The Exploration of Metadiscourse Markers in The National University Debating Championship (NUDC) and Its Pedagogical Implications

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ABSTRACT
This study attempts to scrutinize metadiscourse markers in the debate competition to see to what extent and how metadiscourse markers are constructed in this genre. The researchers analyzed the Novice Grandfinals of the National University Debating Championship (NUDC) 2021 using Ilie's (2003) metadiscourse in parliamentary debates as the primary theoretical framework due to its relevance and Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse markers as the complementary theory to identify the frequency and persuasive function of interactional and interactive metadiscourse devices used. The findings revealed that debaters used all types of Ilie's (2003) and Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse models and also utilized all kinds of metadiscourse markers to represent themselves as a part of the parliamentary members who must deliver arguments logically and critically.

Keywords: metadiscourse markers, spoken discourse, debate competition

INTRODUCTION

A debate is an activity whereby speakers construct structured arguments to persuade people to believe them. It can be done individually or in groups (Freeley & Steinberg, 2013). In presenting an argument, speakers must be aware of several points, such as the theme, the purpose, and the content (Istiani & Puspita, 2020). A debate has linguistic features in which it frequently uses transitions or persuasive phrases to make its argument clear and engaging. A debate usually applied AREL structure which stands for Assertion, Reason, Evidence, and Link Back. AREL is used to build cohesive and logical structures of the core of the argument.

Building an argument in a debate is not easy for EFL learners, as English is not their first language. In addition to having good communicaton skills, debaters also need to have the ability to convey well structured and coherent arguments to engage audiences. Van Ginkel et al. (2015) argued that speakers must be able to not only communicate but aslo to connect arguments. Debating skills such as oral presentation we would argue are necessary both for employability and academic study. This is because these areas encourage students to engage in sustained reasoning (Xu et al., 2021). Other scholars, presenting effective oral presentation, a part of debate skills, also reflects critical twenty-first century skills (Belaman et al., 2022).

From a linguistic point of view, a debate can be analyzed from a metadiscourse perspective. Ilie (2003) argues that debate as an oral metadiscourse is "a set of rhetorically structured communicative and interactional strategies used by the speakers to signal, highlight, mitigate, and cancel parts of their on-going discourse and their varying relevance to different audience members" (p.71). This scholar further highlights that metadiscursively, parliamentary debate helps to understand simple, double or multiple messages from speaker(s) to audiences in the parliament.

Looking at metadiscourse in a different context, a debate competition, we wish to investigate the types and functions of debaters' metadiscourse markers used when debating. Metadiscourse is one of the standard linguistic devices that play a pivotal role in helping addressers show their stance toward a proposition, build a cohesive speech, negotiate meaning with the audience, and pull them into arguments (Kashiha, 2022). To Ilie (2003), metadiscourse markers are markers to denote a change in discourse levels, in which the speaker simultaneously conveys multilayered messages, such as "alongside," "above," and "beyond" the discourse while it is developing. Meanwhile, Hyland (2005) argued that metadiscourse is an endeavor to direct audiences toward a writer or speaker's message and guide them through the text/ speech using various linguistic items. These definitions suggest that metadiscourse markers contribute in constructing a good argument.

Earlier studies have conducted metadiscourse studies in various foci, both in written or spoken academic and non-academic contexts. Tabrizi (2017), Lotfi, Sarkeshikian, and Saleh (2019) conducted metadiscourse markers in written text. In spoken context, Sukma (2017), Albalat-Mascarell and Carrió-Pastor (2019), Anggraini and Effrianti (2020), Kashiha (2022), and Balog (2022) focus on examining metadiscourse markers in political speech. Other scholars, Kuswoyo and Siregar (2019) investigated metadiscourse markers in a business presentation. El-Masry (2020) examined the use of metadiscourse in the UNICEF speech by David Beckham and

Bobby Brown. Kashiha (2021; 2022) and also Zahro et al. (2021) carried out a comparative study of metadiscourse markers. Furthermore, the researchers found that a study that focuses on a debate, such as Istiani and Puspita (2020) and Ilmi and Degaf (2020), also has similarities in the debate field but in different contexts.

Tabrizi (2017) investigates the use of metadiscourse markers in a sales contract written in English and Persian. The findings revealed that American writers tend to use interactional metadiscourse, while Iranian used interactive metadiscourse. Regarding this results, American were more interested in explicitly commenting and evaluating the sales contract. In contrast, Iranian writers managed the information flow to guide readers through the text as a linguistic element. In conclusion, Americans are more to the point while Iranians are not. Lotfi, Sarkeshikian, and Saleh (2019) compared the use of metadiscourse markers in an argumentative essay by Iranian and Chinese EFL learners with different L1 and cultural backgrounds. The result indicated that both Iranian and Chinese groups used all subtypes of interactional in their writings. From this study, we can learn that students' first language and culture impact their use of metadiscourse markers.

In spoken context, Sukma (2017), Anggraini and Effrianti (2020) discovered that all interpersonal metadiscourse marker classifications were used by political figures such as Barack Obama and Indonesia's Minister for Foreign Affairs in their speech. The results showed that both studies tried to build an emotional bond with their audience as their persuasive strategy. On the other hand, Balog (2022) found that Queen Elizabeth II values audience participation by using many interactional metadiscourse markers in her speeches to involve her audiences in the speech and build relationship with them.

Kashiha (2022) examined Obama's political speeches' metadiscourse markers' persuasive power. The findings suggest that metadiscourse is crucial to political persuasion and speech organization. The three studies above have something in common, that is, they examine the speech of political public figures. However, they have differences in terms of speech delivery strategies.

Other studies conducted by Kuswoyo and Siregar (2019) examined metadiscourse in business presentations. They examined interpersonal metadiscourse markers in Steve Jobs' oral business presentation. The findings demonstrated that Steve Jobs tried to engage audiences to understand the topic. El-Masry (2020) investigated how David Beckham and Millie Bobby Brown's UNICEF speeches used metadiscourse markers to persuade. The findings suggest Beckham and Brown use rational appeal. Brown uses more affective metadiscourse markers than Beckham. In interviews with Brown, thirteen data points show it on ten affective appeals like "scared," "helpless," and "insecure," while Beckham has only three. This data shows how women use emotion to attract attention. Meanwhile men tend to use logical thinking to obtain attraction.

Several studies compared metadiscourse markers across data types. Albalat-Mascarell and Carrió-Pastor (2019) examined how Democrats and Republicans used self-mentions in 2016 US presidential debates. 'I' was the most common self-referential pronoun. The former emphasizes her political career, while the latter emphasizes his personal and business accomplishments to gain credibility and votes. The findings indicates that both Democrats and

Republicans use "I" as their self-referential pronoun, but have distinction in terms of boasting their pride. Zahro et al. (2021) examined metadiscourse markers in Indonesian EFL students. They compared written and spoken metadiscourse markers. In both domains, researchers used interactive markers more than interactional markers They conclude that , Indonesian EFL students prefer connecting and emphasizing arguments over showing participation.

Kashiha (2021) examined metadiscourse markers in monologic and dialogic seminars. Metadiscourse markers in both languages were compared. The results showed that seminars had more hedges while discussions had more self-mentions. It suggests that in seminars, speakers focus on providing evidences and presumption related to topic being discussed. On the other hand, in discussions section, speakers tend to use self-mention to refer themselves as part of the discussions. In the following study, Kashiha (2022) examined audience orientation metadiscourse markers in academic and political speech. Because the lecturers must interact with students and build relationships while delivering information, they are found to more likely to use metadiscourse markers. The researcher revealed that an audience can affect the speaker's language. Lecturers used metadiscourse markers frequently in class.

Istiani and Puspita (2020) examined the use of metadiscourse markers in the debate field. They investigated the uses of interactional metadiscourse markers in the Bloomberg International Debate. The findings indicated no hedges, only boosters, attitude markers, self-mention used by debaters, or engagement markers during the analysis process. In this case, debaters/speakers probably expect to build a relationship with audiences. Thus, debaters/speakers refrain from deliberately engaging with them.

On the other hand, Ilmi and Degaf (2020) also studied the rhetorical strategy used by speakers in interfaith debates. The findings denoted that the speakers employed all categories of rhetorical techniques in the presentation session. It indicates that the speakers try to persuade the audience, support their arguments, and strengthen them. Furthermore, rhetorical techniques can even change the listener's perspective and beliefs. Ilie (2015) examined parliamentary debate and discovered several notable points. She contended that a parliamentary debate is a formal discussion with (sometimes contentious) exchanges of ideas that aims to help the chamber, in general, to make rational decisions on specific topics. Some parliamentary discourses allow for unplanned interruptions, such as the UK, and those that do not, such as the Greek parliament. The rules of the UK parliament apply to the current study's debate competition, in which MP (Member of Parliament) fellows are permitted to intervene if they disagree with the views expressed by other MPs. These studies also examined metadiscourse markers in debate fields. However, both have different domain of debates such as interfaith debate and parliamentary debate. These have inspired us to do a research on Englsih debate competition.

Above all, previous studies have presented various findings related to using metadiscourse markers in both written and spoken contexts. None of the previous studies investigated metadiscourse markers in debate competitions among Indonesian higher education contexts. Hence, it becomes an intriguing topic to be investigated since metadiscourse markers almost always appear in a speaker's speech.

Metadiscourse is a powerful means by which the speaker constructs social and interpersonal relations with the audience as a discourse participant. The present study wants to reveal that the choice of linguistic form and meanings is genre-related and characterized by the type of interaction between the participants. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the types of metadiscourse and explain how debaters use metadiscourse to construct their stance in the NUDC 2021 debate competition.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The present study employs Ilie's (2003) and Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse model. The researcher used Ilie's (2003) as the leading theory since it is relevant to the object of the present study, parliamentary debate competition. Meanwhile, Hyland's (2005) is the second complementary theory to investigate the frequency and persuasive function of the interactive and interactional metadiscourses used.

Metadiscourse in The Context of Debate
There are various types of debates such as presidential, interfaith, parliamentary, and so on. The model of debate competition in this study is a parliamentary debate. Thus, the name of each participant is related to the parliament. Ilie (2003) contends that Parliamentary debates shaped individual interventions by assumptions about each other's mental representations of the world, cognitive experience, ideological background, and emotional involvement. Parlimentary debate is a form of institutional discourse features which exhibits the speakers' use of metadiscourse. Ilie (2003), writers or speakers used metadiscourse to indicate a shift in discourse levels by which the speaker's multilevel messages are conveyed concurrently with the unfolding discourse, namely "alongside," "above," and "beyond."

Rethorical Appeals
Metadiscursive statements frequently emphasize the speakers' professional and public image rather than their political positions and arguments. Theoretically and practically, it is necessary to distinguish three significant components of a rhetorically tailored message to examine and evaluate the rhetorical strategies underpinning parliamentary metadiscourse: *logos*, *ethos*, and *pathos*. These three elements are actualized in rhetorical appeals. Rhetorical appeals to logos are also known as rational appeals (or logical appeals). Ethical appeals are another term for rhetorical appeals to ethos. Rhetorical appeals to pathos are also known as emotional appeals (or pathetic appeals).

Metadiscursive Utterances
Metadiscursive utterances help to situate the perspectives of their utterers concerning their own (present and past) discourse, their interlocutor's discourse, and other interactants' discourse. This aspect has significant implications for metadiscourse's discursive and rhetorical functions. Furthermore, it has crucial implications for metadiscourse's discursive and rhetorical functions. There are two types of metadiscursive utterances: *inserted* and *embedded* parliamentary metadiscourse.

Ilie (2003) stated that *inserted* parliamentary metadiscourse could occur in three prominent positions, namely

1. utterance-initial, when it occurs initially in the utterance,

2. utterance-medial, when it occurs in the middle of the utterance, and

3. utterance-final, when it occurs at the end of the utterance.

In contrast to the inserted parliamentary metadiscourse, *embedded* parliamentary metadiscursive statements can be simple or complex. They can also serve as a strategy for correlation and interaction between discursive and metadiscursive levels and between different metadiscursive levels.

Parliamentary Metadiscursive Strategies
Metadiscursive utterances help negotiate and re-negotiate interactant positions and commitments in parliamentary debates because speakers, hearers, and third parties co-construct meaning. Metadiscursive statements may be delivered through utterances that occur as part of or in response to the discourse sequence or through intentional utterances in the middle of a discursive sequence. There are two categories of metadiscursive strategies: *attribution* strategy and *reporting* and *quoting* strategy.

Attribution strategy is a part of argumentative ability to reinterpret and dismantle another person's claim (Bonaiuto & Fasulo, 1997) an attribution strategy may predict or assume the agreement of the interlocutor and the audience such as "We all know," "We all know too well," "everybody agrees that," "the Hon. Gentleman will surely agree that," and so on (Ilie, 2003, p.87).

Other metadiscursive strategy, *reporting* and *quoting* are done by framing quoted speech alongside speaker comments with metadiscursive verbs, speakers can both voice the quoted speakers and express their attitude toward those speakers. The following is an example (Ilie, 2003, p.88):

Mr. Damian Green (Con): We all know that, when the Secretary of State was in opposition, she said: "Perhaps he" — the then Secretary of State for Social Security – "does not realize that, when people move from being in a couple to being a lone mother, they become worse, not better, off." - [Official Report, 28 November 1996; Vol. 286, c. 501.] I am sure the right hon. Lady remembers that quote [. . .] (Hansard Debates, 27 February 1998)

Complementary to our understanding of metadiscourse by Ilie (2003), the following we discuss metadiscourse markers by Hyland (2005).

Metadiscourse Markers
Hyland (2005) defined metadiscourse as "the cover term for the *self-refelexive expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings* in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as a specific community" (p. 37, emphasis added). Hyland and Tse (2004) describe metadiscourse as *textual elements* that actualize writer-reader interaction. This may help the reader or listener understand the main message. Thus, metadiscourse in their text can strengthen their relationship.

Hyland (2005) classified metadiscourse into two categories, interactive and interactional metadiscourse. *Interactive metadiscourse* represents the speaker's strategy for controlling information on propositional claims. This marker guides and persuades audiences to understand the proposed claims (Hyland, 2005). *Interactional metadiscourse*, used by readers/speakers to engage audiences by letting them interpret and analyze the material (Hyland, 2005).

Interactive Metadiscourse

Hyland (2005) argued that interactive metadiscourse deals with the author's commitment to creating explicit content and involving readers by allowing them to respond, interpret, and evaluate the materials. This function encourages the reader to join the author in the writing process. The following are the category, function, and examples of the interactive metadiscourse.

Table 1
Model of Interactive Metadiscourse

Interactive Metadiscourse		
Category	**Function**	**Examples**
Transition Markers	Show semantics relationship between the main clauses	In addition, but, therefore, so, and, etc
Frame Markers	Refer to the text stages explicitly	Finally, first, second, next, etc
Endophoric Markers	Refer to other parts of the text for information	as has been stated, noted above
Evidentials	As information resources	According to X or Y, cite, quotes, X states
Code Glosses	Help the reader understand ideational content meanings	Namely, such as, for example, i.e, in fact

- **Transition markers:** Hyland (2005) divides Transition Markers into three sub-types: addition, comparison, and consequence, which function in external and internal relationships.

- **Frame markers:** This category of metadiscourse markers helps audiences understand the flow of the speech by providing signals such as label, sequence and argument shift, and prediction (Hyland, 2005).

- **Endophoric markers:** Endophoric markers help readers or speakers identify other vital points in the text.

- **Evidentials:** This element helps to establish the author's authorial command and to lead the readers' understanding (present a reliable source).

- **Code Glosses:** When using Code-glosses, writers or speakers must provide additional information or predictions to ensure their audience or readers understand.

Interactional Metadiscourse

Interactional metadiscourse explains how the author conveys his thoughts to the reader. As a result, the author invites the reader to participate in his or her in their thoughts. Hyland (2005) emphasized that interactive metadiscourse will assist the reader in understanding how a work relates to a different context. For Hyland, the text will connect the reader and the author. The following are the category, function, and examples of the interactional metadiscourse.

Table 2
Model of Interactional Metadiscourse

Interactional Metadiscourse		
Category	**Function**	**Examples**
Hedges	Withhold the full commitment of the writer to the statement	Almost, perhaps, might, maybe
Boosters	Emphasize the strength of the writer's certainty in the message	In fact, obviously, it is known that
Attitude Markers	Express the writer attitude to the content of the text	Unfortunately, surprisingly, agree, disagree
Self-mentions	An explicit reference to the author (s)	I, we, me, our
Engagement	Creating an explicit relationship to the reader	You know, as you can see, frankly

- **Hedges:** Hedges provides insight into the writer/commitment speakers within the text. Hasanah & Wahyudi (2015) explained the usually used as hedges are: (1) Modal auxiliary verbs; (2) Modal lexical verbs doubting and evaluating rather than merely describing; (3) Probability adjectives; (4) Nouns; (5) Adverbs; (6) Approximators of degree; (7) Introductory phrases; (8) "If" clause, such as if true, if anything; (9) Compound hedges (Adapted from http://www.bbk.ac.uk/front-page).

- **Booster:** Boosters help to persuade the reader/audience by writing or speaking confidently about them. There are three types of boosters: universal and negative pronouns, amplifiers, and emphatics.

- **Attitude Markers:** This type helps us express our attitude or emotional orientation toward referential material. This attitude is typically associated with the level of desirability we assign to situations described by the referential material.

- **Self-mentions:** Regarding first-person pronouns (I, we) and possessive adjectives, self-mentions extend the *author's presence* and *participation in a text* (mine, me, our, etc.). These elements are used to represent the writer/ speaker's self-representation.

- **Engagement:** These markers address the audience directly (you, your, yourself). The purpose of using this device is to directly involve the audience in the discourse and emphasize their presence in the text by treating them as participants in an argument with the audience.

METHODOLOGY

This study examine the types of metadiscourse markers and how debaters used them during the NUDC 2021 debate competition. The researchers explained in detail why specific words or phrases are included in either interactional or interactive metadiscourse markers. The researcher then interpreted and classified the metadiscourse markers following Ilie (2003) and Hyland (2005).

The primary instrument in the present study is the researcher herself (Xu & Storr, 2012). The researcher collected and observed the data from a YouTube video of spoken discourse (https://youtu.be/FPlSNP6X4RM). This video depicts the English debate competition in the NUDC 2021 novice grand finals. This competition was held via Zoom on August 29, 2021, and the results were posted on the same day on the Pusat Prestasi Nasional YouTube channel. The debate competition followed the British Parliamentary system, which categorizes debates into four categories: Opening Government, Opening Opposition, Closing Government, and Closing Opposition.

Opening Government (OG) Prime Minister & Deputy Prime Minister	**Opening Opposition (OO)** Leader & Deputy Leader of Oppostion
Closing Government (CG) Member of Government & Government Whip	**Closing Opposition (CO)** Member of Opposition & Opposition Whip

Figure 1: British parliamentary system

In the British Parliamentary system, the order of the debaters to speak is as follows:

Prime Minister → Leader of Opposition → Deputy Prime Minister → Deputy Leader of Opposition →

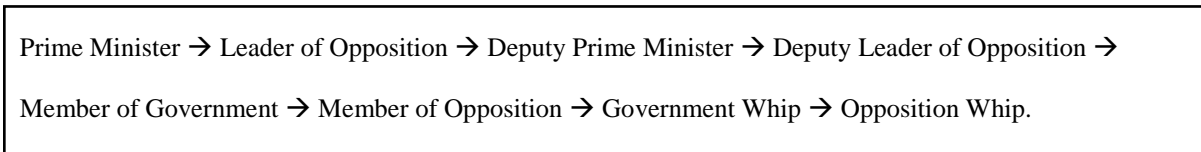Member of Government → Member of Opposition → Government Whip → Opposition Whip.

Figure 2: The illustration of debater's speaking order

As can be seen, speaking is the order of crossing over. As a result, two people in a group do not immediately take turns speaking but instead wait until one of the other group members speaks. After classifying the data according to Ilie (2003) and Hyland (2005), the researcher rechecks the categorization to ensure accuracy. The researcher then investigates how EFL debate competitors used metadiscourse markers to engage and communicate with their audiences.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The present study examines the type of metadiscourse and how debaters construct their arguments using metadiscourse markers. These markers are powerful tools for persuading listeners to agree with them. Thus, understanding the most common types of the metadiscourse markers is crucial to understanding how debaters build their arguments. We found 45 metadiscourse items in Ilie's (2003) metadiscourse model, including rhetorical appeals, metadiscursive utterances, and metadiscursive strategy. We also revealed that rhetorical appeals frequently appear in every debater's argument, starting from *logos, ethos,* and *pathos*. Using Hyland's (2005) category of metadiscourse model, interactive metadiscourse markers account for 604 or 54.5% of total cases, while interactional metadiscourse markers account for 503 or 45.4%. Our further discussion for each example demonstrates why speakers prefer interactive to interactional metadiscourse markers.

Metadiscourse in Parliamentary Debate Competition
To set up the context, the following is the motion of the NUDC 2021 debate.

Motion: THBT (this house believes that) Indonesian environmental activists should significantly aim for positions in the government (such as regional heads, jobs in ministries, legislators.) as opposed to in corporations (shareholders, upper management, consultant).

This motion presents as a protest from the source of environmental damage, which then places a choice on environmental activists to have positions in government rather than corporations. Environmental activists can enact regulations to prevent long-term environmental damage if they gain political power. Meanwhile, if environmental activists choose to work for a corporation, their perspectives will differ as corporations are profit-oriented rather than environmentally oriented.

The following table shows metadiscourse markers following Ilie's (2003) categorization.

Table 3
The result of metadiscourse markers in debate

No	Metadiscourse Markers	Category	Quantity
1	Rethorical Appeals	Rethorical logos	15
		Rethorical ethos	11
		Rethorical pathos	9
2	Metadiscursive Utterances	Inserted parliamentary metadiscourse	6
		Embedded parliamentary metadiscourse	3

3	Metadiscursive Strategy	Metadiscursive attribution strategy	1
		Reporting and Quoting	-
	Total		45

Rethorical Appeals

Table 3 shows that rhetorical logos became the most used metadiscourse markers in the context of NUDC 2021. It means that debaters tend to use critical thinking and logical reasoning to deliver their arguments. As a result, it is likely that the audiences quickly understand the debaters' message. Rhetorical ethos is in the second rank, followed by rhetorical pathos in third place. Debaters frequently use rhetorical ethos rather than pathos because they prioritize their credibility and consistency between arguments and evidence rather than offending the audience's emotional feelings. The followings are the examples:

(1)   *Indonesia right now, it's, it's really bad in the field of environment, right?* [Opening Government – OG]

(2)   *... citizens of Indonesia already have the awareness about these enviromental issues ...* [Opening Opposition – OO]

In example (1), the statement expresses the speaker's belief about the current environmental issues in Indonesia. The statement occurred when Opening Government (OG) attempted to demonstrate the status quo and establish a common ground of shared assumptions with the audience (Ilie, 2003). Thus, this statement can be classified as rhetorical appeals, subcategories of rational appeals (*logos*). As the role of the OO is to rebut, the argument of OG, in example (2), the OO attempted to persuade the audience that what the OG previously stated was false. OO also implied that the government needed to be made aware of the progress of public awareness of environmental issues.

(3)   <u>There is a lot of sources</u> that of actions that destroy the environment of Indonesia, <u>for example,</u> like enjoying a way agressively using single-use plastic, using personal vehicles, many forests getting destroyed and transporting and too much vehicles and so forth. [Opening Government – OG]

(4)   *... citizens already starting to <u>use reusable cup, menstrual cup, or like reusable straw</u> yet the government still do the bigger damage of <u>like illegal logging and strict regulations for mining or oiling</u>.* [Opening Opposition – OO]

Example (3) exhibits that OG surveyed environmental issues in Indonesia by providing several shreds of evidence. It shows that OG attempts to establish her credibility to gain the audience's trust by demonstrating consistency between her statements and actions (Ilie, 2003). Furthermore, the example goes beyond one or two. It also demonstrates that the speaker has used her professional expertise to examine what is happening in real life (Ilie, 2003). Furthermore, it can boost the speaker's confidence that what she said is true. Moreover, example (3) persuades and instills the audience's trust in the speaker's beliefs and ideas, while example (4) provides actual actions that the present people do to reduce plastic waste and then compares it to the government, which did more significant environmental damage. It shows that OO attempts to

emphasize that having a position in the government does not guarantee that environmental activists have the power to prevent environmental issues.

(5) *people <u>would listen more than people who have no power right</u>, because you underestimate them and so forth.* [Opening Governmnet – OG]

(6)   See this gap of damage which shows you <u>*how unkind the government is when it comes to this issues.*</u> [Opening Opposition – OO]

To attract the audience's attention, OG and OO also applied rhetorical *pathos* to win their hearts by touching emotional feelings so that they were on their side (Ilie, 2003). As shown in example (5), OG emphasized that if environmental activists obtain positions in government, they will have power to influence people. It suggests that people with no power may have a little influence on others. OG's statement may reflect the reality in Indonesia, where many people tend to believe people who are in positions of power rather than those without power.

Meanwhile, in example (6), OO portrayed environmental damage triggered by government policies such as the previously mentioned '*illegal logging and strict regulations for mining or oiling*' (4), demonstrating the government's cruelty to the environment. The OO also denied that the government's power could be abused. It is because OO tries to get the audience's attention by saying that the government is not a good choice for environmental activists to solve environmental problems; this statement can emotionally impact the audience.

Those findings showcase conformity with Ilie's (2003) work regarding rhetorical appeals (*logos, ethos,* and *pathos)*. the findings have similar results to the work of El-Masry (2020) in terms of categorization but differ in applying the theoretical framework. El-Masry (2020) employed Conner and Lauer's (1985) model of persuasion, which share some similarities with Ilie's (2003) metadiscourse model. Other scholars, Connor and Lauer (1985) proposed three categories: rational appeal, credibility appeal, and affective appeal which partly intersects Ilie's (2003) rhetorical appeals but are different in terms of credibility dan affective appeal. It is worth noting that debaters usually persuade audiences by implementing those rational appeals as one of their strategies.

In this study, self-mentions are the most important interactional metadiscourse markers used by debaters to suggest speaker's presence and participation. This finding is consistent with El-Masry's (2020) findings in terms of personalization (self-mention) the most frequently used marker in the interview. The difference is that metadiscourse in this study is used not only as a device or strategy in delivering speech, but is also used to establish interaction with the audiences, and represent the speaker's logical order.

Furthermore, the findings also partly resonate with Ilmi and Degaf (2020) regarding of the use of rhetorical strategy. It demonstrated that the use rhetorical techniques in presenting argument, help speakers to persuade the audience, support their arguments, and strengthen them. However, the differences were also noted in terms of the discourse markers used due to the different theory being used.

Metadiscursive Utterances
In contrast, in metadiscursive utterances, only a few examples of each category were found. The small numbers indicated that debaters in this debate competition rarely used inserted and embedded parliamentary metadiscourse because it may have little impact on the delivered argument. See the following examples:

(7) *We think that practices will not act that way because <u>we are democratic country and to enter the government you need to be chosen for election.</u>* [Opening Government - OG]

(8) *But at least in <u>our side of the house</u>, <u>we explain to you how they are going to be elected</u>, like the OO already stated,....* [Closing Government – CG]

(9) *Therefore, we see that second speaker of CG doesn't have uh that that power in arguments. Therefore, <u>we tackle that down.</u>* [Closing Opposition – CO]

Aside from rhetorical appeals, metadiscursive utterances, as shown in examples (7), and (8), were also discovered in (9). The first metadiscursive statement is shown in Example (7). OG employs an initial metadiscursive statement to express her viewpoint on the opening opposition's argumentation (OO). In this case, OG demonstrates her ethos, which is reinforced by her involvement in the political debate for whom she is responsible. Furthermore, OG uses two voices: the institutional voice and her voice. DPM's metadiscursive utterance intended to strengthen her following institutional message, marked in the statement, *'we are democratic country and to enter the government you must be chosen for election*.'

The example (8), *'we explain to you how they are going to be elected*,' CG employs medial metadiscursive utterance to voice the institutional voice. The statement depicts how environmental activists will be elected to government positions by their party's side of the house. It has shown that in the preceding statement, '*our side of the house*,' which means that it belongs to the government. CG's statement attempts to portray that the government does not simply select random people to enter the government but instead the government did it through a strict election process. In this case, CG does not express her political views but represents the institutional voice.

The underlined sentence in example (9) represents CO's institutional message to reinforce the preceding statement. In the preceding statement, CO used indirect speech to employ the ethos function, as in '*OO already stated to you on how people are not obeying government policy*.' This strategy is to remind OW of OO's statement before she expresses her opinion. Then, in the following sentence, CO expresses her personal belief that CG's argument has no power to persuade or assure audiences about how to solve these environmental issues. The metadiscursive utterances implicitly apply the rule of UK parliamentary debate (Ilie, 2015) which allows interruptions by restating what the previous speaker said. These findings are also related to Hyland's (2005) endophoric markers (e.g *as has been stated before...*).

Metadiscursive Strategy
Furthermore, the researchers only found attribution strategy. It demonstrates that one party cannot agree with their opponent's argument. As a result, this study only discovered one data point. Meanwhile, the researchers found no evidence of a reporting or quoting strategy because

debaters frequently used indirect speech (paraphrasing) rather than directly quoting the other speaker's words.

(10) *First, they have the say that it is the fault of the government in the first place, we say that yes well we do agree that we do sometimes agree that there's a certain extent that is it is the government's fault, but where are we what where these activists will rule in the first place right.* [Closing Government – CG]

Example (10) depicts attribution strategy which functions to predict or presuppose the agreement of the interlocutor and audience (Ilie, 2003). CG depicts agreement with her interlocutor's statement. CG used this strategy to highlight that the government makes mistakes during its tenure. Furthermore, CG argued this statement before delivering her argument, implying that this occurred in the rebuttals section. CG wished to partly refute the opponent but she first agrees with what the opposite has stated. However, after stating that she agrees, she continued her speech with the word 'but,' indicating that the government still wins over the opposition.

The researcher could not find reporting and quoting strategies in this debate competition. This might be because the debaters think that indirect strategy is considered more advanced strategy rather than just quoting and reporting. The findings also portrayed that the level of university debate competition differs from actual parliamentary debate. Background, location, situation, and the level of parliamentary debate may all impact the difference.

In addition, the findings of the present study uncover dissimilarity with El-Masry (2020). In his study, he did not explain metadiscursive utterances and metadiscursive strategy, whereas the current study did. It is clear that the current study's findings have filled a gap in previous studies by providing data on the use of metadiscourse markers in spoken discourse (e.g. seminars, presidential debates, dialogic speech, interview), particularly in debate competition, using Ilie's (2003) metadiscourse model.

Metadiscourse Markers: Hyland (2005)
Tables 1 and 2 display the distribution and frequency of each interactive and interactional metadiscourse marker category. Meanwhile, Table 2 depicts the distribution of each interactional metadiscourse marker category. The tables show that, interactive metadiscourse markers predominate in the current data, accounting for 604 or 54.5% of all cases, while interactional metadiscourse markers account for 503 or 45.4% of all cases.

Interactive Metadiscourse
The table below display that transition markers receives the highest score of 460 cases (76.5%). Code-glosses are in second place with 74 cases (12.3%). Furthermore, with 60 cases found or equal to 9,9%, frame markers made a minor distinction with code-glosses. Endhoporic markers are the fourth most-used interactive metadiscourse markers, accounting for 7 cases (1,1%). Finally, evidential markers are in the last position with 0 items.

Table 4
The frequency of interactive metadiscourse

Sub-categories	∑	%
TM	460	76,5
FM	60	9,9
ENM	7	1,1
EV	-	-
CG	74	12,3
Total	601	99,8

The current findings show that speakers prefer more interactive metadiscourse to interactional discourse. These findings partly align with Zahro et al.'s (2021) findings. They discovered that by comparing written and spoken context, interactive metadiscourse markers were more commonly used in both domains than interactional metadiscourse markers. However, our findings of this study partly contradict the findings by Sukma (2017), Kuswoyo and Siregar (2019), Kashiha (2021), and Balog (2022) due to the different subjects and the research contexts.

In our study, transition markers appear to be the most commonly used metadiscourse markers by EFL students in the NUDC 2021. We discovered 460 transition markers in this study's total of 601 interactive metadiscourse markers. Transitional markers are essential in organizing the flow of speech. The following are two examples of transitional marker data from the NUDC 2021.

(11)   *So, what we want and contribute and prove in this debate is that how aiming the government position is not better and they should more significantly purpose for cooperation.* [Closing Opposition – CO]

The marker **'so'** refers to the interpretation drawn into a conclusion. It also demonstrates how the statement should be inferred. In this case, the speaker attempts to strengthen his previous statement that all participants should focus on the main problem, the environment, by emphasizing a conclusion to what the opposition wants to do and proving that the government's idea cannot work. Furthermore, it can enlighten the audience on what the speaker was attempting to convey.

(12)   *First, they want to do best for the environment in terms of rights protection, they also want to create a new world eco-friendly those, to sum up, the main interest is about environment.* [Closing Opposition – CO]

(13)   *But oke, to extend to my first speaker are given side people and arguments, one, the idea of comaprison; second, the idea is long-term impact.* [Closing Government – CG]

Frame markers (FM) are schematic structure elements to label text stages. In the present study, FM appeared to be the third mostly used marker by debaters. It shows that debaters provide a sign to shift from one statement to the next. The speaker used the sequencing mark

with **'one'** and **'second,'** not **'one'** and **'two'** or **'first'** and **'second,'** which is ungrammatical. Cardinal numbers (one, two, three) commonly follow in the same category as ordinal numbers (first, second, three).

(14) *Well, ladies and gentlemen, higher position in line with actually more power right, what is actually they are not proving and what they it didn't answer from the member ...* [Closing Government – CG]

(15) *So, CG mentioned that the government would be have to portrayal as down to earth and be good for all people ...* [Closing Opposition – CO]

Endhoporic markers such as *okay*, *now*, and *so* on are included in topic shift signals. This marker is frequently encountered in spoken contexts because speakers reflexively say 'well' at the start of their speech. In this context, the speaker uses 'well' to begin her speech and to express her position on the idea of opposition. As a result, the audience will understand what the CG would debate, refute, or state during her speech. Using these elements may lead the audience to emphasize an important point made by the previous speaker, which the CO will refute. In example (15), CO employed the endophoric marker to refer to the closing government's statement (CG). CO member intends to restate the statement before making his argument.

Corporations are still using plastics yes, but it's because that is most profitable option for them and people aren't saying anything about it right? For example, like people stop using straws, mcdonald's stop selling straw ... [Opening Government – OG]

Our findings also show that code glosses are the second most commonly used marker in this debate competition. The use of code glosses is to provide additional details by elaborating and clarifying the previously mentioned concept. The most frequently used phrase in this data is 'for example,'. In this context, the speaker attempted to provide relevant details to the audience about the speaker's argument.

Interactional Metadiscourse
The table displays that self-mentions are the most commonly used interactional metadiscourse markers, accounting for 307 cases (59.6%). With 110 cases equal to 21,3%, engagement markers ranked second as the most-used metadiscourse markers, with a significant difference. With 60 cases (11,6%), Hedges made a slightly different number of cases with engagement markers. In 26 cases, or 55% of the time, attitude markers appear in the fourth position. Finally, boosters occur infrequently in the debate competition, with only 12 cases (2,3%) found.

Table 5
The frequency of interactional metadiscourse

Sub-categories (table 7)	∑	%
H	60	11,6
B	12	2,3
AM	26	5
SM	307	59,6
EGM	110	21,3
Total	515	100

The findings are partly parallel with those of Tabrizi (2017), Sukma (2017), Kuswoyo and Siregar (2019), Lotfi et al., (2019), Kashiha (2021; 2022), and Balog (2022), who discovered that interactional metadiscourse is more commonly used than interactive metadiscourse. These results demonstrate that the communicative strategy preference of Indonesian EFL students is to connect and highlight the arguments rather than display participant involvement.

Self-mentions are frequently used with first-person pronouns (I, we) and possessive adjectives to extend the author's presence and participation in a text (mine, me, our, etc.). These elements represent the writer's/self-representation (Hyland, 2005). It is the highest-rated category used by most speakers when delivering speeches.

(16)   *First, we're going to see visible change on mechanization and we are also going to see more tangible responsibilities.* [Opening Opposition – OO]

(17)   *With that, I have two arguments on the idea of the current political stances and also the comparison to the government.* [Opening Opposition – OO]

These markers serve the purpose of explicitly addressing the audience. This device aims to directly involve the audience in the discourse and highlight their presence in the text by treating them as participants in an argument with the audience. Second-person pronouns and possessive adjectives such as *'you*, *yours*, and *yourselves'* are the most commonly used markers to denote this category. These findings partly resonate with the study of Albalat-Macarell and Carrió-Pastor (2019) and Anggraini and Effrianti (2020), who found self-mentioned as the most used interactional metadiscourse. However, in the present study, '*we*' is the most mentioned by debaters; meanwhile, in the previous study is '*I*.'

(18)   *So, we are going to tell you this is the condition of the Indonesia and how there is a lot of problem and how being opposition in government environmental activities can be able to help them.* [Opening Government – OG]

(19)   *... there is no literacy in the environmental damaged on the avaerage person, so we must first educate the average people.* [Closing Government – CG]

The engagement markers '*you*' were used by the speaker in (18). This marker is undoubtedly directed at the audience in order to engage them and indicate their participation in the dialogue. The speaker used this method to communicate with the audience so that they could follow the flow of speech, understand what the speaker was attempting to convey, and have the option to choose their side. In (19), CG utilized the engagement marker '*must*' to highlight necessity on something that should have been done, according to the data above. It also implies considerable coercion in persuading people to do what has been expressed. This may be seen where the marker 'must' collides with self-mentions 'we,' indicating that the speaker attempted to invite and perform that action because it is important and has a large impact on the environment.

(20) *We think that the average Indonesian is not enviromentally aware of these kinds of things yet because <u>maybe</u> in your circles or <u>maybe</u> in specific environmental activists group yes they are aware.* [Opening Government – OG]

(21) *They are still more <u>likely</u> to appeal to a large number of young people who actually use like metal straws, for example it is way still more <u>likely</u> for like environmental activists and regulations to do this.*[Opening Opposition – OO]

In the current data, hedges are the third most commonly used. Hedges explain the writer/speaker's commitment to avoid an absolute position. In example (21), a hedge is marked with the word '*maybe*,' which is mentioned twice. It demonstrates that this marker was used to express an opinion rather than a fact because it relates to the speakers' reason rather than specific knowledge. In (22), CG stated her point of view by inserting the word '*likely*' because she is unsure, but it can be true. As a result, she used '*likely*' rather than maybe. Using this element, CG can state that the opposition can provide more realistic ideas than the government.

(22) *First, you cannot use social media freely, government responsibility is for all people so this would give a wrong and bad message that is why we <u>prefer</u> corporation.* [Closing Opposition – CO]

(23) *The government would not just <u>easily</u> persuade people in the social media while working in the corporation, it is possible because government should not be selfish.* [Closing Opposition – CO]

Our study also reveals that attitude markers are devices that show the emotion of the writer or speaker. These devices are employed in order to demonstrate the author's practical approach to propositions. The attitude marker shown in example (22) took the form of the verb '*prefer*.' In this case, the speaker CO tried to show his subjectivity by rejecting the previous speaker's idea. The use of the word '*prefer*' suggests. The CO speaker used the attitude marker '*easily*' in example (23). This device is used in the form of an adverb, which means that in this context, the government can do anything without difficulty or use less effort in persuading people to speak out against environmental damage.

(24) *For example, helping public transport to be more accessible, adding parks or sections for people who improperly throw their trash and then <u>certainly</u> gain credit*. [Opening Government – OG]

(25) *<u>Exactly</u>, this activists need to take further steps in government position in which is in government so they will have several things ...* [Closing Govenrment – CG]

We also found the use of boosters in our research. Boosters are employed to persuade the reader/audience of something by writing or speaking confidently about it. In example (24), the speaker used the adverb '*certainly*' to amplify her speech. This marker emphasizes and states that what the speaker believes is unquestionably correct. While, in example (25), CG used the word '*exactly*' to show her position confidently. It implies that the speaker will deliver precise information. As a result, this booster assists the speaker to project a strong belief and to persuade listeners to do what s/he said (Kashiha, 2022).

CONCLUSION

The present study investigated the types of metadiscourse markers used and how debaters build their arguments through debate by applying them in the NUDC 2021 debate competition. To this end, the distribution of metadiscourse markers was analyzed and classified based on Ilie's (2003) and Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse model. In general, the findings suggest that metadiscourse assists speakers in conveying their ideas and intention and facilitates them to communicate, understand, and build relationships with audiences. Based on Ilie's (2003) metadiscourse model, rhetorical appeals appeared more frequently than the other types of metadiscourse markers. The rational appeals *(logos)* became the highest markers employed by debaters. This suggests that in debate, debaters prioritize logical arguments over others. Referring Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse model, we revealed that debaters relied more on interactive types than interactional ones, suggesting that university students' communicative strategy preference as debaters is to connect and highlight the arguments than displaying participant's involvement.

This research has a significant impact on both debate competition and speaking proficiency. It contributes to how speakers, addressees, and multiple audiences participate in co-constructing, deconstructing, and reconstructing the meaning being communicated. It also helps to posit speakers' utterers' perspectives on their own (present and past) discourse, their interlocutor's discourse, and/or the discourse of other interactants.

Pedagogical Implications
Debate can be one means by which an English teacher introduces metadiscourse, through a spoken mode. The findings of this study may raise language teachers' awareness of the importance of teaching metadiscourse, for instance interactive and interactional metadiscourses to establish relationship with audiences as well as to make use of these different types of metadiscourses to build students' logic arguments.

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Conflict of Interest

No potential conflict between authors. This article has not been submitted elsewhere and is not under consideration elsewhere.

Authors' Contributions

This article is the summary of the first author's unpublished undergraduate thesis supervised by the second author.

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