more individuals agree (Fink, 2010). Inter-rater reliability allows authors to achieve reliability and validity of research results (Wulandari et al., 2024). Such feature of inter-rater reliability can result in more suitable and credible results and in turn might bolster the theory appearing in the data (Gwet, 2014). This technique also enhances Hyland's metadiscourse model, now that it can prevent possible problems that might arise as a result of subjective interpretation (Duruk, 2017). The agreement level of inter-rater reliability is evaluated by means of some statistical calculation methods, such as Cohen's Kappa coefficient, or Fleiss' kappa. This method takes account of not only the number of categories or variables, but even the number of raters and the extent of agreement between different raters. The scores of Fleiss' kappa varies between -1 and 1, in which 0 symbolizes agreement by chance, whereas 1 means 100% agreement between raters. If the score is under 0, then this means that there is no agreement between raters. High inter-rater reliability is a sign of the fact that the analysis is not prejudiced and results are not only consistent but also stable (Andersson et al., 2024; Stolarova et al., 2014). On the other hand, low inter-rater reliability means that raters diverge from each other about their judgements (Winter, 2022). Dawson & Trap (2004) illustrates level of agreement and kappa values for inter-rater reliability in the following Table 15.

Table 15

The Level of Agreement and Kappa Values for Inter-Rater Reliability

Kappa values	Level of agreement
1.00	Perfect agreement
0.93–0.99	Excellent agreement
0.81–0.92	Very good agreement
0.61–0.80	Good agreement
0.41–0.60	Fair/substantial agreement
0.21–0.40	Slight agreement
0.01–0.20	Poor/chance agreement
≤ 0	No agreement

Considering Table 15, it is obvious that values below 0 are not acceptable and there is no agreement between raters. Values between 0.01–0.20 are a sign of poor/chance

agreement, while 0.21–0.40 means slight agreement. Values between 0.41-0.60 are an acceptable level of agreement and values between 0.61 and above can be considered a satisfactory level of agreement between raters.

In the current study, a second rater in the field of Foreign Language Education examined 20% of the data which were determined randomly among all types of interactional MDMs in terms of their frequencies. An inter-rater reliability analysis was conducted by way of Cohen's Kappa in order to evaluate the agreement between two raters examining interactional MDMs and their sub-categories. The observed agreement between two raters was found to be $P_o=0.9216$ (92.16%) and the expected agreement by chance was $P_e= 0.2312$. Therefore, Cohen Kappa was calculated as $\kappa \approx 0.898$. In accordance with Dawson & Trap (2004), this level of agreement equals to a very good agreement, when the test is carried out by another person in this field.

The following Table 16 illustrates the degree of consistency between the raters.

Table 16

The Level of Consistency and Inconsistency between Raters

Category	f	Inconsistency	Consistency
Boosters	218	17	201
Engagement markers	149	12	137
Hedges	104	8	96
Attitude markers	79	6	73
Self-mentions	32	3	29
Total	582	46	536

As presented in Table 16 above, the number of inconsistency exists between raters in terms of boosters, while it is the least in self-mentions. Engagement markers come second in terms of inconsistency, followed by hedges and attitude markers. While the overall agreement was high, the marginal discrepancies (7.84%) were observed in some categories. Following the independent coding phase, a reconciliation session was conducted with the interrater. Each point of contention was discussed until a 100% negotiated agreement was reached, ensuring the final data set remained consistent with Hyland's (2005a) functional definitions.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter of the current study is concerned with the findings of the aforementioned research questions:

- 1) What are the functions and frequencies of interactional metadiscourse markers in Turkish opinion columns?
- 2) Which persuasive appeals do columnists draw upon so as to convince their readers in opinion columns?

In this study, the number of MDMs have been specified to unveil the overall frequencies of interactional MDMs and their sub-categories in Turkish opinion columns.

For the most part, the functions and the distribution of interactional MDMs in Turkish opinion columns are presented and discussed. In this part, each category of interactional MDMs (viz, boosters, engagement markers, hedges, attitude markers, and self-mentions) and their sub-categories have been illustrated with their original context from the corpus of the study, and also discussed in conjunction with their frequency, that is to say from the most frequently used one to the least used MDM.

5.1. THE CATEGORICAL DISTRIBUTION OF INTERACTIONAL METADISOURSE MARKERS IN OPINION COLUMNS

The categorical distribution of interactional MDMs have first been demonstrated in the current study. Furthermore, the distribution of interactional MDMs has been shown to occur in all the opinion columns involved in the current research.

Interactional MDMs are linguistic tools utilized in both written and spoken discourse to connect with the reader or listener while controlling the flow of information (Hyland,

2005a). Therefore, interactional metadiscourse directly takes the participants of the interaction as the focal point by adopting a convenient persona (Hyland, 2005a). Interactional metadiscourse markers consist of hedges, boosters, engagement markers, attitude markers and self-mentions.

The categorical distribution of interactional MDMs is given with their frequency, percentage in terms of total number of interactional MDMs and tokens per 100 words in regard to total number of words.

Table 17

The Categorical Distribution of Interactional MDMs in Opinion Columns

Interactional MDMs	f	%	Tokens
Boosters	1089	37.4%	5.52
Engagement markers	746	25.7%	3.81
Hedges	519	17.9%	2.62
Attitude markers	394	13.5%	1.99
Self-mentions	160	5.5%	0.81
Total	2908	100%	14.75

According to Table 17, the most frequently used type of interactional MDM in opinion columns is boosters with 5.52 tokens ($N = 1089$, 37.4%). Following boosters, the second most frequently used interactional MDM is engagement markers with 3.81 tokens ($N = 746$, 25.7%). The third most frequently used interactional MDM is hedges with 2.62 tokens per 100 words ($N = 519$, 17.9%). In our corpus, attitude markers are the fourth most frequently used interactional MDM with 1.99 tokens, ($N = 394$, 13.5%). The least used interactional MDM type in Turkish opinion columns is self-mentions with 0.81 tokens, ($N = 160$, 5.5%). It is evident that by employing these MDMs, the authors of opinion columns have the preference of using interactional MDMs to convey their presence, assessments and suggestions throughout the writings (Hyland, 1998; 2005a).

As can be seen from Table 17, booster is the most frequently utilized interactional MDM in newspaper's opinion columns, upon being compared to other interactional MDMs. This hallmark demonstrates that the authors employ a strong sense of confidence in making an assertion and persuading reader to align with the authors's point of view. In accordance with Hyland (2005a), boosters enable writers to provide authority, definiteness and conviction. In a similar vein, opinion columns aim to persuade reader and shape public discourse by strengthening their viewpoints. As a consequence, it can be maintained that the authors of the columns use boosters to bolster their argument and increase credibility to receive acceptance from the potential readers of these columns.

The frequent use of boosters as an interactional MDM stems from the nature of the opinion columns. As Dafouz-Milne (2008) states, columnists need to present their opinion in such a way that potential readers find them attractive and compelling. To achieve this, the authors of the texts employ an assertive and at the same time persuasive language. Furthermore, even though opinion columns also include authors' viewpoints, namely they are subjective, they are usually conceived to fulfill objectivity as well. (Greenberg, 2020). Hyland (2008) states that the authors of soft fields are prone to use more boosters to reinforce their works against potential conflicting interpretations they may confront. This may be the reason why boosters are used frequently in the opinion columns of newspapers.

The second most frequently employed interactional MDM in the opinion columns in the current study is the engagement marker. Through the use of these markers, the columnists want to keep readers in conversation in order to provide a sense of inclusive relationship with them, since opinions affect beliefs or feelings common to people and express the mutual understanding of people (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk et al., 2023). In addition, they manifest the awareness of the presence of readers and their opinions, which may aid them to strengthen the persuasive side of the texts (Hyland, 2008).

In our data, the third most frequently used MDM is hedges. This means that the authors of these columns do not have complete confidence in their assertions and therefore are

cautious to acknowledge that there may be differing opinions, instead of merely presenting factual data (Hyland, 2005a).

Furthermore, in a study conducted by Doyuran (2009) in newspaper discourse, hedges used not only function to reduce conceptual precision but also columnists may use these markers to make the topic more understandable for the reader who has little or no knowledge about the topic.

The prevalence of boosters and hedges in a text might be contemplated as confusing, given that either interactional MDM has been widely employed throughout the text. Nevertheless, as Hyland (2005a) points out, the balance of boosters and hedges are vital to indicate to what extent the author is open to new comments, which is quite considerable in conveying commitment to text content and respect for varying opinions of readers. Furthermore, distinguishing fact from opinion is quite crucial in that the authors need to evaluate their claims carefully in order that potential readers find them persuasive (Hyland, 1998).

Attitude markers follow hedges in terms of the frequency of use in opinion columns of the newspapers. This means that the authors express their stance, viz personal viewpoints, assessments, claims and etc., as regards the topic (Hyland, 1998, 2005a, 2008). By the same token, the authors augment the persuasiveness of the texts by communicating propositional attitudes and evaluation (Hyland, 1998).

The attitude markers is followed by self-mention markers in the opinion columns of the newspaper while self-mentions are the least used interactional MDMs in the newspaper. Hyland (2005a) states that whereas boosters increase certainty and objectivity of the texts, self-mentions are devices which indicate personal belief and emphasize the author's presence in the text.

The following section provides information regarding frequency and percentages of various boosters, engagement markers, hedges, attitude markers and self-mentions, arranged from the most frequently used types to the least used in the opinion columns.

5.1.1. Boosters in Opinion Columns

In accordance with Hyland (2005a), boosters enable authors to create an image of credibility, decisiveness and conviction, which increases the persuasive effect of the propositions. That is to say, boosters are linguistic tools that can be employed by the authors to strengthen the certainty of their arguments. In addition, boosters function to suppress alternative comments or possibilities by representing the proposition with conviction, whilst at the same time emphasizing involvement, solidarity and engagement with the readers (Hyland, 1998). As opposed to hedges, which decrease certainty of propositions, boosters are employed to increase certainty of propositions and claim authority texts produced by authors (Hyland, 2005a).

Boosters are the most commonly used MDMs throughout the data. The high-frequency of boosters in the corpus (i.e., 37.4%, 5.52 tokens per 100 words) suggests a linguistic strategy that extends far beyond the authors' personal confidence in their assertions. While the existing literature often attributes boosting to a writer's internal state of certainty (e.g., Hyland, 1998, 1999, 2005a, 2008; van Dijk, 1998; Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Greenberg, 2000), a more nuanced analysis of the Turkish context reveals that this pattern is driven by deep-seated cultural and genre-specific conventions.

In the current study, it was observed that various type of boosters were utilized by the authors of the opinion columns. These booster types are amplifiers, modal suffixes indicating certainty, emphatics and universal pronouns. The frequency and percentages of the boosters in addition to tokens per 100 words are demonstrated as in the following Table 18:

Table 18*Frequencies and Tokens of Boosters*

Categories of Boosters	f	%	Tokens
Amplifiers	560	51.42%	2.84
Modal Suffixes	330	30.30%	1.67
Emphatics	144	13.22%	0.73
Universal pronouns	55	5.06%	0.28
Total	1089	100%	5.52

As shown in Table 18, each type of boosters were utilized by the authors in the opinion columns. Among all boosters, amplifiers are the most frequently used MDMs in the opinion columns (51.42%) with 2.48 tokens. That is to say, the authors of the opinion columns prefer using these MDMs to emphasize the strength of the arguments presented to the potential readers.

Several examples of amplifiers in the corpus have been given in the following extracts:

(40) *Bugün hemen herkesin kullandığı cep telefonları **aslında** telefon değil “yapay zekalı bilgisayar”dır.* “The mobile phones that almost everyone uses today are not **actually** phones, but “computers with artificial intelligence.”

(41) *Haftada **sadece** 2-3 kez dirseklerden aşağı ellerin ve dizden aşağı bacakların 20-30 dakika güneş ışınlarına maruz bırakılması kâfi miktarda D vitamini üretimi için yeterlidir.* “Exposing the hands from the elbows down and the legs from the knees down to sunlight for 20-30 minutes **just** 2-3 times a week is enough to produce sufficient amounts of vitamin D.”

(42) *İlgi, yetenek, beceri ve hayalleri yönünde **her** çocuğumuza erken yönlendirme ile çok daha mutlu ve başarılı olma şansı tanıyabiliriz.* “We can give **each** of our children the chance to be happier and more successful by providing early guidance in line with their interests, skills and dreams.”

(43) *Bu imtihanda kimi her zaman yaptığı gibi **hiçbir** sorumluluk üstlenmeden, borçlarını inkâr ederek karşılık verdi.* “In this trial, some people responded by denying their debts, with taking **no** responsibility, as they always do.”

As can be seen from the examples, (40), (41), (42), and (43), the authors utilized amplifiers, such as *aslında*, ‘in fact’, *sadece*, ‘only’, *her* ‘each’, and *hiçbir*, ‘no’ with the

aim of intensifying meaning, thereby reinforcing the persuasiveness of the texts and making the arguments more robust.

The second most frequently employed MDM marker among booster types that indicates certainty is the modal suffixes indicating certainty with a 30.30% and 1.67 tokens per 100 words. Some examples of modal suffixes indicating certainty have been presented in the following sentences:

(44) *Modern dünyâda da kapitalist bir çerçevede ekonomik çıkar, paylaşım vb sâikler savaşın ana dinamikleridir.* “In the modern world, within a capitalist framework, economic interests, sharing, etc. are the main dynamics-COP-3SG of war.”

(45) *Oysa o dönem bedenimiz sıkıntılar, çatışmalar ve bunların sonucu gelişen gerginlikleri ortadan kaldırabilmek, içlerinde biriken kötü enerjiyi boşaltabilmek için bir yol aramaktadır.* “However, at that time, our body is look-IMPf-COP-3SG for a way to eliminate the troubles, conflicts and the resulting tensions, and to discharge the bad energy accumulated inside.”

(46) *Çoğu köpek birkaç gün içinde yaşadığı bölmeyi aşırı koruyucu tavır geliştirir ve takındığı saldırgan tutum nedeniyle imha edilir.* “Most dogs become overprotective of their enclosure within a few days and eliminate-PASS-AOR-3SG, in virtue of their aggressive behavior.”

(47) *Ülkemizde ilk kez 2009’da tespit edilen çam kozalak emici böceği, fıstık çamı ağaçlarında verdiği zarar ve tohumlar üzerinde ekonomik kayıplara yol açan etkileriyle ön plana çıkmıştır.* “The western conifer seed bug, which was first detected in our country in 2009, rise-PRF-COP-3SG with the damage it caused to stone pine trees and the effects on seeds, causing economic losses.”

In the examples (44), (45), (46), and (47), it is evident that the authors used modal suffixes such as *-Dir*, ‘COP-3SG’, *-mAktAdIr* ‘IMPf-COP-3SG’, *-mİş+Dir*, ‘PRF-COP-3SG’ and a passive construction with *-(A/I)r*, ‘PASS- AOR-3SG’ for indicating the belief that they have about the certainty of the proposition. These suffixes are used to emphasize the author’s argument about the subject and direct the readers to the belief in the certainty of the propositions.

Emphatics are the third most frequently used booster type among booster types (13.22%) with 0.73 tokens per 100 words. According to Hyland (2005a), “emphatics” is a type of booster that can be used to increase the texts’ credibility and the certainty of the arguments. Some of the examples regarding emphatics have been presented in the following sentences:

(48) *Bilim ve teknolojide yaşanmış ilerlemelerin buna eklenmesi de kaçınılmazdır.* “**It is inevitable** that the advances in science and technology will be incorporated into this.”

(49) *Edebiyat hocalarımız pekâlâ divan edebiyatına kadar gereken çeşniye verirlerdi.* “Our literature teachers would **certainly** provide the necessary information about Ottoman Divan poetry.”

(50) *Her türlü yapılaşma, tarım, madencilik gibi faaliyetler kesinlikle yasaktı.* “All kinds of construction, activities like agriculture and mining were **absolutely** prohibited.”

(51) *Ancak o dönem ordu silahlarını bir nedenle kullanamıyorsa düşman ülkeyi istila eder. Bağışıklık sistemimiz de aynen böyle çalışır* “However, if the army is unable to use its weapons for some reason, the enemy invades the country. This is **exactly** how our immune system works.”

As can be understood from the examples (48), (49), (50), and (51), the authors used emphatics, including *kaçınılmaz*, ‘inevitable’, *pekâlâ*, ‘certainly’, *kesinlikle*, ‘absolutely’, and *aynen* ‘exactly / definitely’ to emphasize their proposition about the topics they are discussing while also increasing the authoritative elements as well (Abdi, 2002). In accordance with Hyland (2005a), emphatics strengthen arguments and stress authors’ certainty about a topic. In consequence, it can be said that the authors used emphatics to indicate that they know the topic they are discussing and therefore use these markers to increase the persuasive effect of the text produced and eliminate any contradictions they can confront while presenting their arguments. In other words, emphatics were employed in order to increase certainty and strengthen the force of propositions (Hyland & Tse, 2004).

In our corpus, the least used type among boosters is the universal pronouns that have the lowest percentage 5.06% and with 0.28 tokens per 100 words. This result sheds light on the fact that the authors focus more on specific cases, in place of making intricate and general statements. The following sentences are the examples of universal pronouns in our corpus.

(52) *Aslında virüs **herkese** bulaştı ama kiminin bağışıklık sistemi virüsü yendi kimininki yenemedi ve kişi hasta oldu.* “Indeed, the virus infected **everyone**, but some people's immune systems defeated the virus, some did not, and the person became ill.”

(53) *Bu yazıyı okuyan ve akıllı telefon kullanan **herkesin** en azından bir kere özçekim yaptığını tahmin ediyorum.* “I guess **everyone** who reads this article and uses a smartphone has taken a selfie at least once.”

(54) *Eğer yeteri kadar gönüllü gelmezse, köpeğiniz **hiç kimsenin** ilgisini ve dikkatini çekecek şansı bulamaz, **kimse** onun için bir şey yapamaz.* “Unless enough volunteers are present, your dog cannot have the chance to get **anyone's** attention and care, and **no one** can do anything for it.”

(55) *Uzayan **her şey**, parçalı düşünen kitleler için can sıkıcıdır.* “**Everything** that gets longer is tedious for masses who think in fragments.”

In the examples (52), (53), (54), and (55), it is obvious that the authors used universal pronouns, such as *herkes*, ‘everyone’, *hiç kimse*, ‘no one’, *kimse* ‘nobody’, and *her şey*, ‘everything’. The authors employed these universal pronouns to demystify the certainty of the text and make their claim stronger by virtue of the boosters *herkes*, ‘everyone’, *hiç kimse*, ‘no one’, *kimse* ‘nobody’, and *her şey*, ‘everything’ (Hyland, 2005a).

Apart from these, *evet* “yes” and *hayır* “no” can also be used as boosters in opinion columns. The following sentences illustrate this feature in Turkish opinion columns:

(56) *İşte bu yüzden sınavlardan ağız yanan herkes taşın altına elini koymalı ve çocuklarımızı da velilerimizi de artık bu “bela”dan kurtarmalıyız. Bu o kadar zor mu? Kesinlikle **hayır**.* “Therefore, everyone who has been harmed by the exams must take responsibility and must save our children and parents from this “scourge.” Is it that difficult? Absolutely **no**.”

(57) *Yeterince dinlenmene rağmen, yorgun ve tükenmiş hissediyorsun. Odaklanma konusunda zorluklar yaşıyorsun. Evet, bu saydıklarım languishing belirtileri.* “Even though you have had enough rest, you feel tired and exhausted. You have trouble concentrating. Yes, these are symptoms of languishing.”

In accordance with Fu & Hyland (2014), the word *evet* (in their study, it is mentioned in English as “yes”) can function as a booster in opinion columns, since it can strengthen the columnists’ argument. By the same token, *hayır* has the same feature as *evet*. Polar particles such as yes and no are anaphors that require antecedents yet they either intensify (*yes*) it or negate it (*no*) (Goodhue & Wagner, 2015; Krifka, 2013). Hence, when used by the columnists in the opinion columns, these words are capable of closing the dialogue by giving exact and brief answers which increases the degree of certainty as a consequence.

5.1.2. Engagement Markers in Opinion Columns

Engagement markers are linguistic tools which are drawn upon by authors to actively include readers in a text. The persuasive effect of metadiscourse in a sense is fulfilled by engaging with the readers (Hyland, 1999). By opening a niche area where writers and readers can converge, engagement markers make a text more conversational and interactional as well (Hyland, 2005b). Furthermore, as Ho and Li (2018) mention, the use of engagement markers are an indication of the fact that the authors admit the readers’ value position by establishing solidarity. In a similar fashion, when the readers are included in the text and argument, they might be more predisposed to think from the authors’ point of view, which can enhance the degree of persuasiveness (Ädel, 2006).

In this study, engagement markers are the second most frequently employed interactional MDM (25.7%) with 3.81 tokens per 100 words as shown in Table 19. These engagement marker types are: inclusive “we”, reader pronouns, rhetorical questions, directives, personal asides and appeals to shared knowledge. However, it was interesting to observe that all types of engagement markers, such as inclusive “we”, reader pronouns, rhetorical questions, directives and personal asides were drawn on by the authors in the opinion columns except appeals to shared knowledge category. Together with tokens per 100

words, the frequency and the percentages of each type of engagement markers have been presented in Table 19 below:

Table 19

Frequencies and Tokens of Engagement Markers

Categories of Engagement Markers	f	%	Tokens
Inclusive “we”	461	61.80%	2.33
Reader pronouns	127	17.02%	0.67
Rhetorical questions	93	12.47%	0.47
Directives	53	7.10%	0.27
Personal asides	12	1.61%	0.061
Appeals to shared knowledge	0	0%	0
Total	746	100%	3.801

As can be seen from Table 19, inclusive “we” category is the most frequently employed engagement marker type among other engagement marker types in the opinion columns (61.80%) with 2.33 tokens per 100 words. This means that the authors of the opinion columns motivate their feeling of belonging and guide readers through arguments to propel them into a preferred interpretation, which aligns the arguments of the authors with readers’ views (Banguis, 2023; Fu & Hyland, 2014; Hastomo & Aminatun, 2023; Hyland, 2001a, 2008; Sabov & Verba, 2022). Consequently, the author’s perspective becomes more convincing as the reader is engaged in a common ground.

Ädel (2008) states that the use of inclusive “we” creates a space where the authors and the readers agree and take the same perspective, aside from providing consensus between the authors and the readers in terms of the arguments. As stated by Hyland (2008), inclusive “we” helps to guide readers through arguments. Ädel (2008) also claims that the use of inclusive “we” practically makes the reader seem like a co-author. In other words, the authors present equality with the readers by way of inclusive “we” and this common ground escalate the persuasive effect of the arguments (Hyland, 2005a).

Some of examples of inclusive “we” have been presented in the following extracts.

(58) *Bu konuda devlet ve millet olarak en büyük çuvaldızı da kendimize batırmalıyız!*
 “In this regard, as a state and a nation, we must put the biggest blame on **ourselves!**”

(59) *Biz de ilkel kaldığımızı kabullenemeyen ama her gün yaşadıklarıyla buna şahit olan zavallı bir toplum haline geldik.* “**We** have become a miserable society that cannot accept its primitiveness, yet witnesses it every day.”

(60) *Düzenli egzersiz alışkanlığı bize sadece formda ve fit bir hayat sürme şansı kazandırmıyor.* “Regular exercise habits not only give **us** the chance to maintain a fit and well-formed life.”

(61) *Bugün daha beter bir manzarayla karşı karşıya olduğumuzu düşünüyorum.* “I think we are facing a situation that is even worse than today.”

In the examples (58), (59), (60) and (61), inclusive “we” have been fulfilled by means of first-person plural reflexive pronoun *kendimize* “ourselves”, first person plural pronoun *biz* “we”, first person plural object pronoun *bize* “us” and first person plural possessive suffix (*ImIz* in *olduğumuz* “that we are facing”). Inclusive “we” is frequently employed by the columnists with the aim to appeal to readers’ emotions (Fu, 2012). Besides, according to Doğan-Uçar & Akbaş (2022), the authors deploy inclusive “we” to motivate the readers to read the text. The authors made use of inclusive “we” upon engaging with their readers with the aim to persuade the readers by including them in the argumentation process (Abusalim et al., 2022).

In our data, reader pronouns are the second most frequently utilized engagement marker type among other engagement markers (17.02%) with 0.67 tokens per 100 words. This finding shows that the authors of the texts directly address readers and this provides a more engaging tone, since reader pronouns are the most discrete ways of bringing readers into discourse (Hyland, 2008). Hyland (2005b) argues that reader pronouns elicit involvement of readers and strengthen group solidarity as well as helping to accept reader’s presence in arguments.

Several examples of reader pronouns have been given in the extracted sentences below.

(62) *Yani iyi bir anneye sahip olmak, sadece sizin değil sizden sonraki kuşakların da kaderini yazar.* “In other words, having a good mother determines not only **your** own destiny but also that of the generations to come.”

(63) *Çünkü yapay zeka teknolojisiyle “biyokimyasal silah” da üretebilirsiniz.* “Because **you** can also produce “biochemical weapons” with artificial intelligence technology.”

(64) *Sizlere bir barınağın arka planında olan bitenleri anlatmak istiyorum.* “I want to tell **you** about what is happening in the background of a shelter.”

(65) *İster istemez bu söylediklerim seni biraz tedirgin etmiş olabilir.* “Inevitably, what I said may have made **you** a little uneasy.”

As can be seen from the examples (62), (63), (64), and (65), reader pronouns, such as second person possessive adjective *sizin*, “your”, second person plural suffix *üretebilirsiniz*, ‘you can produce’, second person plural object pronoun *siz*, ‘you’ and second person singular object pronoun *sen*, ‘you’, were used to include the readers in the texts.

Rhetorical questions follow reader pronouns in terms of frequency (12.47%), and have 0.47 tokens per 100 words. This indicates that the authors used rhetorical questions to make readers contemplate critically about the arguments in the texts. Several examples of rhetorical questions are given in the following extract sentences.

(66) *Haberdar olduğumuz şeyleri biz mi seçiyoruz yoksa birileri seçip önümüze mi koyuyor?* “Do we choose what we are informed about, or does someone else choose and put them in front of us?”

(67) *Siz olmasanız bu evde bir dakika durmam” da demiyorsunuz değil mi?* “You don't say “I wouldn't stay in this house for a minute if it weren't for you”, do you?”

(68) *Hukuk bazen davaları çözmek değil, çözümsüz bırakmak üzerine kurulu olduğu için bu tür davalar yanıtı verilmemiş sorular yumağına dönüştürülüyor olamaz mı?* “Is it not possible that, because law occasionally relies on leaving cases unresolved instead of providing solutions, these cases result in numerous unanswered questions?”

(69) *Sonuçta ölmüş bir kişi hakkında 'Allah rahmet eylesin' den başka ne söylenebilir ki? "After all, what can be said about a dead person other than 'Rest in peace'?"*

As demonstrated in the examples (66), (67), (68) and (69), the authors used rhetorical questions in the opinion columns with the aim of creating a dialogue like the spoken language in order to increase the interaction between the readers and himself while also placing the readers in the arguments of the texts in virtue of the rhetorical questions. (Ho, 2018).

Rhetorical questions are followed by directives in terms of the use of frequency. Directives are the fourth most frequently used engagement marker type among other engagement marker types with a percentage of 7.10 and have 0.27 tokens per 100 words. As a consequence of this, it can be said that the authors guide readers by giving suggestions, which in turn can make readers follow and focus on the suggestions provided by the writer. Some of the examples regarding directives have been presented in the sentences below.

(70) *Sağlıkta gereken mevzuat değiştirilmedi; **bakalım** eğitim alanında neler yapacaklar.* "The necessary legislation in health remained unchanged; **Let's see** what they will do in the field of education."

(71) *İlgisizliğin kabahatlisini de hiç uzaklarda **aramayalım**.* "Let's not look far for the culprit of indifference."

(72) *Özet olarak şunu **zihninize yazın**: Bu asimetrik düzen, Amerikalılara hakkettiklerinden daha yüksek bir yaşam düzeyi sağlamaktadır.* "In short, **remember** this: This asymmetrical order provides Americans with a higher standard of living than they deserve."

(73) *Şehirlerimizi yönetmeye talip olanları seçeceğimiz süreçteyken esaslı soruları sormaya, kendimize ışık ve ayna tutmaya **devam edelim**.* While we are in the process of choosing those who aspire to govern our cities, **let's continue** to ask fundamental questions and hold up a light and a mirror to ourselves."

As can be seen from the examples (70), (71), (72), and (73), the authors used directives, including imperatives, such as *bakalım*, 'let's see', *aramayalım*, 'let's not look for',

zihnimize yazın, ‘remember’ and *devam edelim*, ‘let’s continue’, to include the reader in the texts. The authors use directives in the texts, given that directives enhance the persuasiveness of the text by making shared interests of authors and readers more explicit. That is to say, as Hyland & Jiang (2016) point out, directives are the significant parts of markers of engagement, since they guide the readers to perform an action or see things from a perspective as specified by the author, which can increase persuasive effect of the text.

Personal asides are less frequently used engagement marker with 1.61% and have 0.061 tokens per 100 words. This demonstrates that the authors did not capitalize upon personal asides much to involve readers in the text. Below are the extracted sentences as regards personal asides:

(74) *Bunlara yüklenen uygulamalar sayesinde şimdi herkes (aynı oranda olmasa da) eskisinden daha zeki hale gelmiştir.* “Thanks to the applications installed on them, everyone has now become smarter than before (**though not all to the same degree**).”

(75) *Mâhut merkez-çevre (center-periphery) çatışmaları tam da bunu ifâde eder. (Araya etnik veyâ mezhebî değişkenlerin girmesi esasa karşılık gelmez. Olsa olsa tamamlayıcıdır).* “The so-called center-periphery conflicts express exactly this. **(The introduction of ethnic or sectarian variables does not correspond to the essence. At best, it is complementary).**”

In the examples (74) and (75), the authors comment on the subject matter while simultaneously incorporating discourse through the aid of parenthesis. This indicates that both the authors and the readers are actively involved in the arguments and share a position wherein they can draw on their mutual understanding (Hyland, 2005a).

Appeals to shared knowledge is not used by any author in the opinion columns and hence its frequency is 0%. As Hyland (2005b) points out, the use of appeals to shared knowledge depends upon domain knowledge. That is to say, given that opinion columns are written for the purpose of informing readers, it is plausible to maintain that the readers do not possess a reciprocal domain knowledge with the authors (Puspita & Sunarti, 2019; Sukma & Sujatna, 2014). Consequently, the study does not appeal to shared knowledge. In other

words, opinion columns are written both to persuade and give novel information to readers. Using a very ordinary topic in opinion columns might not catch the attention of the readers. Therefore, the opinion columnists use extraordinary topics to influence their readers. Nevertheless, as a result of this, the writers do not share a mutual information with the readers. Since the columnists select different topics in their columns, therefore they cannot appeal to shared knowledge in that the reader is not knowledgeable about topics enough.

5.1.3. Hedges in Opinion Columns

Hedges are interactional MDMs that can be utilized so that uncertainty can be elicited in a text or communication and they soften arguments, diminishing their degree of certainty, which creates the possibility for different interpretations (Myers, 1989; Hyland, 1998, Hyland, 2005a; Ädel, 2006). Hedges also enable writers to abstain from taking responsibility via distancing authors from making precise claims and this decreases a possible damage to personal credibility and provides a sense of honesty and openness (Hyland, 2005a). Moreover, in accordance with Holmes (1982), hedges are considered as rhetorical tools for politeness and showing consideration for others.

In the current study, hedges are the third most frequently used interactional MDMs among other interactional MDMs with a percentage of 17.9%. Albeit not as frequently as boosters, hedges were also frequently used by the authors in the opinion columns. This illustrates that even though the authors employ a great number of boosters, they also use hedges to minimize the effects boosters create. Therefore, it can be said that the authors could discern the possible danger of making strong and compelling claims (Dafouz Milne, 2003, 2008; Hyland, 2005a).

In the study, tokens per 100 words, the frequency and percentage of types of hedges are given in Table 20 below:

Table 20*Frequencies and Tokens of Hedges*

Categories of Hedges	f	%	Tokens
Epistemic adjectives	238	45.86%	1.20
Modal suffixes	109	21%	0.55
Epistemic adverbs	93	17.92%	0.47
Pronouns	73	14.06%	0.37
Epistemic lexical verbs	6	1.16%	0.0304
Total	519	100%	2.62

As can be seen from Table 20, each category of hedges was used by the authors in the opinion columns. Epistemic adjectives have the highest ranking among other types of hedges (45.86%) with 1.20 tokens per 100 words. This means that the authors of opinion columns show respect for reader's views and include them in the ratification of their arguments (Hyland, 1998). By the same token, the authors also try to increase the persuasiveness of their claims by creating a discursive space for alternative opinions by means of epistemic adjectives. As a result, the use of this type of hedge aids in softening the claims of the authors by leaving room for interpretation (Hyland, 2005a).

Some of the epistemic adjectives from the corpus have been given in the following sentences:

(76) *Çözemediğimiz sorunlar beynimizde **bazı** alanları sürekli rahatsız eder ve sorun çözülmedikçe o alanın yönettiği organlarımız da bundan nasibini alır.* “Problems that we cannot solve constantly disturb **some** areas in our brain, and unless the problem is solved, the organs that are governed by that area are also influenced by this.”

(77) *Eğer barınakta yeterince boş yer varsa, ya da köpeğiniz sağlıklı kalmayı başarırsa bu süre belki **birkaç** gün daha uzayabilir.* “If there is enough space in the shelter, or if your dog manages to stay healthy, this period may be extended for **a few** more days.”

(78) *Son yıllarımızı **birçok** açıdan olumsuz etkileyen pandemi süreci, hepimizin ruh sağlığını da çok fazla etkiledi.* “The pandemic, which has negatively impacted our recent years in **many** ways, has also significantly affected everyone's mental health as well.”

(79) *Türkiye’de yükseköğretimle ilgili herhangi bir olumlu gelişmeyi duymaya tahammül etmeyen insanların varlığı malum.* “It is apparent that there are people in Türkiye who cannot bear hearing **any** positive developments regarding higher education.”

As in the examples (76), (77), (78), and (79), the authors utilized epistemic adjectives, including *bazı*, ‘some’ that functions as indefinite adjective, *birçok*, ‘many’ that functions as also indefinite adjective and *birkaç*, ‘a few’ that functions as an indefinite article and *herhangi bir*, ‘any’ as hedges. The authors used these epistemic adjectives as hedges, inasmuch as the authors are not a hundred percent certain about the topic, and therefore avoid making their claims challenging. By using these forms, the authors were capable of escaping from being precise and definite while leaving room for uncertainty, which means that they consider the challenges they may confront (Ağçam, 2014; Can, 2006; Dağ Tarcan, 2019; Kan, 2016; Şen, 2019; Güçlü, 2024).

The second most frequently used hedge type is epistemic modal suffixes among other hedge types with a percentage of 21% and have 0.55 tokens per 100 words. This indicates that the authors opted for using epistemic modal suffixes in a bid to hedge their statements. Several examples of epistemic modal suffixes from the corpus have been presented in the extracted sentences below:

(80) *Akıllı bomba veya mermilerden tutun da insansız savaş uçakları, insansız kara tankları ve insansız denizaltılar kendi aralarında çarpışacaktır.* “From smart bombs or bullets to unmanned warplanes, unmanned land tanks and unmanned submarines clash-**FUT-COP-3SG** with each other.”

(81) *Kalkınmanın anahtarı yeniden köy enstitüleri olabilir.* “Village institutes once again **be-PSB-AOR-3SG** the key to development.”

(82) *Kıyas noktası diğer çocuklar değil, çocuğun kendi geçmişi olmalıdır.* “The comparison point **be-OBLG-COP-3SG** the child's own past, not other children.”

As can be seen from the examples (80), (81) and (82), the authors used such epistemic modal suffixes as *-(y)AcAk+DIr*, ‘FUT-COP-3SG’, *-(y)Abil+-(A/I)r*, ‘PSB-AOR-3SG’, and *-mAlI+DIr*, ‘OBLG-COP-3SG’. The authors of the columns use epistemic modal suffixes to prevent commitment to assertions in the arguments by just expressing their

belief through modality and thus the authors create a space for different interpretations, whereby the persuasive influence of the texts increase. (Hyland, 1998; Hyland, 2005a).

Epistemic adverbs follow epistemic modal suffixes in terms of the frequency with a percentage of 17.92% and have 0.47 tokens per 100 words. This shows that the authors of the text utilized epistemic adverbs, when hedging propositions, so as to leave a room for interpretation, thereby acting as a shield against overstating a claim (Hyland, 2005a).

Some examples of the epistemic adverbs from the corpus have been given in the following sentences below:

(83) *Buna karşılık da **herhalde** ABD'den askeri koruma sözü almışlardır.* “In return, they **probably** received a promise of military protection from the United States.”

(84) *İspanya'nın nüfusu ise **neredeyse** bizden yarıdan azdır.* “The population of Spain is **almost** less than half of ours.”

(85) *Her türlü rezilliğin seyrine müsaade eden bu mecraların sahipleri, mesela terörist/siyonist israil'in işlediği vahşi cürümlere şahitlik eden görüntüleri **yer yer** 'şiddet içerikli' olduğu bahanesiyle filtreliyor.* “The owners of the media, which allow all kinds of disgrace to take place, **sometimes** filter images that show the brutal crimes committed by terrorist/Zionist Israel, for example, under the pretext that they contain violent content.”

(86) *Batılı zihniyetin **bir nevi** nalıncı keseri gibi dünya meselelerinin gidişatını kendine yontmak için kullandığı tekerlemelerden ibaret olduğu her yaşanan yeni olayda bir kez daha ortaya çıkıyor.* “The Western mindset is, **in a way**, like a tool that shapes global issues to its advantage, and this becomes evident with every new event that occurs.”

As can be seen from the examples (83), (84), (85), and (86), the authors employed epistemic adverbs, such as *herhalde*, ‘probably’ which functions as a probability adverb, *yer yer*, ‘sometimes’ which functions as an adverb of frequency, *belki*, ‘possibly’ which functions as a possibility adverb and *bir nevi* ‘in a way’. The authors used these epistemic adverbs to soften arguments and to avoid taking responsibility for the certainty of propositions (Hyland, 2005a; Pic & Furmaniak, 2012).

Pronouns are the less frequently used hedge type with a percentage of 14.06% and have 0.37 tokens per 100 words. This sheds lights upon the fact that the authors utilize, albeit less than the aforementioned three types, pronouns, such as indefinite pronouns, and pronominalized determiners, to make their arguments more acceptable by indicating that they are not totally certain about the claims and leave a room for different interpretations that might arise from readers.

Several examples of the pronouns from the corpus have been presented in the following sentences below:

(87) *Bu imtihanda **kimi** her zaman yaptığı gibi hiçbir sorumluluk üstlenmeden, borçlarını inkâr ederek karşılık verdi.* “In this trial, **some** responded by denying their debts, by taking no responsibility, as they always do.”

(88) *Aslında bu durum hepimizin dönem dönem yaşadığı **bir şey**, diğer insanların bizim aklımıza ve öğütlerimize ihtiyacı varmış gibi hissediyoruz.* “As a matter of fact, this is **something** we all experience from time to time; we feel like as though other people need our advice and counsel.”

(89) *Oradaki canlılardan birini sahiplenerek hem onun canını kurtarın, hem de çocuğunuzun vicdanlı ve sevgi dolu bir **birey** olarak büyümesini sağlayacak sadık yoldaşını evinize götürün.* “By adopting one of the animals there, you can rescue its life and bring home a devoted friend that will assist your child in growing into a caring and responsible person.”

(90) *Zamanın rüzgârları 20. - 21. yüzyıl kavşağında bu âdetlerin **çoğunu** süpürmediyse de daha tatsız bir duruma dönüştürdü.* “The winds of time did not sweep away **most** of these customs at the junction of the 20th and 21st centuries, but transformed them into something more unpleasant.”

In the examples (87), (88), (89) and (90), the authors used pronouns, such as *kimi*, ‘some’ which is an indefinite pronoun, *bir şey*, ‘something’ that is an indefinite pronoun and *birey*, ‘individual’ that is an indefinite pronoun and *çoğu*, ‘most’ as an indefinite pronoun. The authors used these pronouns as hedging markers to mitigate assertions and to open a dialogue with the readers who might have differing views, thereby making texts more convincing (Hyland, 2005a). The use of pronouns also stems from the fact that the authors do not want to take direct responsibility for their claims (Demir, 2018).

In our corpus, epistemic lexical verbs are the least frequently employed hedge type (1.16%) with 0.0304 tokens per 100 words. This means that the authors usually did not prefer using epistemic lexical verbs to hedge their statements. Some examples of epistemic lexical verbs from the corpus have been given in the following extracted sentences below:

(91) *Yeni arařtırmalar son yıllarda fiziksel performansı arttırmak ve dayanıklılıđı geliřtirmek amacıyla sporcular ve gençler tarafından uzun yıllardır zaten kullanılan bu önemli aminoasidin sađlıđı iyileřtirme ve ömrü uzatmada da iře yarayabileceđini **düřündürüyor**.* “Recent studies **make one think** that this important amino acid, which has been used by athletes and young people for many years to enhance physical performance and improve endurance, may also be effective in improving health and extending lifespan.”

(92) *Ülkemizde, uygun iklim kořulları ve zengin bitki çeřitliliđi, birçok böceđin ormanlarda uzun süre varlıđını sürdürmesine **olanak sađlamaktadır**.* “In our country, suitable climate conditions and rich plant diversity **enable** many insects to survive in forests for a long time.”

(93) *İlk bakıřta çok motive edici **gibi görünse** de bazen büyük düşünmek elimizdekilerle harekete geçmeyi zorlařtırabiliyor.* “Although it may **seem** very motivating at first glance, sometimes thinking big can make it difficult to take action with what we have.”

As in the examples (91), (92), and (93), the authors utilized epistemic lexical verbs, such as *düřün-*, ‘to think’, *olanak sađla-*, ‘enable’ and *görün-*, ‘to seem’ to soften certainty of the arguments. Hyland (1996) reports the lack of the epistemic verb ‘think’ in written data. Therefore, since opinion columns are conversational in nature, the verb ‘think’ is employed in example 91. In example 93, by the use of the verb ‘seem’, the author makes a personal evaluation of the proposition (Suratno & Aydawati, 2025; Szczygłowska, 2022).

5.1.4. Attitude Markers in Opinion Columns

Attitude markers are linguistic devices that deliver authors’ judgements, opinions, and feelings about a particular content and have a persuasive role via conveying propositional attitudes and evaluation (Hyland, 1998). In other words, attitude markers express the

author's feelings toward their arguments, enhancing the persuasive effect by building a sense of connection with readers and guiding them on how to respond to the arguments (Hyland, 2005a). As Vande Kopple (1985) maintains, attitude markers help authors to show their stance about the significance of an issue, whether it is appropriate or not, and his personal tendencies towards content.

Table 21 indicates that attitude markers are the third most frequently used interactional MDM among other interactional MDMs (13.5%) with 1.99 tokens per 100 words. This means that the authors of the opinion columns employed attitude markers to show their stance about certain topics in the opinion columns. In other words, the authors utilized attitude markers to show their viewpoints, and assessment with regard to their claims throughout the texts (Hyland, 1998). By doing so, the authors, as Hyland (2005a) asserts, create close bonds with the readers and suggest how they respond to the arguments, which in turn leads to an increase in the persuasiveness of the texts. To use a language in an emotional manner is a significant rhetorical strategy utilized by writers to influence and persuade audience (Aristotle, 2007).

In the current study, it was observed that all types of attitude markers were employed by the authors in the opinion columns. These types of attitude markers are attitudinal adjectives, attitudinal lexical verbs, attitudinal adverbs, attitudinal verbs and deontic modal suffixes, respectively. The frequency and the percentages of the attitude markers and tokens per 100 words are specified in the following Table 21 below:

Table 21

Frequencies and Tokens of Attitude Markers

Categories of Attitude Markers	f	%	Tokens
Attitudinal adjectives	274	69.54%	1.39
Attitudinal lexical verbs	49	12.44%	0.25
Attitude adverbs	40	10.15%	0.20
Attitudinal verbs	19	4.82%	0.096
Deontic modal suffixes	12	3.05%	0.061
Total	394	100%	1.99

As indicated in Table 21, attitudinal adjectives are the most frequently employed type among other types of attitude markers with a percentage of 69.54% and have 1.39 tokens per 100 words. Thereupon, the authors of the opinion columns convey their evaluations and attitudes through utilizing attitudinal adjectives.

Several attitudinal adjectives from the corpus have been given in the following extracts.

(94) *Ama petrol zengini Suudi Arabistan ile ABD arasında kapsamlı bir “kamu maliyesi yönetimi anlaşması” varmış.* “But there is a **detailed** ‘public finance management agreement’ between oil-rich Saudi Arabia and the United States.”

(95) *Ayvalık Roma Ortodoks dünyası için de önemli bir metropolitlik merkezidi.* “Ayvalık was also an **important** metropolitan center for the Roman Orthodox world.”

(96) *Hindistan’da Facebook kullanıcıları üzerinde yapılan bir araştırma çok ilginç sonuçlar ortaya koyuyor.* “A study conducted on Facebook users in India reveals very **interesting** results.”

(97) *Her türlü rezilliğin seyrine müsaade eden bu mecraların sahipleri, mesela terörist/siyonist israil’in işlediği vahşi cürümlere şahitlik eden görüntüleri yer yer ‘şiddet içerikli’ olduğu bahanesiyle filtreliyor.* “The owners of these media, which allow all kinds of disgrace to take place, sometimes filter out images that show the **brutal** crimes committed by terrorist/Zionist Israel, under the pretext that they contain ‘violent content.’”

In the examples (94), (95), (96) and (97), the authors used several adjectives as attitude markers, such as *kapsamlı*, ‘detailed’, *önemli* ‘important’, *ilginç* ‘interesting’, and *vahşi* ‘brutal’ as modifiers of nouns. The authors used these adjectives to share their opinion towards arguments and claim solidarity with the readers to persuade them (Hyland, 2005a).

Attitudinal lexical verbs follow attitudinal adjectives in terms of frequency among other types of attitude markers (12.44%) with 0.25 tokens per 100 words. This illustrates that the authors of the texts employ attitudinal lexical verbs to manifest their viewpoint about the arguments and show their sentiment towards the arguments presented to the readers

(Vande Kopple, 1985; Hyland, 1998, 2005a). The extracted sentences from the corpus concerning attitudinal lexical verbs are presented below:

(98) *Evvelden bu özel okulların kontrol altına alınması, çok şubeli şirketler hâlinde çıkarılmaları, eğitim personelinin okul sahipleri ve velilerle ilişkilerinin ayarlanması gerekir.* “First of all, these private schools need to be taken under control, they need to be transformed into multi-branch companies, and the relations between the teaching staff, school owners and parents **have to be adjusted.**”

(99) *Yine de bu gelişmeler insan ve yapay zeka arasında bir iş birliği gerektiriyor.* “However, these developments **require** collaboration between humans and artificial intelligence.”

(100) *Her ilimizde üniversite olduğuna göre; öğrenci yurduna da ihtiyaç var demektir.* “Given that there are universities in each of our cities, this means that **there is also a need** for a dormitory.”

As can be seen from the examples (98), (99), and (100), the authors used deontic lexical verbs, such as *-mA SI gerek-*, ‘it has to’, *gerektirmek* ‘to require’, and *-(y)A ihtiyaç var*, ‘to need’ to clarify their stance towards the arguments in the opinion columns.

In the current study, attitudinal adverbs are the third most frequently used type among other types of attitude markers (10.15%) with 0.20 tokens per 100 words. This makes it clear that the authors of the opinion columns employ attitudinal adverbs to convey their attitude, feelings and evaluations about the arguments (Hyland, 2005a). Below, some of the attitudinal adverbs are presented in the following extracted sentences from the corpus:

(101) *Araştırmalar henüz yeni ve yeterince tekrarlanmış olmasa da mevcut veriler oldukça güçlü ve umut verici.* “Although the research is new and has not been investigated enough, the existing data is **quite** compelling and promising.”

(102) *Mahalle sakinlerinin katılımıyla oluşturulan beslemek, kısırlaştırmak ve sağlık kontrolleri gibi programlarla, yerel düzeyde sorunların daha hızlı ve etkili bir şekilde çözülmesine yardımcı olunabilir.* “The programs such as feeding, neutering and medical checks, created with the participation of neighborhood residents, can help solve problems at the local level more quickly and **effectively.**”

(103) *Adaletin sağlanması için güç gereklidir ve bu yüzden gücü elinde bulunduracak kişilerin dikkatle seçilmesi çok önemlidir.* “Power is necessary to

ensure justice, and it is therefore very important to **carefully** select those who will hold power.”

(104) *Hâlbuki savaşın doğrudan veyâ dolaylı olarak maddî sebepleri vardır.* “However, war, whether directly or **indirectly**, has material causes.”

As can be gathered from the examples (101), (102), (103), and (104), the authors used attitudinal adverbs, including *oldukça* ‘quite’, *etkili bir şekilde*, ‘effectively’, *dikkatle* ‘carefully’, and *dolaylı olarak*, ‘indirectly’ to personally evaluate and convey their emotions towards the arguments in the opinion columns.

Attitudinal verbs are the less frequently utilized type among other types of attitude markers (4.82%) with 0.096 tokens per 100 words. This means that the authors of the opinion columns usually did not opt for using attitudinal verbs to convey their personal judgements about the content. Some of the examples as regards attitudinal verbs are given within the following extracted sentences from the corpus of the study.

(105) *Nasıl ki bir çocuğun bedensel ihtiyaçlarına önem veriyorsak, onların psikolojik ihtiyaçlarını karşılamayı da ihmal etmeyelim.* “Just as **we care** a child's physical needs, let's not neglect to meet their psychological needs.”

(106) *Bu kadar değerli bir doğal mirasın korunması hem bilimsel hem de çevresel açıdan büyük önem taşımaktadır.* “The protection of such a valuable natural heritage **matters** both scientifically and environmentally.”

(107) *Seçici olmanın çok önem kazandığı bir zamdayız.* “We are in a time where being selective has **gained significance**.”

In the examples (105), (106), and (107), the authors used attitudinal verbs, including *önem vermek*, ‘to care’, *önem taşımak*, ‘to matter’, and *önem kazanmak* ‘to gain significance’ to communicate propositional attitudes and evaluation to persuade the readers by forming solidarity with the readers (Hyland, 2005a).

The least frequently employed type is deontic modal suffixes among other types of attitude markers (3.05%) with 0.061 tokens per 100 words. This shows that the authors were not much inclined to use deontic modal suffixes to highlight their stance towards

the subject in the opinion columns. Some of the examples as regards deontic modal suffixes are given within the following extracted sentences from the corpus of the study.

(108) *Unutmamamız gereken mühim bir ayrıntı daha var: Eğer kök hücre sayımızı arttırmak istiyorsak sadece aerobik egzersizlerle yetinmemeli, mümkün olduğu ölçüde direnç ve ağırlık egzersizlerine de vakit ayırmalıyız.* “There is another important detail that we should not forget: If we want to increase our stem cell count, we must not only do aerobic exercises, but also **must spend** time on resistance and weight exercises as much as possible.”

(109) *İstikrar programları (Bakan Şimşek şimdi bunu hazırlıyor) veya kalkınma planları realist olmalıdır.* Stability programs (Minister Şimşek is preparing this now) or development plans **must** be realistic.”

(110) *Ders kitaplarımıza, her seviyeden eğitim müfredatımıza, Batı'nın artık saklanamaz hale gelen karanlık emperyalist yüzünü anlatan etraflı muhtevayı mutlaka eklemeli, çocuklarımızı bu aşikar gerçekten habersiz yetiştirmekten vazgeçmeliyiz.* “We must **definitely add** comprehensive content to our textbooks and educational curricula at all levels that unveils the dark imperialist face of the West that can no longer be concealed, and we **must give up** raising our children unaware of this obvious truth.”

In the examples (108), (109), and (110), the authors used deontic modal suffix, *-malı* ‘OBLG’ with a view to sharing their personal feelings to create a connection with the readers. Deontic modal suffix *-malı* is prescriptive (Rocci, 2019). Canning (2014) maintains this marker mentions about how to behave in certain circumstances. Therefore, in opinion column context the author mentions about his point of view and indicates what must be done which results in a relation with the reader. Not to be very prescriptive, the author of the opinion columns refrain from employing these suffixes frequently. In other words, since the author is sharing his opinion with the readers, he does not employ these markers frequently so as not to appear too prescriptive to the readers.

5.1.5. Self-Mentions in Opinion Columns

Self-mentions are interactional MDMs that feature the authors’ presence in the text and can escalate the persuasiveness of a writing (Hyland, 2005a). According to Hyland (2005a), the use of self-references enhances the assertiveness of texts.

In the current study, self-mentions are the least used interactional MDM among other interactional MDMs (5.5%) with 0.81 tokens per 100 words. The frequency and the percentages of the self-mentions and tokens per 100 words are presented in the following Table 22 below:

Table 22

Frequencies and Tokens of Self-Mentions

Categories of Self-Mentions	f	%	Tokens
Explicit authorial reference	160	100%	0.81
Implicit authorial reference	0	0%	0
Total	160	100%	0.81

As can be observed from Table 22, explicit authorial reference type was the only category that was used by the authors in the opinion columns with 100% percent and have 0.81 tokens per 100 words. In accordance with Hyland (2001b), the presence or absence of explicit authorial reference is an intentional choice to adopt a particular stance and hence self mention affects how arguments of authors can be interpreted by the readers. This indicates that the authors of the opinion columns did not refrain from strengthening their arguments by incorporating themselves into the texts and highlighting their authority (Bondi, 2008; Hyland, 2001b, 2002, 2005a; Tang & John, 1999). In other words, the writers of the articles explicitly and straightforwardly displayed their identity and authority across the opinion columns. Nonetheless, the number of self-mentions is the lowest among other interactional MDMs. This demonstrates that, despite their presence in the text, the authors employed them less often than other interactional MDMs as they did not want to be too authoritative and assertive in their claims. Some of the examples of the explicit authorial references are given in the following sentences from the corpus:

(111) *Bendenizi açılış konuşması için davet etmek alicenaplığımı gösterdiler.* “They were generous enough to invite **me** to give the opening speech.”

(112) *Köpek besleyen arkadaşlarımda evimde kalmaktan kaçındım.* “I avoided staying over at friends who have dogs.”

(113) *Atatürk'ün bu yoldaki çabalarını onun ağzından dinlemek benim için bir imtiyazdı. "It was a privilege for me to hear Atatürk's efforts in this regard from his own words."*

(114) *Ben Amerikalı, İrlandalı, Alman, İsraili hocalar görüyorum o ekranlarda, dopdolu sözlerle, tam teşekküllü argümanlarla isyan ediyorlar? "I see American, Irish, German and Israeli teachers on those screens, rebelling with striking words and full-fledged arguments."*

As can be seen from the examples (111), (112), (113), and (114), the authors employed self-mentions, such as explicit authorial reference through *-(I)m* (first person singular suffix), first person singular pronoun *ben*, 'I' and first person object pronoun *beni*, 'me' to show their involvement in the text and to show their presence throughout the texts they produce. Additionally, it has been found in this study that *bendeniz*, which can be used as first person object pronoun or first person subject pronoun, was used as a self-mention marker by the writers of these columns. In Turkish, *bendeniz* can be used in both formal and informal contexts by people in place of *ben* to speak in a polite manner and to show respect for listeners or readers (Abadzic Navaey & Bakšić, 2018). *Bendeniz*, *kulunuz*, *köleniz*, and *hizmetkarınız* can be used as a pronoun instead of "I" to show modesty (Turkish Language Association, 2025). Indeed, Çiçek (2020) states that in Turkish, *bendeniz*, *kulunuz*, *köleniz*, and *hizmetkârınız* are used instead of 'ben' in an attempt to show respect to audience. Also, *bendeniz* can be employed by both speakers and writers to seem humble to the audience (Kitiş-Çınar & Uslu-Yardımcı, 2015; Sebzecioğlu & Ardiç, 2023). It can be speculated that the use of *bendeniz* stems from the author's desire to be polite towards the readers and show respect for them. Given that self-mentions claim authority and control the level of interaction, *bendeniz* must be used by the author for the purpose of softening the authoritative force of self-mention per se and to be more polite (Hyland, 2005a, 2023). As a result, apart from *bendeniz*; *kulunuz*, *köleniz*, and *hizmetkârınız* can also be employed as self-mention markers in a more polite manner.

In addition to interactional MDMs, the study also gives findings with regard to persuasive appeals. The following illustrate the employment of boosters as persuasive appeals in the opinion columns:

(115) *Fakat bu eğitim düzeni ve politikası toplumumuzun edep anlayışında, zekâsını ve yetenekleri değerlendirme alanında ve toplumun iktisadi ve kültürel hayatını yoluna koymasında en büyük engeli oluşturuyor.* “However, this education system and our policies pose **the biggest** obstacle in terms of moral values, evaluating intelligence and talent, and maintaining the historical and cultural life of society.”

(116) *İnsan doğası gereği belirsizlikten nefret eder, bir sonraki adımda kendisini nelerin beklediğini az çok tahmin etmek ister.* “Human nature hates uncertainty; we prefer to have a pretty good idea of what awaits us next.”

(117) *Kadınların Olimpiyat Oyunları'na katılması, hatta seyirci olarak izlemesi bile yasaktı.* “Women were forbidden to participate in the Olympic Games, or **even** watch them as spectators.”

(118) *Kimsenin bunun hesâbını yaptığını görmüyorum.* “I don't see **anyone** calculating this.”

The examples (115), (116), (117), and (118) exemplify the use of amplifiers, such as *en* “the most”, modal suffixes indicating certainty, as in *-(A/I)r* “AOR-3SG”, emphatics, as in *bile* “even”, and universal pronouns, such as *kimse* “nobody”. Boosters are clear examples of *ethos*. Furthermore, boosters are known to drastically influence establishing credibility (Crismore & Farnsworth, 1989). By making use of boosters abundantly in the texts, the columnists in a way indicate that they are knowledge about topic that they discuss and mark their certainty and expertise (Li, 2020). For instance, the columnists use *en* “the most” and *kimse* “nobody” with a high degree of certainty, which demonstrates their *ethos* of conviction and competence. With the employment of *-(A/I)r* “AOR-3SG” and *bile* “even”, the columnists also display their reliability, and trustworthiness, now that they share certain information with their readers. Moreover, the columnists also draw upon boosters in an attempt to show their authority, sincerity and reputation (Stiff & Mongeau, 2003). To persuade readers, the authors must make the readers feel that the writers of the texts are quite knowledge about the topic and they can give exact answers to the readers. As a consequence, the columnists appeal to *ethos* of informed, and competent so as to persuade the readers.

Apart from boosters, the following indicate the use of engagement markers as persuasive appeals:

(119) *Unutmayın ki çocuklarımız “MUTLU OLMAYI” doğdukları evde, bizim mutluluğumuzu paylaşıırken öğrenirler.* “Remember that **our** children learn "how to be happy" in the home, where they are born, by sharing **our** happiness.”

(120) *Nereden mezun olduğunuza ya da kaç diplomanız bulunduğuna değil yetkinliklerinize bakılacak.* “They will look at **your skills**, not where you graduated from or how many degrees you have.”

(121) *Neyse, biz sporcularımızın başarılarına odaklanalım.* “Anyway, **let's** focus on our athletes' achievements.”

In the examples (119), (120) and (121), the columnists utilized engagement markers, such as inclusive “we”, reader pronouns, as in *-sizin* “your”, directives, as in *-Allm*, imperative suffix, and rhetorical questions to appeal to *pathos*. The use of inclusive “we” is a way of establishing solidarity with the readers (Akinwotu, 2021). As Trazkova (2014) states, the use of inclusive “we” constructs a close relationship between the writers and the readers, although they cannot contact with each other physically. Instead of employing third person plural, using second person plural is a sign of intimacy in texts (Baker, 1992). Also, the use of *you* and *your* indicates close and harmonious relationship (Fu, 2012). Besides the employment of inclusive we and reader pronouns, directives are also a way of emotionally interacting with the readers. The columnists made use of *-Allm* in order to prompt the readers into performing an action or looking the text from the viewpoint of the authors (Hyland, 2002). This feature of directives lessens the distance between the columnists and the readers. Hence, the columnists use engagement markers in order to draw the readers into discourse by emotionally appealing to them, namely *pathos* (Hyland, 2005a).

Aside from engagement markers, the study also presents findings with respect to hedges as persuasive appeals. The following extracts illustrate the employment of hedges by the columnists to persuade readers:

(122) *Taurini besinlerle de -özellikle hayvansal gıdalarla- kazanmamız mümkün.* “It is also **possible** to obtain taurine from food, especially animal products.”

(123) *Evet, uluslararası istatistik ve arařtırmalara gre, dnyada her yıl yaklaşık 35 bin insan kpek saldırılarında hayatını kaybediyor.* “Yes, according to international statistics and research, **approximately** 35,000 people worldwide die each year of dog attacks.”

(124) *Bylece kiřilerden bağımsız, srdrlebilir ve ileride belki de niversiteye dnşebilecek bir yapının temelleri atılacak.* “In this way, the foundations **will be laid** for a sustainable structure that is independent of individuals and may **perhaps** one day evolve into a university.”

(125) *Bu imtihanda kimi her zaman yaptığı gibi hiřbir sorumluluk stlenmeden, borçlarını inkâr ederek karřılık verdi.* “In this test, **some** responded as they always do, by denying their obligations and avoiding taking any responsibility.”

In the examples (122), (123), (124) and (125), the columnists drew upon hedges such as epistemic adjectives, as in *mmkn* “possible”, epistemic adverbs, as in *yaklaşık* “approximately”, *belki* “maybe”, epistemic modal suffixes, as in *-(y)AcAk+Dir* “FUT-COP-3SG”, and pronouns, as in *kimi* “some”, for the purpose of appealing to *ethos* and *pathos*. Hedges can be used by the writers so as to create a discursive space where interpretations can be argued (Hyland, 2005a). The use of hedges in texts implies that the columnists leave a room for interpretation for the readers, which makes a text more friendly (Camiciottoli, 2003; Noorian & Biria, 2010). Moreover, accepting different viewpoints can give rise to a more sympathetic reading (del, 2006). Given that hedges soften claims put forth by the columnists, the writers employ hedges to highlight that there are cautious and realistic, which bolsters *ethos* of being realistic and pragmatic (Ho, 2016). Furthermore, the columnists employed hedges with a view to protecting their self-image of adept personality which people can rely on (Abusalim et al., 2022). The use of hedges enables the authors to grant freedom to their readers and create a bond between them by emotionally appealing to the readers (Mensah et al., 2025).

In tandem with hedges, the following sentences exemplify the use of attitude markers as persuasive appeals in the columns:

(126) *İyi ki dediklerimizi ve keřkelerimizi uzun uzun dşnelim.* “Let's think **at length** about the things we're glad we did and the things we regret.”

(127) *Hindistan'da Facebook kullanıcıları üzerinde yapılan bir araştırma çok ilginç sonuçlar ortaya koyuyor.* “A study conducted on Facebook users in India has revealed some very **interesting** results.”

(128) *Salda Gölü'nün korunması için acilen önlemler alınmalı, yoksa cehalet ve para hirsından bir doğal güzelliğimiz daha yok olacak.* “Urgent measures **must be taken** to protect Lake Salda, otherwise another of our natural beauties will be lost due to ignorance and greed.”

In the examples (126), (127), and (128), the columnists employ attitude markers, such as attitudinal adverbs, as in *uzun uzun* “at length”, attitudinal adjectives, as in *ilginç* “interesting”, and deontic modal suffixes, as is *-mAli* “OBLG”. The columnists appeal to *ethos* so as to create solidarity with their readers and they do so by including them in their arguments in the columns (Hyland, 2005a). The columnists made use of these attitude markers to demonstrate their affective values. The columnists strive for gaining readers' confidence by using obligation and necessity modals as in *-mAli* (Abusalim et al., 2022). Furthermore, using any language in an emotional manner is an indispensable rhetorical strategy to influence and persuade audience (Aristotle, 2007). Besides that, emotional expression is an inherent feature of Turkish society, particularly in public discourse and communication (Wege et al., 2014). As a consequence, the columnists try to persuade their audience by evoking specific emotions on the readers, which in turn might dramatically impact the persuasiveness of their columns.

On top of attitude markers, the following sentences demonstrate the employment of self-mentions as persuasive appeals in the columns:

(129) *Doğrusu, ben ilk şıkkın daha geçerli olduğunu düşünenlerdenim.* “To be honest, I'm one of those who think the first option is more valid.”

(130) *Meal en aktardığım bu yazım bir pazar günü yayınlanmıştı.* “This article, which I've **summarized** above, was published on a Sunday.”

(131) *Macaristan'ın başkenti Budapeşte bu dünyanın mimar ve mühendis olarak titiz ve başarılı yaratıcılığının bence en güzel örneği.* “Budapest, the capital of Hungary, is, **in my opinion**, the finest example of meticulous and successful creativity by architects and engineers in this world.”

In the examples (129), (130), and (131), the columnists draw on self-mentions, such as explicit authorial reference, as in *ben* “I”, *-(I)m*, “first person singular suffix”, and *bence* “I think” in order to attain persuasion in their columns by appealing to *ethos*. In accordance with Hyland (2005a), self-mentions put both writers and readers in texts, which is an indication of the fact that the writers’ needs for clarity and engagement are conceived and attended to. By using self-mentions in the columns, the columnists appeal of *ethos* of authority and accountability, since they make their presence apparent in their texts (Ho, 2016). By presenting themselves as the sole agent of the clauses, the columnists build an identity of accountable and reliable writers, which establishes strong *ethos* of commitment and responsibility (Liu & Zhang, 2021). The employment of self-mentions in the opinion columns increases the credibility of the statements, given that self-mentions mark firsthand knowledge and experience (Kazemian & Naiyf Qaiwer, 2025). Nonetheless, even though self-mentions have a very low frequency in our study, this does not overshadow their importance in the columns, as the use of self-mentions is a rhetorical strategy deployed by the columnists to attain persuasion in their texts.

5.2. THE DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS WITH RESPECT TO THE CATEGORICAL DISTRIBUTION OF METADISOURSE MARKERS

In this section of the study, the findings of our study will be discussed through comparison with other studies about interactional metadiscourse on non-academic discourse.

According to Hyland (2005a), interactional metadiscourse allows the writers to make their views explicit and to include the readers in the texts by enabling them to give response to the text. In other words, interactional metadiscourse is mostly related with the participants of the interaction (Zareifard & Alinezhad, 2014). Furthermore, interactional metadiscourse paves the way for persuading, informing, and entertaining the readers, besides including the readers in the texts (Chen & Li, 2023). Therefore, interactional metadiscourse is a hidden feature of writings and it has a substantial influence on the success of the writings (Wingate, 2012).

All types of interactional MDMs were used by the authors in the opinion columns. Interactional MDMs from the most frequently employed ones to the least are given as in the following: boosters, engagement markers, hedges, attitude markers and self-mentions. That is to say, boosters, engagement markers and hedges respectively are the most frequently used interactional MDMs, whereas attitude markers and self-mentions are less frequently employed interactional MDMs in the corpus.

The authors employed boosters more than any other interactional MDMs. Namely, boosters are the most frequently used interactional MDM in Turkish opinion columns, when compared with the other interactional MDMs. This demonstrates that the authors opt for expressing their certainty towards the arguments presented. As Hyland (2005a) points out, boosters enable authors to form a credible image of certainty and conviction, in addition to instilling confidence and trust. Furthermore, boosters close down alternatives whilst taking a joint perspective with readers, against other potential voices (Hyland, 1998; Hyland, 1999).

The frequent use of boosters might stem from the nature of opinion columns. For instance, van Dijk (1988) states that opinion articles are texts that aim to persuade readers. Greenberg (2020) maintains that opinion discourses strive for prompting readers to a particular ideological position and can persuade readers to emphasize their viewpoints. Furthermore, as Connor (1996) argue, opinion columns are written for the purpose of persuading readers about a particular topic. In this case, given that opinion columns are written to persuade the readers, they need to include persuasive rhetorical tool, such as boosters, in large numbers. For instance, Dafouz-Milne (2008) and Fu & Hyland (2014) found that boosters are essential for opinion columns and writers of opinion pieces strive for offering the strongest support to persuade their readers and hence make use of boosters for that purpose. Furthermore, Batool et al. (2020) state that writers of opinion columns highly draw upon boosters and they do so in order to make their statements firmer and stronger to persuade their readers about their opinions in the columns. Additionally, in their studies Babapour & Kuhi (2019) and Tanveer et al. (2023) reveal that boosters are the most frequently employed interactional metadiscourse marker, which is linked to the authors' preference to show their certainty with regard to their opinions in the columns

and to augment the communicative effectiveness of the opinion columns. As a consequence, because boosters are rhetorical tools that can increase certainty of expressions by authors, opinion columns include the dominant use of boosting as a way of convincing readers about opinions of the authors in the columns (Chipeta, 2021; Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Fu & Hyland, 2014; Ojo, 2020; Hyland, 2005a).

On the other hand, the columnists drew upon boosters in an attempt to build *ethos*. The columnists make use of boosters in order to persuade the readers. Boosters are clear examples of metadiscourse, which can be employed for attaining credibility in persuasive texts (Crismore & Farnsworth, 1989; Dafouz, 2003; Hyland, 1998, 2005a). By making use of boosters with a high frequency, the columnists mark their confidence, determinance and competency about their arguments in the columns (Hyland, 2005a). That is to say, the columnists employ boosters to represent themselves a credible, upright, knowledgeable, robust, honorable persona and represent an authoritative self image and by maintaining their self-respect, the columnists are more likely to make their readers convinced as to the columnists' arguments in the columns (Abusalim et al., 2022; Hyland, 2005a; Li, 2020). In addition, such metadiscursive markers were advertently employed by the writers in an attempt to demonstrate their professional and/or public image (Ilie, 2015). As a matter of fact, the columnists used boosters to highlight their expertise and stand by their assertions in their opinion columns (Mensah et al., 2025). Also, the columnists make use of a combination of boosters and self-mentions. This arises from the columnists' attempt to explicitly build authority and accountability (Ho, 2016).

The second most frequently employed interactional MDM in our corpus is engagement markers. Engagement markers, as Hyland (2005b) claims, refer to diverse ways authors of texts can grab readers attention into discourse and relate to them and estimate their potential objections. What is more, Ädel (2006) states that engagement markers provide a sense of consensus between the author and the imagined reader. As a consequence, this marker is essential for persuasive writing, given that authors need to present their claims clearly while at the same time connecting with their audience (Hyland, 1999).

The abundance of engagement markers might arise from the structural features of opinion columns. Whilst opinion columns give subjective information, or share personal stories to emphasize the columnist's viewpoint, the readers need to find themselves included in the writing and thus although the columnists could employ the personal pronoun "I", the columns should not seem like just the author matters in the writing (Dow Tate & Taylor, 2007). As a matter of fact, the extensive use of engagement markers in opinion columns mostly stems from the greater interactivity of this genre and the columnists must make use of engagement markers to establish solidarity with the readers, by means of which the columnists can raise the persuasive impact of the columns (Farnia & Mohammadi, 2018; Fu & Hyland, 2014; Sukma & Sujatna, 2014). Likewise, engagement markers can be found in great numbers by virtue of the structure of opinion columns which try to involve more readers into their text (Nugroho, 2020). In addition, in their studies, Biri (2018) and Anini & Ekawati (2022) reveal that the authors highly make use of engagement markers in opinion columns to engage with the readers in the text and that the use of engagement markers results in an increase in the level of persuasion in opinion columns.

It can be claimed that the authors use a myriad of engagement markers to align themselves with the readers by creating a sense of solidarity. Engagement markers aid the authors in establishing a connection with the readers, which is indispensable for sustaining relational harmony (Hyland, 2005a). Appealing to the reader and including them in the arguments directly means that the authors respect for the readers' interpretations. Also, the authors avoid using a language that would otherwise seem too authoritative or distant. Hyland (2001b) states that using *we* in single-authored texts is a sign of humility and modesty. As a result, the columnists use a high frequency of engagement markers to connect with the readers and include them in the text for preserving harmony with the readers, which in turn has a positive influence on the persuasiveness of the texts (Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Hyland, 2005a).

Furthermore, the columnists employed engagement markers by appealing to *pathos* in order to convince readers (Ho, 2018). The columnists use engagement markers to share a common ground with the reader and foster agreement on the assertions discussed by

presenting oneself as a person with identical views, interests and objectives as the reader (Hyland, 2005a). In other words, these markers are deployed by the authors with a view to stimulating readers' affective feelings and so as to construct a type of affective appeal, in addition to achieving emotional support on the part of the readers (Abusalim et al., 2022). Furthermore, in accordance with Trazkova (2014), the use of inclusive "we" makes both authors and readers connected to each other and thereby constructing a close relationship between the authors and the readers, even if they cannot contact with each other physically. Also, the employment of inclusive "we" provides a sense of shared identity between the writers and the readers, eliciting trust between them and this trust makes it possible for the author to seem credible and their messages to be acceptable by the audience (Mensah et al., 2025). The columnists, thus, frequently employ inclusive "we" to establish a common ground with the reader. In addition, second person plural pronoun was used by the columnists to form solidarity with the reader since second person plural pronoun enables the columnists to build a high degree of closeness and sympathy with the reader (Baker, 1992; Fu, 2012). As Hyland (2005a) argues, personalizing the discourse and closely including readers in context by directly addressing them by means of second-person pronouns is an explicit way of appealing to readers. Aside from second-person pronouns, directives propel the readers into performing an action or looking the text from the viewpoint of the authors (Hyland, 2002). Besides directives, the columnists make use of questions and asides in order to create affective appeals to persuade the readers. Whereas questions take the reader into the discourse as a participant in a dialogue, personal asides, which interrupt the argumentative flow so as to share a comment upon propositional information, address the readers directly with regard to the discourse per se (Hyland, 2005a). To add more, the columnists capitalized upon engagement markers which make contribution to affective appeal in an attempt to reduce psychological distance from their readers, since these markers aid the columnists in building a rapport with the readers and facilitates the attainment of persuasion (Abusalim et al., 2022; Ho, 2020; Zhou & Li, 2023). As a result, the columnists employed a great number of engagement markers in the opinion columns to build a credible persona in order to persuade the readers about their claims.

In our corpus, hedges are the third most frequently employed interactional MDM. Hedges are linguistic devices that can be utilized to convince the reader by opening a discursive space wherein interpretations can be argued by the readers (Hyland, 2005a). The use of hedges is overwhelmingly important, because, as Hyland (1998a) maintains, hedges provide deference and respect for readers' views and include them in the endorsement of their claims. Indeed, hedges make it possible for texts to seem more friendly and polite (Camiciottoli, 2003; Noorian & Biria, 2010). According to Ädel (2006), admitting different viewpoints can give rise to a more sympathetic reading and can be considered as a method whereby authors can protect themselves from severe disagreements they can confront. Hence, the use of hedges strengthen the truth-value of the statements (Fuentes-Olivera et al., 2001).

In opinion columns, the attainment of persuasion is of utmost importance and hedges play a vital role in the persuasion of the audience. The findings of our study with regard to hedges are parallel to a number of studies (Batool et al., 2020; Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Farnia & Mohammadi, 2018; Fu & Hyland, 2014; Nugroho, 2020). To exemplify, by way of hedges, the columnists can anticipate oppositions that are likely to occur against their claims and hedges allow the readers to follow the authors' attitude without the authors being too assertive in opinion columns (Dafouz-Milne, 2008). Furthermore, hedges are mostly found in opinion columns, in that an opinion column is a reflection of its author's subjective accounts and once they share their opinions in their columns, they might not be entirely certain about their claims or could desire to lessen the influence of their claims with the use of hedges (Nugroho, 2020). Moreover, Fu & Hyland (2014) claim that authors of opinion articles used hedges to soften their arguments and to enable readers to reach to their own conclusions and by so doing, the authors can create a voice of rationality and can come to an agreement with the readers. By the same token, authors of newspaper articles draw highly upon hedges to mitigate the effect of their claims in an attempt to persuade readers (Farnia & Mohammadi, 2018). Beyond that, as Batool et al. (2020) argue, the columnists make use of hedges not just to make their voices soft and lenient but also to demonstrate their uncertainty they have about their opinions. Nevertheless, even though the abundance of both hedges and boosters might seem dazzling, this is not the case, since it is actually the combination of weakening and

strengthening expressions that make opinion columns persuasive to the reader and this merge prevents a text from being too assertive or too vague (Dafouz, 2003).

That is to say, in accordance with Hyland (2005a), hedges and boosters need to appear in the texts in a balanced way, as a result of the fact that using a plethora of boosters without enough hedges might create the impression for the reader that the authors of the texts do not respect the readers' thoughts or comments about the arguments throughout the texts. By contrast, using a myriad of hedges without enough boosters could make the readers think that the authors of the texts are not certain and their claims are not credible. This, in turn, might undermine the degree of persuasiveness of the arguments. Therefore, the authors of the opinion columns need to use hedges to soften their claims and to leave a room for potential interpretations and debates (Dafouz, 2003; Dafouz-Milne, 2008). In consequence, hedges and boosters are important features of opinion columns in the attainment of persuasion.

Moreover, the columnists deployed hedges by constructing credible appeal or *ethos* and building affective appeal, or *pathos* in a bid to persuade their readers. In accordance with Hyland (2005a), hedges can be employed so that readers are persuaded by providing a discursive space wherein different interpretations of the text can be discussed. Adding uncertainty to statements through hedges, the authors show respect for the readers' views and involve them in the ratification of their claims (Hyland, 1998). By doing thus, the columnists not only leave room for different interpretations, but also include the reader in the argument. Furthermore, the columnists used hedges in order to maintain their self-image of adept personality on which people can rely (Abusalim et al., 2022). In fact, in persuasive writing, deference is a concept which means that the speakers are aware of the viewpoints, sentiments, and opinions of the listeners (Higgins & Walker, 2012). With the use of hedges, the columnists in a way imply that there is a room for different interpretations and statements are not fully absolute (Hyland, 2005a). That is to say, the columnists do not impose norms and grant freedom to their readers as to adjudicate propositions of the columnists (Mensah et al., 2025). In addition, the columnists utilized hedges to abstain from taking full responsibility for the precision of specific assertions and to demonstrate his eagerness to express some of their utterances meticulously by

means of softening their words (Kashiha, 2022). The columnists also employed hedges with the aim of preserving their credible authoritative image by offsetting their certainty, or authority, and uncertainty, or modest, because it is this kind of balance which makes texts persuasive to the reader (Abusalim et al., 2022; Dafouz, 2003; Dafouz-Milne, 2008). Additionally, the columnists drew on hedges to create solidarity with their readers, given that hedges enable the authors to present their own judgment of the propositions and ideas.

The fourth most frequently employed interactional MDM is attitude markers, in accordance with the findings of our study. Hyland (1998) states that attitude markers are linguistic devices authors use to highlight significant, interesting and unexpected issues and have a persuasive role by means of transmitting authors' evaluation and attitude about the arguments presented in the text. In other words, as Vande Kopple (1985) argues, attitude markers allow authors to demonstrate their attitude about the importance and interest of something and about whether or not it is appropriate. Moreover, attitude markers intensify the persuasive effect of arguments by eliciting solidarity between authors and readers and guides them about how the readers should respond to the material (Hyland, 2005a).

The employment of attitude markers results from genre-driven conventions and cultural preferences. Also, the findings of our study with regard to attitude markers are consistent with previous studies (Banguis, 2023; Dafouz, 2003; Kuhl & Mojood, 2014; Nugroho, 2020). To exemplify, Kuhl & Mojood (2014) claim that the ample employment of attitude markers is an innate feature of newspaper genres, since attitude markers aid the authors in persuading the readers by conveying the authors' evaluation and attitude about the arguments present in the newspapers. Furthermore, in opinion columns, a writer's attitude—their emotion, level of agreement, and sense of connection to both the subject matter and the audience—provides a textual persona that can effectively persuade readers (Dafouz, 2003). In addition, as Banguis (2023) states, attitude markers are utilized in newspapers, given that they allow authors to express explicitly how they feel about the content material which can cause the readers to accept the arguments of the authors in the texts. Because authors mostly share their own point of views and opinion in opinion columns, attitude markers are employed by the columnists with a view to expressing their

attitude about content in texts (Nugroho, 2020). Thereupon, the structure of opinion columns makes it inevitable for opinion columnists to make use of attitude markers.

Turkish society places importance to emotional expression, specifically in public discourse and communication (Wege et al., 2014). Attitude markers enable the authors to emotionally interact with the readers, which appeals to the readers and provide a sense of connection between the authors and the readers (Hyland, 1998, 2005a). Therefore, the columnists use attitude markers to create and maintain a strong connection with the readers by appealing to their emotions.

Opinion columns are designed with the intention of convincing readers regarding the subject presented. In persuading readers, both logic and emotions play a significant role. Attitude markers can evoke some specific emotions by shaping arguments (Hyland, 1998). Indeed, attitude markers can fortify the persuasive side of the opinion columns and using emotional language is an important rhetorical strategy to influence and convince audience (Aristotle, 2007). Hence, it is asserted that the columnists use attitude markers as a rhetorical strategy to escalate the persuasiveness of the opinion columns.

In order to strengthen the persuasiveness of their texts, the columnists appeal to emotions to form solidarity with their readers by drawing them into their arguments in the columns, thereby appealing to *ethos* of reasonable (Hyland, 2005a). The columnists used attitude markers in their columns, given that evaluation might be employed to manipulate the readers, and hence the readers could see things in a specific way (Hunston & Geoff, 2000). The frequent employment of attitude markers conveys the columnists' attitude toward the material and their affection about the content (Liu & Zhang, 2021). By employing attitude markers, the columnists strive for making the readers experience the discourse in the same manner and thus they create and stress a set of reciprocal purposes and understandings (Hyland, 2005a). This is an intentional persuasive strategy employed by the columnists in a bid to demonstrate their opinion or evaluation of a specific subject via emotive expressions (Crismore & Farnsworth, 1989; Ho, 2016; Kashiha, 2022).

The least frequently used interactional MDM in our study is self mentions. Hyland (2005a) states that self mention refers to the degree of explicit authorial involvement in the text and authors cannot abstain from including themselves in the texts and cannot avert their position as regards their arguments. Inasmuch as the presence or absence of explicit authorial reference is a conscious choice by authors to maintain a particular position, self mention impacts the perspective from which their arguments should be interpreted by the readers (Hyland, 2001a).

By adopting an epistemic and attitudinal perspective, authors can affect the degree of engagement with readers via the rhetorical use of self-reference (Hyland, 2023). In fact, self-mentions are the reflections of the authors of the texts and the authors can demonstrate their roles in the discourse, by the use of self-mentions (Kuo, 1999; Hyland 2001). However, as Hyland (2005a) points out, overuse of self-mentions might seem too authoritative.

Jackson (2014) claims that in societies like Turkish, people prefer using ‘we’ identity rather than using ‘I’ identity. Moreover, when the author is from a collectivist culture, s/he abstains from including self in the text (Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999). What is more, Turkish society gives importance to modesty and thus the use of “I” is not motivated in the name of humbleness (Güçlü, 2022; Karahan, 2013). Even some authors make use of *bendeniz* “polite form of saying I or me” in place of *ben* “I or me” to seem less authoritative. As a consequence, it is claimed that the Turkish columnists mostly prefer using “we” more than “I” so that they can adopt a common viewpoint with the readers, instead of dictating their personal opinions to the reader with the greater use of “I”.

The findings of our study as to self-mentions are in line with several previous research (Abdullah et al., 2020; Çapar & Turan, 2020; Moghadam, 2017; Dow Tate & Taylor, 2007). For instance, in their studies, Abdullah et al. (2020) and Moghadam (2017) found that the absence of self-mentions results from the fact that the authors of such articles do not want to appear as self-praising themselves since they want to prioritize informing readers rather than including themselves in the texts. Similar to Turkish opinion writers, Iranian writers, who are from a collectivist society like Türkiye, abstain from mentioning

their self and thus use third person pronoun and passive structures in their writings because of the cultural features of Persian language. Furthermore, frequent use of self-mentions could be too authoritative in Turkish culture (Çapar & Turan, 2020). Too much emphasis on the self might create a more authoritative tone. In addition, while opinion columns provide subjective insights or share personal stories to highlight the columnist's perspective, it is important for readers to feel connected to the content. Therefore, although columnists may use the personal pronoun "I" the writing should not come across as if only the author's perspective matters (Dow Tate & Taylor, 2007). Therefore, it can be asserted that columnists prefer less self-mentions to be less authoritative and refrain from using self-mentions throughout the text.

It is apparent that albeit less frequently, the columnists drew on self-mentions by building *ethos* in order to persuade their readers. The columnists employed self-mentions so as to establish credibility and indicate their presence in the texts (Ho, 2016; Mensah et al., 2025). Moreover, self-mentions were used by the columnists to maintain respect and authoritative image, which is very significant in attaining persuasion in texts (Abusalim et al., 2022). Additionally, self-mentions were employed by the authors to highlight their determinance, and confidence with regard to their their assertions (Liu & Zhang, 2021). All in all, the columnists employed self-mentions for the purpose of convincing the readers as to their assertions in the opinion columns.

In terms of self mention use, it is evident that while Anglophonic cultures (i.e. UK and USA) opt for self-mention markers, Slavic cultures, on the other hand, do not rely on these markers in their writings which is a result of the collectivist nature of these cultures (Walkova, 2018). Similarly, as a collectivist culture Turkish culture employs less self-mention markers.

There are notable differences in textual markers of certainty and uncertainty in terms of culture. In various cultures like Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese, where exaggeration and overstatements are anticipated as rhetorical tools, boosters can signify indirectness, persuasion, along with emphasis and intensity (Hinkel, 2005; Oliver, 1972; Taylor, 1995). Authors from Middle-East mark a degree of certainty with these

markers for the purpose of indicating authority and increasing their credibility while presenting their opinion (Hinkel, 2003). In such cultures, exaggerations and overstatements are a means of showing writers' credibility, proficiency and authority through boosters (Connor, 1996; Hinkel, 2005; Sa'adeddin, 1989; Tsujimura, 1987; Yum, 1987; Zhu, 1996). Furthermore, in these cultures, hedges and understatements are not prioritized; on the contrary, amplification and exaggeration are explicit ways of attaining persuasion in texts (Hinkel, 2005). What is more, Persian authors use boosters more than American counterparts in their writings, since Americans do not prefer to use boosters in large amounts to appear more polite to their readers (Kuhi & Mojood, 2014; Noorian & Biria, 2010). Similarly, English texts include more hedges than Spanish texts as a result of the fact that Anglo-Saxon writers opt for a more dialogic style than others and that their audience is wider than that of Spanish (Lee & Casal, 2014; Mur- Dueñas, 2011).

CONCLUSION

The current study endeavored to reveal the frequencies and functions of interactional MDMs that were used by the authors of opinion columns by means of a detailed analysis of sub-types of each interactional MDM. In addition, the study also attempted to uncover which persuasive appeals were utilized by the columnists in the attainment of persuasion in their columns. In the light of this aforementioned information, this study is based on Hyland's (2005a) interactional model of metadiscourse as the analytical framework. Interactional MDMs have been compiled with the help of findings from other metadiscursive studies conducted on Turkish. A total of 2908 items of interactional MDMs have been found within the corpora which consist of several opinion columns from four different newspapers with different topics, covering a range of topics, including politics, history, geography, psychology and medicine. Quantitative data were analyzed by means of a software called *MAXQDA*. Through this software, both frequencies and types of interactional MDMs were uncovered in order to find how the columnists made use of interactional MDMs in the attainment of persuasion in their opinion columns.

Judging from these aforementioned matters, this chapter succinctly presents answers to the findings of the data analysis section with regard to the following research questions:

- 1) What are the frequencies and functions of interactional MDMs employed in Turkish opinion columns?

Each interactional MDM and their sub-types were found to be used in the opinion columns. This means that metadiscourse is a significant feature of Turkish opinion columns. Moreover, an MDM list, compiled from other Turkish studies, was formed and further additions were made to the integrated to the MDM list that springs from Hyland's (2005a) taxonomy of interactional metadiscourse.

The findings of the study demonstrated that while the authors want to put forward a solid argument, they are also aware of the fact that they must have a persuasive tone to capture the attention of the readers. They do this by the use of these markers. Furthermore, using

these markers in the text enabled the authors to engage with their audience and capture their attention which as a result increased the credibility of the arguments, whilst also boosting the level of persuasiveness. They accomplish this through the use of these markers.

Categories of interactional MDMs which were utilized by the authors in the opinion columns from the most frequently used to the least frequently used ones are as follows: boosters (i.e. amplifiers, modal suffixes indicating certainty, emphatics, universal pronouns), engagement markers (i.e. inclusive “we”, reader pronouns, rhetorical questions, directives, personal asides, appeals to shared knowledge), hedges (i.e. epistemic adjectives, epistemic modal suffixes, epistemic adverbs, pronouns, epistemic lexical verbs), attitude markers (i.e. attitudinal adjectives, attitudinal lexical verbs, attitudinal adverbs, attitudinal verbs, deontic modal suffixes), and self-mentions (i.e. explicit authorial reference). Compared to other interactional MDMs, the authors of the opinion columns utilized boosters more frequently than other MDMs. As a specific genre, opinion columns through the use of boosters present the ideas of the authors and their conviction in the truth of their utterance. Thus, these authors want to appear more confident and authoritative to persuade their readers. Similar to scientific texts, opinion articles utilize a great number of boosters. This in a way originates from *Authoritative Writer* figure in the Turkish journalistic tradition. In Turkish contexts, using language full of hesitation and uncertainty might pose the risk of being perceived as a novice columnist. Therefore, Turkish columnists draw upon boosters frequently to show their authoritative tone and their expertise about what they discuss. From a cultural perspective, in Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean and Vietnamese cultures exaggerations and overstatements are expected in terms of rhetorical devices which is in contrast with Anglophonic cultures (i.e. UK and USA) since they do not opt for employing boosters in large amounts to be more polite to their readers. Instead, Anglophonic cultures mainly make use of hedges.

The second most frequently employed MDM in the corpus is the engagement marker. Opinion columns features a greater interactivity and try to involve more readers into the text as the authors want the readers to follow their columns. Thus, the columnists use

engagement markers to interact with the readers. This makes opinion columns more reader friendly than other text types.

In our data, the third most frequently used MDM is hedges. Although boosters are found nearly twice as frequently as hedges in the corpus, the authors nevertheless employed hedges in an attempt to soften their claims and balance the certainty they boost with the employment of boosters. Hedging is a means of making texts more friendly and more polite. As a matter of fact, to be open to different ideas by readers through hedges can result in a more sympathetic reading and can serve as a method of protection for authors from serious disagreements that they might encounter. Furthermore, columnists can prevent oppositions that might arise against their claims via hedges (Dafouz-Milne, 2008). Also, even the nature of opinion columns makes it inevitable for columnists to make use of hedges. For instance, opinion columns are a reflection of columnists, and once the columnists share their opinions, they may not be fully certain about their claims and hence might try to mitigate the impact of their arguments via hedging. As a consequence, hedges need to be found in opinion columns even because of the features of the genre.

Apart from boosters, engagement markers and hedges, the columnists also drawn upon attitude markers in the opinion columns. Attitude markers is an indispensable feature of newspaper genres in that attitude markers help the authors convince the audience by transmitting the columnists' evaluation and stance about their arguments in the columns. Additionally, a writer's attitude can significantly convince readers, creating a specific textual persona. Therefore, attitude markers are of utmost importance in the attainment of persuasion in the texts. Self-mentions are the least frequently employed interactional MDM in the corpus which can be attributed to the fact that the columnists refrain from showing their authorial presence in texts, since Turkish culture gives importance and incentivizes humbleness. Opinion columns reflect personal opinions of the columnists, yet an excessive use of personal pronouns in the text might create distance between readers and columnists. Therefore, even when columnists use personal pronoun "I", they need to balance its use in order that readers can also feel engaged in the columns.

Nonetheless, albeit less frequently employed interactional MDM, self-mentions play a significant role in the establishment of the authority of the columnists. In contrast with scientific texts where first person pronouns are avoided so as to protect the objectivity of the text, opinion columns can employ them. To wrap up, genre-driven conventions and Turkish culture and Turkish language are the main determinants of how interactional metadiscourse was employed in the opinion columns.

- 2) Which persuasive appeals do columnists draw upon so as to convince their readers in opinion columns?

Interactional metadiscourse performs its persuasive function by appealing to *ethos* and *pathos* which comes from Greek times. Since *ethos* appeals to credibility and character, the columnists highly employed boosters and hedges to balance fact and opinion and to communicate on them in an effective manner in order to show their confidence, determinance and competency about their arguments in the columns. Attitude markers were employed with the aim to strengthen the persuasiveness of their argument while also making up solidarity with the readers by drawing them into their arguments in the columns, thereby appealing to *ethos* of reasonable. Self-mentions were employed by the columnists to show their determinance, and confidence with regard to their their assertions.

The columnists appeal to *pathos* as well to appeal to relational work. They appeal to *pathos* with the aid of engagement markers, and hedges. In an effort to lessen psychological distance from their readers, the columnists used engagement markers, since they help the authors establish a relationship with their audience and make persuasion process easier. The use of hedges allows columnists to avoid imposing rules and gives their readers the flexibility to judge their arguments. The third mode of persuasion is appealing to *logos* (i.e. reason). Nevertheless, since the scope of this study is limited to interactional MDMs, the use of *logos* was not taken into consideration and thus not included within the scope of the study.

The current study makes a significant contribution to the Turkish MDMs studies by shifting the analytical focus of metadiscourse from established academic genres to the under-researched domain of Turkish journalistic discourse. While existing literature has primarily explored interactional markers within academic writing, this research fills a gap by providing a comprehensive, software-assisted analysis of the discursive strategies employed in opinion columns. A primary contribution of this work is the systematic adaptation and expansion of Hyland's (2005a) taxonomy, resulting in a specialized MDM list that accounts for the discourses of the Turkish newspaper language. Furthermore, by synthesizing metadiscourse theory with Aristotelian persuasive appeals, specifically *ethos* and *pathos*, the study offers an elaborated framework for understanding how columnists construct a persona and establish emotional solidarity with their audience.

Despite its contributions, several limitations of the current work must be acknowledged. First, the corpus is restricted to a relatively small dataset consisting of 32 opinion columns authored by 12 selected columnists across four newspapers. Consequently, the findings should be interpreted as a focused exploration of specific linguistic practices rather than a broad generalization across the entirety of the Turkish media landscape. That is to say, the results of this study are limited to newspapers chosen according to circulation. This makes the scope of the current study restricted to four newspapers as corpus. Furthermore, the topical diversity of the corpus presents a potential constraint. The study analyzed texts ranging across various fields, including history, politics, geography, psychology, animal rights, and medicine. Because interactional MDMs usage is often influenced by the specific conventions of the field being investigated, this topical variety may lead to results that do not reflect a single, uniform discursive style. Finally, the study is limited by the variables it did not account for, such as gender and time. The research does not investigate the gender of the authors, which could result in significant differences in the frequency and type of metadiscourse markers employed. Additionally, the study follows a synchronic design; without a diachronic analysis, the results remain a snapshot of a specific period and do not capture long-term linguistic shifts in Turkish journalism.

Based on the findings and the identified limitations of the current study, several future research directions can be proposed to further enrich the literature on Turkish metadiscourse. To enhance the generalizability of these results, subsequent inquiries

should employ larger-scale corpora encompassing a broader spectrum of newspapers and a more diverse range of columnists, thereby providing a more representative overview of the Turkish media landscape. To mitigate the stylistic variations introduced by topical diversity, future researchers might focus on a single subject area, such as history or politics, to isolate how specific disciplinary norms influence metadiscourse usage. Furthermore, incorporating variables such as authorial gender and diachronic linguistic shifts would shed light on the social and longitudinal dimensions of interactional strategies in Turkish journalism. Finally, holistic approaches that analyze both interactional and interactive metadiscourse markers, alongside comparative studies that differentiate between institutional editorial stances and individual rhetorical styles, would offer a more comprehensive understanding of persuasive processes.

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APPENDIX 1: ORIGINALITY REPORT

	HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ	Doküman Kodu Form No.	FRM-YL-15
		Yayın Tarihi Date of Pub.	04.12.2023
	FRM-YL-15 Yüksek Lisans Tezi Orjinallik Raporu Master's Thesis Dissertation Originality Report	Revizyon No Rev. No.	02
		Revizyon Tarihi Rev. Date	25.01.2024

HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ İNGİLİZ DİLBİLİMİ ANABİLİM DALI BAŞKANLIĞINA	
Tarih: 10/02/2026	
Tez Başlığı (Türkçe): Türkçe Gazetelerdeki Köşe Yazılarının Üstsöylemsel Bir Analizi..... Tez Başlığı (Almanca/Fransızca)*:.....	
Yukarıda başlığı verilen tezinin a) Kapak sayfası, b) Giriş, c) Ana bölümler ve d) Sonuç kısımlarından oluşan toplam 135 sayfalık kısmına ilişkin, 10/02/2026 tarihinde şahsım/tez danışmanım tarafından Turnitin adlı intihal tespit programından aşağıda işaretlenmiş filtrelemeler uygulanarak alınmış olan orijinallik raporuna göre, tezinin benzerlik oranı % 9 'dur.	
Uygulanan filtrelemeler*:	
1. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Kabul/Onay ve Bildirim sayfaları hariç 2. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Kaynakça hariç 3. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Alıntılar hariç 4. <input type="checkbox"/> Alıntılar dâhil 5. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 5 kelimeden daha az örtüşme içeren metin kısımları hariç	
Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Tez Çalışması Orijinallik Raporu Alınması ve Kullanılması Uygulama Esasları'nı inceledim ve bu Uygulama Esasları'nda belirtilen azami benzerlik oranlarına göre tezinin herhangi bir intihal içermediğini; aksinin tespit edileceği muhtemel durumlarda doğabilecek her türlü hukuki sorumluluğu kabul ettiğimi ve yukarıda vermiş olduğum bilgilerin doğru olduğunu beyan ederim.	
Gereğini saygılarımla arz ederim.	
Fatih Kara	

Öğrenci Bilgileri	Ad-Soyad	Fatih Kara
	Öğrenci No	N23134769
	Enstitü Anabilim Dalı	İngiliz Dili Bilimi
	Programı	Yüksek Lisans

DANIŞMAN ONAYI

UYGUNDUR.

Doç.Dr.Suhan AKINCI OKTAY

* Tez **Almanca** veya **Fransızca** yazılıyor ise bu kısımda tez başlığı **Tez Yazım Dilinde** yazılmalıdır.

**Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Tez Çalışması Orijinallik Raporu Alınması ve Kullanılması Uygulama Esasları ikinci bölüm madde (4)'3'te de belirtildiği üzere: Kaynakça hariç, Alıntılar hariç/dâhil, 5 kelimeden daha az örtüşme içeren metin kısımları hariç (Limit match size to 5 words) filtreleme yapılmalıdır.

	HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ	Doküman Kodu Form No.	FRM-YL-15
		Yayın Tarihi Date of Pub.	04.12.2023
	FRM-YL-15 Yüksek Lisans Tezi Orijinallik Raporu <i>Master's Thesis Dissertation Originality Report</i>	Revizyon No Rev. No.	02
		Revizyon Tarihi Rev. Date	25.01.2024

TO HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LINGUISTICS	
Date: 10/02/2026	
Thesis Title (In English): A Metadiscourse Analysis of Opinion Columns in Turkish Newspapers	
According to the originality report obtained by myself/my thesis advisor by using the Turnitin plagiarism detection software and by applying the filtering options checked below on 4/12/2025 for the total of 135 pages including the a) Title Page, b) Introduction, c) Main Chapters, and d) Conclusion sections of my thesis entitled above, the similarity index of my thesis is 9 %.	
Filtering options applied**:	
1. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Approval and Declaration sections excluded	
2. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> References cited excluded	
3. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Quotes excluded	
4. <input type="checkbox"/> Quotes included	
5. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Match size up to 5 words excluded	
I hereby declare that I have carefully read Hacettepe University Graduate School of Social 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.	
Kindly submitted for the necessary actions.	
Fatih Kara	

Student Information	Name-Surname	Fatih Kara
	Student Number	N23134769
	Department	English Linguistics
	Programme	Master's Programme

SUPERVISOR'S APPROVAL

APPROVED

Assoc.Prof. Dr. Suhan AKINCI OKTAY

**As mentioned in the second part [article (4)/3]of the Thesis Dissertation Originality Report's Codes of Practice of Hacettepe University Graduate School of Social Sciences, filtering should be done as following: excluding reference, quotation excluded/included, Match size up to 5 words excluded.

APPENDIX 2: ETHICS COMMISSION FORM

	HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ	Doküman Kodu Form No.	FRM-YL-09
		Yayın Tarihi Date of Pub.	22.11.2023
	FRM-YL-09 Yüksek Lisans Tezi Etik Kurul Muafiyeti Formu Ethics Board Form for Master's Thesis	Revizyon No Rev. No.	02
		Revizyon Tarihi Rev.Date	25.01.2024

HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ İNGİLİZ DİLBİLİMİ ANABİLİM DALI BAŞKANLIĞINA	
Tarih:10/02/2026	
Tez Başlığı (Türkçe):Türkçe Gazetelerdeki Köşe Yazılarının Üstsöylemsel Bir Analizi.	
Tez Başlığı (Almanca/Fransızca)*:	
Yukarıda başlığı verilen tez çalışmam:	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. İnsan ve hayvan üzerinde deney niteliği taşımamaktadır. 2. Biyolojik materyal (kan, idrar vb. biyolojik sıvılar ve numuneler) kullanılmasını gerektirmemektedir. 3. Beden bütünlüğüne veya ruh sağlığına müdahale içermemektedir. 4. Anket, ölçek (test), mülakat, odak grup çalışması, gözlem, deney, görüşme gibi teknikler kullanılarak katılımcılardan veri toplanmasını gerektiren nitel ya da nicel yaklaşımlarla yürütülen araştırma niteliğinde değildir. 5. Diğer kişi ve kurumlardan temin edilen veri kullanımını (kitap, belge vs.) gerektirmektedir. Ancak bu kullanım, diğer kişi ve kurumların izin verdiği ölçüde Kişisel Bilgilerin Korunması Kanuna riayet edilerek gerçekleştirilecektir. 	
Hacettepe Üniversitesi Etik Kurullarının Yönergelerini inceledim ve bunlara göre çalışmamın yürütülebilmesi için herhangi bir Etik Kuruldan izin alınmasına gerek olmadığını; aksi durumda doğabilecek her türlü hukuki sorumluluğu kabul ettiğimi ve yukarıda vermiş olduğum bilgilerin doğru olduğunu beyan ederim.	
Gereğini saygılarımla arz ederim.	
Fatih Kara	

Öğrenci Bilgileri	Ad-Soyad	Fatih Kara
	Öğrenci No	N23134769
	Enstitü Anabilim Dalı	İngiliz Dilbilimi
	Programı	Yüksek Lisans

DANIŞMAN ONAYI

UYGUNDUR.

Doç. Dr. Suhan AKINCI OKTAY

* Tez Almanca veya Fransızca yazılıyor ise bu kısımda tez başlığı Tez Yazım Dilinde yazılmalıdır.

	HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ	Doküman Kodu Form No.	FRM-YL-09
	FRM-YL-09 Yüksek Lisans Tezi Etik Kurul Muafiyeti Formu <i>Ethics Board Form for Master's Thesis</i>	Yayın Tarihi Date of Pub.	22.11.2023
		Revizyon No Rev. No.	02
		Revizyon Tarihi Rev.Date	25.01.2024

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LINGUISTICS	
Date:10/02/2026	
Thesis Title (In English) A Metadiscourse Analysis of Opinion Columns in Turkish Newspapers.	
My thesis work with the title given above:	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Does not perform experimentation on people or animals. Does not necessitate the use of biological material (blood, urine, biological fluids and samples, etc.). Does not involve any interference of the body's integrity. Is not a research conducted with qualitative or quantitative approaches that require data collection from the participants by using techniques such as survey, scale (test), interview, focus group work, observation, experiment, interview. Requires the use of data (books, documents, etc.) obtained from other people and institutions. However, this use will be carried out in accordance with the Personal Information Protection Law to the extent permitted by other persons and institutions. 	
I hereby declare that I reviewed the Directives of Ethics Boards of Hacettepe University and in regard to these directives it is not necessary to obtain permission from any Ethics Board in order to carry out my thesis study; I accept all legal responsibilities that may arise in any infringement of the directives and that the information I have given above is correct.	
I respectfully submit this for approval.	
Fatih Kara	

Student Information	Name-Surname	Fatih Kara
	Student Number	N23134769
	Department	English Linguistics
	Programme	Master of Arts

SUPERVISOR'S APPROVAL

APPROVED

Assoc.Prof. Dr. Suhan AKINCI OKTAY

APPENDIX 3: TURKISH METADISCOURSE MARKERS

Turkish metadiscourse markers have been compiled in the light of other studies upon Turkish literature from Akbaş (2012), Akıncı Oktay (2020), Aydın et al. (2023), Aydın Öztürk & İşeri (2023), Algı (2012), Atmaca (2016), Bayyurt (2010), Can & Yuvayapan (2018), Dağ Tarcan (2019, 2024), Demirel Aydemir & Genç (2023), Esmer (2018), Güçlü (2022, 2024, 2025), Hatipoğlu & Algı (2017, 2018), Şen (2019), Şen & İşeri (2023), Önel (2020), Ünsal (2008), Yılmaz & İlerten (2024), Yazıcı & Gündüğü (2023).

BOOSTERS

(i) Amplifiers

Ağırlıklı olarak “mainly”

Asla “never”

Aslında “in fact”

Aşırı “extreme”

Başta “first”

Başta ...olmak üzere “notably”

Baştan aşağı “top to bottom”

Baştan sona “entirely”

Binlerce “thousands”

Bol bol “a lot of”

Böylesine “so”

Bütün “all”

Büyük bir (çelişki/etki) “a great (conflict/influence)”

Büyük oranda “substantially”

Büyük ölçüde “highly”

Çok “a lot”

Çok çok “very much”

Çok daha “much more”

Çok farklı biçimde “in a very different way”

Çok önemli “very important”

Çok tutarsız “very inconsistent”

Çokça “much”

Daha da “even more”

Daha/daha fazla “more”

Daima “always”

Ekstra “extra”

En çok “the most”

Epey “quite”

Epeyce “quite a few”

Fazlaca “much”

Hayli/bir hayli “a lot”

Hep “always”

Her açıdan “from every angle”

Her defasında “each time”

Her derecede “in every degree”

Her konuda “in all matters”

Her ne zaman...-sA “whenever”

Her seferinde “everytime”

Her seviyede “at every level”

Her türlü “all kinds”

Her yer “everywhere”

Her yönden “in every way”

Her zaman “anytime”

Her/herbir “each”

Hiç “none”

Hiçbir “no”

Hiçbir sebeple “for no reason”

Hiçbir suretle/şekilde “by no means”

Hiçbir zaman “never”

Kolaylıkla/kolayca “easily”

Oldukça “increasingly”

Onlarca “dozens”

Öncelikle “principally”

Pek “very”

Sadece “only”

Sayısız “numerous”

Son derece “extremely”

Tam “full”

Tamamen “Completely”

Tüm “all”

Tümüyle “entirely”

Yakından “closely”

Yüz binlerce “hundreds of thousands”

Yüzyıllardır “for centuries”

(ii) Modal suffixes indicating certainty

-Dir “COP-3SG” (in nominal predicate)

-(A/I)r “AOR-3SG”

-mIş+Dir “PRF-COP-3SG”

-mIş+lAr-DIr “PRF-3PL-COP”

-Il-mIş+Dir “PASS+PRF-COP-3SG”

-(y)AcAK+Dir “FUT-COP-3SG”

-mAktA+Dir “IMPF+COP-3SG”

(iii) Emphatics

...apaçıktır “it is obvious that”

...aşıkardır “It is obvious that...”

...muhakkaktır “it is surely that”

Açık (bir) şekilde “clearly”

Açıkça “clearly”

Bariz “obvious”

Belirgin “crystal”

Belirgin bir şekilde “distinctly”

Belli/açık “clear”

Bile “even”

Bilhassa “especially”

Bul- “to find”

Elbette “certainly”

Er ya da geç “soon or later”

Gerçekten “really”

Görül- “to be seen”

Göster- “to show”

Gözlen- “to be observed”

Hakikaten “truly”

Halen “currently”

Hangi durumda bulunursa bulunsun “in any case”

Hatta “even”

Hiç kuşkusuz “no doubt”

İstisnasız bir şekilde “unexceptionally”

Kaçınılmaz olarak “inevitably”

Kanıt- “to prove”

Kesin “definite”

Kesin olarak “definitely”

Kesinleş- “to become definite”

Kesinlikle “definitely”

Kuşkusuz “no doubt”

Net bir şekilde “clear/clearly”

Netleş- “to become clear”

Olsun olmasın “whether or not”

Ortada ol- (açık) “to be obvious”

Ortaya çık- “to show up”

Ortaya kon- “to be revealed”

Ortaya koy- “to reveal”

Özellikle “especially”

Sapta- “to detect”

Sımsıkı “tightly”

Sınırsız olarak “unlimitedly”

Sonuca var- “to come to conclusion”

Sonucuna ulaş- “to conclude”

Suretiyle “by means of”

Şüphesiz “no doubt”

Tek (yolu) “the only” (way)

Tek başına “all by oneself”

Tek tek “one by one”

Temelde “basically”

Tespit et- “to identify”

Vasıtasıyla “by way of”

(iv) Universal pronouns

Bütünü “the whole”

Hepsi “all of it/them”

Her biri “each”

Her insan “every person”

Her ikisi “both”

Herkes “everybody”

Her şey “everything”

Her üçü “each of three”

Hiçbiri “none”

Hiç kimse “no one/anybody”

Hiçbir şey “nothing”

Hepi topu “all of”

Kimse “no one”

Tamamı “all

Tümü “all”

Tüm insanlar “all people”

ENGAGEMENT MARKERS

(i) Inclusive “we”

Biz “we”, first person plural pronoun

Bizi/bize “us”, first person plural object pronouns

Bizim “our”, first person plural possessive pronoun

–(I)mIz, –(I)z, –(I)k, first person plural possessive suffixes

(ii) Reader pronoun

–(I)n/–n(I)z, second person singular/plural suffixes

Sen/siz “you”, second person singular/plural pronouns

(iii) Directives

-*In(Iz)*, imperative suffix (e.g. *Bakınız* “See”)

-*Allm*, imperative suffix (e.g. *Örneğe dikkat edelim* “Let's pay attention to the example”, *bakalım* “Let's see”)

-*sIn*, imperative suffix (e.g. *Bu durumlar göz önünde bulundurulsun* “Let's these situations be taken into consideration”)

...(unutulma)malıdır “it should be (noted) that...”

...-*mAk gerekir ki* “it has to do...”

...(göz önünde bulundurul)malıdır “it should be taken into consideration”

...(-*yI* anlamak) önemlidir “It is important to (understand)”

(iv) Rhetorical questions

e.g. *Haberdar olduğumuz şeyleri biz mi seçiyoruz yoksa birileri seçip önümüze mi koyuyor?* “Do we choose what we are informed about, or does someone else choose and put them in front of us?”

e.g. *Siz olmasanız bu evde bir dakika durmam*” da demiyorsunuz değil mi? “You don't say "I wouldn't stay in this house for a minute if it weren't for you", do you?”

e.g. *Hukuk bazen davaları çözmek değil, çözümsüz bırakmak üzerine kurulu olduğu için bu tür davalar yanıtı verilmemiş sorular yumağına dönüştürülüyor olamaz mı?* “Is it not possible that, because law occasionally relies on leaving cases unresolved instead of providing solutions, these cases result in numerous unanswered questions?”

(v) Personal asides

The employment of paranthesis ()

e.g. Bunlara yüklenen uygulamalar sayesinde şimdi herkes **(aynı oranda olmasa da)** eskisinden daha zeki hale gelmiştir. “Thanks to the applications installed on them, everyone has now become smarter than before **(though not all to the same degree).**”

e.g. Mâhut merkez-çevre (center-periphery) çatışmaları tam da bunu ifâde eder. **(Araya etnik veyâ mezhebî deęişkenlerin girmesi esasa karşılık gelmez. Olsa olsa tamamlayıcıdır).** “The so-called center-periphery conflicts express exactly this. **(The introduction of ethnic or sectarian variables does not correspond to the essence. At best, it is complementary).**”

(vi) Appeals to shared knowledge

Not found within the study.

HEDGES

(i) Epistemic adjectives

... kadar “as...as”

...gibi “like a...”

-A açık “-able”

-A doğru “towards the...”

-A yakın “close to”

Bazı “some”

Belirsiz “uncertain”

Bir grup “a group of”

Bir takım “some”

Birçok “many”

Birkaç “a few”

Çoęu “most”

Fazla (Diğetine oranla) “more (compared to the other)”

Göreceli “relative”

Herhangi bir “any”

İzafi “relative”

Kimi “some”

Muğlak “dubious”

Muhtemel “likely”

Mümkün “probable”

Olanaklı “possible”

Olası “possible”

Pek çok “most”

Şu ya da bu “this of that”

Türlü/çeşitli “various”

(ii) Epistemic adverbs

-(A/I)r gibi “like...”

(A/I)rcAsInA/-mIşçAsInA “as if”

..gibi görün- “to look like”

Adeta “almost”

Aşağı yukarı

Az “little”

Az çok “more or less”

Bazen “sometimes”

Belki/belki de “maybe”

Benzer bir şekilde “in a similar way”

Bir miktar “some”

Bir nebze “a bit”

Bir nevi “a kind of”

Bir o kadar “just as much”

Bir ölçüde “to some extent”

Büyük ihtimalle “most likely”

Büyük ölçüde “highly”

Çoğunlukla “generally”

Çok “many”

Çok fazla ...-mAmAkta “not too many”

-DIĞI gibi “just like...”

Dönem dönem “from time to time”

Elverdiği ölçüde “to the extent allowed”

Genellikle “generally”

Hemen/hemen hemen “almost”

Kısmen “partially”

-mİş gibi görün- “pretend to...”

Muhtemelen “probably”

Neredeyse “almost”

Ortalama olarak “on average”

sanki)... - (y)mİş gibi “as if”

Sık sık “often”

Sıkça “frequently”

Sürekli “continually”

Sürekli olarak “always”

Takribi “roughly”

Tıpkı ... -DIĞI gibi “just like...”

Yaklaşık “approximately”

Yer yer “sometimes”

Yok denecek kadar az “hardly any”

Zaman zaman “from time to time”

(iii) Pronouns

Bazısı/bazıları “some”

Bir çoğunluğu “majority”

Bir kısmı/bölümü “some”

Bir şey/ler “something”

Birçoğu “many”

Birey “individual”

Biri “someone”

Çoğu “many”

Çoğunluğu “many”

Her biri “each one”

Herhangi biri “anyone”

İnsan “one”

Kimi “some”

Kişi “person”

Şey “thing”

-(*I*)*k*, -(*I*)*z*, first person plural suffixes

-(*I*)*mIz*, first person plural possessive suffix

(iv) Epistemic modal suffixes

-(*A/I*)*r* “AOR-3SG”

-*DIr* (in nominal sentence) “COP-3SG”

-(*y*)*AcAk+DIr* “FUT-COP-3SG”

-*mIş+DIr* “PRF-COP-3SG.”

Ol+mAll “AUX-OBLG-3SG”

-*mAll+DIr* “OBLG-COP-3SG”

Ol+mAll+DIr “AUX-OBLG-COP-3SG”

-*mIş ol+mAll+DIr* “PRF AUX-OBLG-COP-3SG”

-(*I*)*yor ol+mAll+DIr* “IMPF AUX-OBLG-COP-3SG”

-*AcAk ol+mAll+DIr* “FUT AUX-OBLG-COP-3SG”

-(*y*)*Abil+-(A/I)r* “PSB-AOR-3SG”

-(*I*)*l/(I)n+Abil+-(A/I)r* “PASS+PSB-AOR-3SG”

-(*I*)*yor ol+Abil+Ir/lAr* “IMPF AUX-PSB-AOR-3SG/3PL”

-*mIş ol+Abil+Ir/lAr* “PF AUX-PSB-3SG/3PL”

-(*I*)*yor ol+sun* “IMPF AUX-COND-3SG”

-*mIş ol+mAll* “PF AUX-OBLG-3SG”

Olsa gerek “must be”

(v) Epistemic lexical verbs

...gibi algıla- “to perceive as”

Algıla- “to perceive”

Belir- “to appear”

Belirt- “to state”

Benzerlik göster- “to show similarity”

Çıkarsa- “to infer”

Destekle- “to back up”

Düşün- “to think”

Fark et- “to notice”

Görün-/gözük- “to seem”

İddia et-/iddiasında bulun- “to claim”

İleri sür- “to assert”

İmkan tanı- “to allow”

İnan- “to believe”

İste- “to want”

Kanaatinde ol- “to consider”

Kavra- “to understand”

-MAyA çalış- “to try to...”

-mİş görün- “to seem as if”

Mümkün ol- “to be possible”

Olanak sağla- “to enable”

Öner- “to suggest”

Öngör- “to foresee”

San- “to suppose”

Savun- “to support”

Tavsiye et- “to extol”

Varsay- “to assume”

Yadsı- “to deny”

Yaklaşım/tavır sergile- “to display an attitude”

Yorumla- “to interpret”

Passive voice (e.g. *-Il* and *-In* suffixes)

ATTITUDE MARKER

(i) Attitudinal adjectives

Absürd “absurd”

Ağır “serious”

Akla uygun “plausible”

Alaycı “cynical”

Basit “simple”

Bedbin “pessimistic”

Belirsizlikten uzak “free from uncertainty”

Birincil “primary”

Boş “null”

Büyük “big”

Cesur “brave”

Ciddi “serious”

Çekici “attractive”

Çetin “tough”

Değişik “unusual”

Derin “profound”

Eleştirel “critical”

Elverişli “convenient”

Engin “vast”

Esas “basic”

Estetik “aesthetic”

Eşsiz “unique”

Etkin “effective”

Geçersiz “invalid”

Geniş “large”

Gerçekçi “realistic”

Girift “complicated”

Gizemli “enigmatic”

Güzel “beautiful”

Hain “traitor”

Hayati “vital”

İçten “sincere”

İkincil “circumstantial”

İleri “further”

İlginç “interesting”

İlkel “primitive”

İyi “good”

Karmaşık “complicated”

Kendine has “idiosyncratic”

Keskin “sharp”

Kolay “easy”

Kusursuz “impeccable”

Küçük “small”

Makul “reasonable”

Mantıklı “logical”

Meşhur “prominent”

Mistik “mystic”

Mükemmel “perfect”

Müstehzi “sarcastic”

Olağanüstü “extraordinary”

Orijinal “original”

Öncelikli “privileged”

Özel “special”

Özgün “Original”

Parlak “shiny”

Pragmatik “pragmatic”

Radikal “radical”

Saçma “absurd”

Sade “simple”

Sağlam “durable”

Samimi “sincere”

Seçkin “distinguished”

Sert “hard”

Sıcak “hot”

Sığ “shallow”

Sıra dışı “extraordinary”

Süssüz “unadorned”

Şiddetli “intense”

Takdire şayan “admirable”

Tartışmaya açık “open to discussion”

Temel “basic”

Ters “opposite”

Uygun “appropriate”

Uzun “long”

Üstün “Superior”

Vahşi “wild”

Yalın “simple”

Yenilikçi “innovator”

Yerinde “plausible”

Yerinde “suitable”

Yoğun “intense”

Yüce “supreme”

Yürekli “audacious”

Yüzeysel “superficial”

Zengin “rich”

Zor “Difficult”

(ii) Attitude adverbs

Allahtan “fortunately”

Alternatif olarak “alternatively”

Anlaşılır şekilde “understandably”

Asıl olarak “mainly”

Çok güçlü bir şekilde “very strongly”

Çok şükür “fortunately”

Dikkatle “carefully”

Dikkatlice “attentively”

Doğru (değerlendir-) “(to evaluate) correctly”

Dolaylı olarak “relatively”

En azından “at least”

Etkileşimli olarak “interactively”

Etkili bir şekilde “effectively”

Etkin bir biçimde “effectively”

Etraflıca “thoroughly”

Faal bir şekilde “actively”

Farklı şekilde “in a different way”

Gizli bir şekilde “confidentially”

Güzel (konuş-) “(to speak) well”

İkna edici şekilde “convincingly”

İnandırıcı bir biçimde “convincingly”

İnşallah “hopefully”

Kapsamlı bir biçimde “comprehensively”

Kolaylıkla “easily”

Korkunç şekilde “awesomely”

Kusursuzca “flawlessly”

Kuvvetle “strongly”

Mecburen “compulsorily”

Miskince “slothfully”

Net olarak “precisely”

Neyse ki “fortunately”

Özenle “Carefully”

Özenle “carefully”

Rahatça “easily”

Tarafsız olarak “objectively”

Tüm çıplaklığıyla “in all its nakedness”

Ustaca/ustalıkla “skillfully”

Uygun bir şekilde “appropriately”

Yoğun bir şekilde “intensely”

Yoğun olarak “intensely”

Zorunlu olarak “necessarily”

(iii) Attitudinal verbs

Başarılı ol- “to be successful”

Başar- “to succeed”

Beklen- “to be expected”

Cesurca davran- “to brave out”

Dikkat çek- “to take attention”

Düşün- “to think”

Empoze et- “to impose”

Etkisini göster- “to show the effect of”

Göze çarp- “to draw the attention”

Hisset-/hissettir- “to feel/to make feel”

-In yanlışına düş- “to be on the wrong track”

Kolaylık sağla- “to make it easy”

Korku ver-/dehşet ver- “to frighten”

Öne çık- “to become prominent”

Önem arz et- “to matter”

Önem kazan- “to gain importance”

Önem taşı- “to matter”

Önem ver- “to care”

Öneril- “to be recommended”

Umut et-/um- “to hope”

Yeğle- “to prefer”

İlgi uyandır- “to arouse interest”

Dayat- “to dictate”

Tercih et- “to prefer”

(iv) Deontic modal suffixes

-mAlI “OBLG”

(v) Deontic lexical verbs

-(y)A ihtiyaç var/ihtiyaç duy- “to need”

Gereksinim ol-/duy-/bulun- “to need”

Gerektir- “to require”

-mAk gerek- “have to”

-mAm gerek “I have to”

-mAsI gerek- “it has to”

-mAk zorunda ol- “have to”

-sI lazım “it has to”

Zorunlu kıl-/zorunda bırak- “to oblige”

SELF-MENTIONS

(i) Explicit authorial references

-(I)m, first person singular suffix

Ben “I”

Bendeniz “Polite form of saying I and me”

Kulunuz “Polite form of saying I and me”

Köleniz “Polite form of saying I and me”

Hizmetkarımız “Polite form of saying I and me”

(ii) Implicit authorial references

Not found within the study.

APPENDIX 4: REFERENCES OF THE SELECTED OPINION COLUMNS

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APPENDIX 5: CIRCULATION RATES OF NEWSPAPERS

The following illustrates the top 10 most read newspapers in 2024 with respect to Media Monitoring Center.



Medya Takip Merkezi
Media Monitoring & Analysis

ÇÖZÜMLER ▾

HİZMETLER ▾

HAKKIMIZDA ▾

İLETİŞİM

15 Ocak - 21 Ocak 2024 Gazetelerin Tirajları

*Sabah - 112.211
*Hürriyet - 107.978
*Sözcü - 104.168
*Akşam - 101.488
*Türkiye - 101.393
*Milliyet - 101.347
*Posta - 59.785
*Takvim - 53.060
*Y. Akit - 52.768
*Y. Şafak - 50.617
*Yeni Asır - 50.435
*Korkusuz - 38.552

