In the Name of God

Scientific Quarterly Journal of

Language Horizons

Volume 7, Issue 4, Winter 2024 (Serial No. 18)

Publisher: **Alzahra University**
Managing Editor: **Dr. M. Shirazizadeh**
Editor-in-Chief: **Dr. M. R. Anani Sarab**
English Editor: **Dr. S. Poursadoghi**
Persian Editor: **Dr. N. Monfared**
Managing Director: **N. Jafari**

Page Layout, Printing and Binding**: Mehrravash Pub**. (+98 91 99 19 92 42)

Alzahra University Publication
Address: Alzahra University, Vanak, Tehran, Iran. Postal Code: 1993891176
Email: lghorizons@alzahra.ac.ir
ISSN**: 2588-350X**   E-ISSN**: 2588-5634**

The Journal of Language Horizons is published by **the Iranian Linguistic** Association

the Iranian Linguistic Association

Journal of Language Horizons

According to the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology proclamation dated 1397/12/06 and numbered /3/18/311330, the *Journal of Language Horizons* was granted full Academic-Research status by the ministry's publication committee in their meeting of Jan. 30, 2019. This status has been applied from Volume 1, Issue 1, Spring/Summer 2017.

It is a monolingual (English) journal which operates on a blind peer review policy; it publishes twice- yearly (biannually) papers which report the findings of original research on the current trends and topics in different language related issues.

Submission of manuscripts should be sent electronically via Journal website:
http://lghor.alzahra.ac.ir.

More information about guidelines for submission and the policy of the Journal is provided in other parts of the website. Only articles received online through the site will be sent to referees.

Office Address: Journal of Language Horizons, 2nd Floor, Faculty of Literature and Languages, Alzahra University, Tehran, Iran

E-mail: lghorizons@alzahra.ac.ir

Aims and Scope

Considering the National Master Plan for Science and Education in the country and the necessity of *localizing* the humanities, this journal welcomes English articles contributing to this aim.
Aims of this journal include but are not limited to:

- Promoting scientific and professional knowledge of researchers in the below mentioned areas.
- Sharing the findings of researchers in the mentioned fields.
- Promoting general and professional knowledge necessary for learning English as an international language among Iranians and international interaction in the future.
- Promoting Iranian culture along with the English.

The main focus of the Journal is on research conducted on language learning and teaching. We are in particular interested in research papers on L2 education (in particular EFL/ESL), in a variety of levels, including school level, university level, institute level, etc. The Journal welcomes papers on teaching and learning any component of language including skills and sub-skills, as well as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, discourse and pragmatics, TESL or TEFL, Teaching Persian to Speakers of Other Languages (AZFA), language evaluation/testing, language and culture, teaching language for specific purposes, teaching methodology, English and Persian literature, language studies, translation, and linguistics but written only in English.

Submission Guidelines

Authors are encouraged to submit complete unpublished and original works which have not already been published elsewhere nor are under review in any other journal. They are kindly requested to refer to the Journal website: http://lghor.alzahra.ac.ir/ to register according to the instructions given. Once registered, each author will be provided with a username and a password enabling him/her to follow up the submission process. The next step is to send the paper to the Journal to be considered for review.

The manuscripts submitted to *Journal of Language Horizons* should follow the latest version of APA style. Contributing authors are advised to read this document carefully and adhere to the instructions given below before sending their papers to the Journal office. The article will be sent in two separate files including the title file and the manuscript file. The title file includes the title, author's

/authors' name(s), their institutional affiliation(s), phone number(s), and the email(s), preferably the academic one(s). In case of multiple authors, the corresponding author should be indicated.

The second file, the main manuscript, starts with the abstract. The abstract should be between 150 and 250 words, followed by five keywords, separated by commas. The abstract should include information on the purpose of the research and/or research question(s), the methods and materials used, information on the analysis procedures as well as the major findings. The Persian translation of the abstract should be provided too. The font type should be Times New Roman and the size is 12. The whole manuscript should be double-spaced throughout and the new paragraphs should be indented. The manuscript should be divided into clear sections such as: Introduction, Review of literature (which may include sub-sections), Method (including participants, materials, and procedure), Results, Discussion, Acknowledgements (if necessary) and References (and Appendices, if needed). The reference list should be on a new page, double spaced, and the hanging indent method should be used (all lines after the first one are indented). The length of the paper should be between 7000 and 10000 words. The following pages provide key information and give examples of APA style. More information on APA can also be found in the website: http://www.apastyle.org/

REFERENCES

All in-text citations must be listed in full in the reference list at the end of each article following the specifications of the *APA* manual (7th edition) and all references listed must be cited somewhere in the text. Begin the reference list on a separate page entitled "References" and double-space it throughout. Each entry must include the author's name, co-authors (if any), publication date, and title of work. For a journal article, also provide the name of the journal, volume and issue numbers, and page numbers for the article. For an article in an edited volume, list the editor's name, title of the collection, and page numbers of the article. For a book or monograph, list the edition, volume number, series, and name of publisher. For all online works, the DOI should be provided as well. If not available, the URL can be provided instead. Punctuate and capitalize as in the following examples:

Book

Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1989). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge University Press.

Journal article

Bacon, S. M., & Finnemann, M. D. (1990). A study of the attitude, motives, and strategies of university foreign language students and their disposition to authentic oral and written input. *The Modern Language Journal*, *74,* 459-473.

Journal article with volume number

Lee, M-B. (2002). A closer look at language learning strategies and EFL performance. *Foreign Languages Education*, *10*(1), 115-132.

Article in a book

Dechert, H. (1983). How a story is done in a second language. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in inter-language communication* (pp. 175-195). Longman.

Journal Article with DOI

Paivio, A. (1975). Perceptual comparisons through the mind's eye. *Memory & Cognition*, *3*, 635-647. http://doi.org//10.1037/0278-6133.24.2.225

Journal Article without DOI (when DOI is not available)

Hamfi, A. G. (1981). The funny nature of dogs. *E-journal of Applied Psychology, 2*(2), 38-48. http://www.ojs.lib.swin.edu.au/index.php/fdo

Encyclopedia Articles

Brislin, R. W. (1984). Cross-cultural psychology. In R. J. Corsini (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 319-327). Wiley.

Developmental genetics. (2005). *In Cambridge encyclopedia of child development*. http://www.credoreference.com.library.muhlenberg.edu:80/entry/cupchilddev/developmental_genetics

Reference citation in text

Direct citation 1
She states, "the 'placebo effect' ... disappeared when behaviors were studied in this manner" (Miele, 1993, p. 276), but she did not clarify which behaviors were studied.

Direct citation 2: Fewer than forty words
Lee (1999) found that "The EAP writing curriculum incorporate reading and analysis of major academic journal articles in the specific field to identify macro-level organization an obligatory 'moves' in conjunction with writing practice." (p. 21)

Direct citation 3: More than forty words
Miele (1993) found the following:
The "placebo effect," which had been verified in previous studies, disappeared when behaviors were studied in this manner. Furthermore, the behaviors were never exhibited again, even when reed rings were administered. Earlier studies were clearly premature in attributing the results to a placebo effect. (p. 276)

One work by two authors
- Smith and Takamoto (1997) argued that. ...
- In recent study of SLA (Smith & Takamoto, 1997) ...

One work by multiple authors: Use et al.
- First citation: Jones et al. (1997) found that...
- in a recent study of second language acquisition (Jones et al, 1997)....
- Subsequent citations: Jones et al. (1997) further argued that. ...
- In a recent study of second language acquisition (Jones et al., 1997)...

One work by multiple authors, more than 6
- First citation: Dresler et al. (1992) showed that...
- In a recent study of second language acquisition (Dresler et al., 1992)...

Multiple works: Arrange in alphabetical order
Previous research (Lass, 1992; Meyer & Sage, 1978, 1980; Nichols, 1987a, 1987b; Oats et al., 1973)...
For works not included in the above examples refer to *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (7th ed.).

Review Policy

Since the Journal uses a double-blind review system, it is essential that all author identifying information be removed from the paper and that author(s) information should only be provided in the title page. In case the author's/authors' work is mentioned in the manuscript, replace the name(s) with *Author(s)* in the the text. In other words, there should be no trace of the author in the text.

Before submitting your article to be considered for publication in the Journal of *Language Horizons*, make sure that it adheres to all guidelines given in this document; otherwise, the Journal office may reject the paper before sending it out for review. The papers following these general criteria may be submitted to be evaluated for possible publication. Please be informed that the Journal takes plagiarism very seriously and the contributors are cautioned against this.

The journal follows a rigorous reviewing policy. Each submitted paper is first evaluated for its style consistency and appropriateness of the topic. If found faulty or not appropriate, the paper is returned to the corresponding author for further work and resubmission. The papers that meet initial submission criteria are then reviewed by members of editorial and advisory board as well as external review-ers. A final decision is made on the status of the paper based on the feedback offered by board members and anonymous reviewers to the Editor in Chief. The final decision will be in form of 1) Accepted as it is; 2) Minor revisions; 3) Major revisions; and 4) Rejected. The Journal keeps the right of literary and technical changes but not changes in the content of the articles. Also, article publishing depends on the editorial board's approval.

Scientific Quarterly Journal of Language Horizons, ***Alzahra University***
Volume 7, Issue 4, Winter 2024

Contents

7-36 **A Case Study of a Competency Based Teacher Training Course**
Elaheh Tavakoli

37-62 **A Cross-Move Analysis of Interactional Metadiscourse Markers in Abstracts of Local and International Journals of History**
Mavadat Saidi, Niloofar Karami

63-85 **Language Learning Needs Analysis at Different Stages of the Undergraduate Course of Consecutive Interpreting**
Zohreh Gharaei, Saeed Ketabi

87-118 **Monitoring Discourse in Translation: An Analysis of the Qur'anic Elaborative Discourse Marker wa in Parallel Corpora**
Ali Mohammad Mohammadi

119-148 **Motivational Dynamics in Foreign Language Learning: Motivated Learning Behavior, Proficiency, and Gender**
Majid Ghorbani, Shokouh Rashvand Semiyari

149-176 **The Effect of Dynamic Assessment Models on L2 Listening and Speaking Anxiety**
Abbas Ali Zarei, Elham Shishegarha

Journal of Language Horizons

Scientific Quarterly Journal of Language Horizons, *Alzahra University*
Volume 7, Issue 4, Winter 2024
Research Article
pp. 7-36

A Case Study of a Competency Based Teacher Training Course

Elaheh Tavakoli[1]

Received: 01/08/2022 Accepted: 11/03/2023

Abstract

The present case study reports on an innovative teacher training course with 14 Iranian senior undergraduate student teachers majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). The course was developed after a Competency Based Teacher Education theory (CBTE) to assess student teachers' practicums via three sources (i.e. self, peer-group and teacher educator) and based on the Teacher Observation Instrument (TOI). The aim was primarily to see if there was congruence among the three sources in assessing student teachers' performance and secondly to know what the attitude of the course participants was towards the course and three modes of assessment. Pearson Correlation showed peer group assessment relatively congruent with both teacher educator assessment and self-assessment. The results from semi-structured interviews with student teachers showed that they favored peer group and teacher educator assessment more than self-assessment and that the course made them teach more reflectively.

Keywords: competency, peer group assessment, self-assessment, teacher educator's assessment

[1] Department of Language and Literature, Volda University College, Norway; elaheh.tavakoli@hivolda.no

DOI: 10.22051/lghor.2023.41179.1724

Introduction

Although teaching practicum is congruently viewed as a core element in teacher preparation courses, the issue of its assessment has always been a challenge. Teaching practicum is a multidimensional activity involving student teachers, cooperating teachers, university supervisors, administrators, and students (Gan, 2014). It plays a major role in bridging theory and practice and more importantly offers the context for student teachers to develop their personal teaching competence (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005).

Measuring the performance of student teachers is a major concern in teacher training courses. Assessment may negatively influence their performance and make them anxious about the way they are assessed, which results in a poor teaching performance and negative evaluation by the teacher educator (Canh, 2014).

Although assessing teachers' practicums has always been a complicated process, using different sources of assessment based on explicit criteria can result in a more reliable judgment (Dochy et.al., 1999). Application of multiple sources for assessment can therefore contribute to a fairer evaluation which is what Somervell (1993, p.227) defines as "a more democratic approach"; the approach is also claimed to help the achievement of learning autonomy since self- and peer-assessment can be considered as complementary learning tools to teacher assessment (Dochy et al., 1999; Gale et al., 2002; Hanrahan & Isaacs, 2001; Segers & Dochy, 2001).

Given the need for more democratic teacher training courses, the researcher was intrigued to answer the question if employing different sources can lead to a more congruent assessment result. To respond to this question and know if an assessment-oriented teacher training course with a criterion-based practicum observation instrument can lead to congruent assessment results and consequently a more reliable evaluation, the researcher in the current case study took advantage of a course based on CBTE and three sources of assessment, self-, peer- and teacher educator assessment.

Review of the Literature

The literature on the congruence of assessment from several sources such as self, peer and teacher assessment has been well documented. Nonetheless, most of the research has centered on assessment of students particularly their productive language skills, writing essays and oral presentations (e.g., Cheng & Warren, 2005; Langan, et al., 2008; Matsuno, 2009; Patri, 2002; Saito & Fujita, 2004).

Student teachers' performance, on the other hand, is an ill-defined area (Deering, 2011). Very few studies, to the best of the author's knowledge, have paid attention to assessing student teachers using various sources and criterion-based frameworks. Almutairi and Shraid's (2021) research, for instance, dealt with assessing high school teachers' performance through four sources: heads of the department, self, peer and student. Their study showed a significant difference between the internal sources considering instruction, assessment, management, student, interaction, and cooperation. For instance, students assessed their teachers' instruction higher than the teachers themselves and peer-teachers judged their colleagues harshly. Peer evaluation was found to be more accurate than teachers' self and head of department evaluation. Teachers' self-evaluation was more accurate than the head of department evaluation. In another study, Al-Mutawa and Al-Dabbous (1997) observed 36 competencies in five categories of components such as personal qualities, linguistic knowledge, inter-personal relations, planning, and implementation to assess 34 Kuwaitian student teachers. The assessment of teachers' practicum resulted in a significant correlation between all categories of competence.

The issue of student teachers' view and their satisfaction about being assessed was the focus in Merç's (2015) research. His qualitative results revealed that student teachers saw planning-preparation, general organization, and university supervisors as the best performance measures and peer teachers, writing observation and reflection reports, and evaluation by cooperating teachers as less effective. His quantitative findings showed a significant difference among the criterion measures for assessing teaching practicum. Assessment by the cooperating teachers was found as the weakest measure both on his survey items and during the interviews. The survey items in Merç's research failed to cover teaching competences and mainly targeted the sources for collecting information: reports from cooperating teachers and peer teachers, university supervisors and the organization. His results were not consequently easily transferable to other contexts as the evaluation of student teachers' practices were not based on the teaching competences in general.

Kiliç (2016) is one of the rare researchers who used various sources and criterion-based assessment forms to know the level of agreement among teacher, self and peer. While there were no significant differences between teacher- and self-assessment ratings, peer assessment was found to be significantly higher than the other two modes. The researcher justified higher peer-ratings through the common summative assessment approach within the context of study. Contrary to Kiliç's (2016) case study which was on 15 teachers, Oren (2018) investigated the correlation between the three sources of assessment on 203 pre-service science teachers using a similar assessment-form with twenty-five teaching abilities. Self and peer assessment in her research showed a moderately high correlation and significantly higher than the teacher scores.

Overall, studies on the congruence of self, peer and teacher assessment are relatively few (Oren, 2018) and the existing studies have resulted in controversial findings. While there is consensus on promoted reliability and validity of assessment when various forms are utilized, there are very controversial findings in the literature about their congruence and attitudes towards them. While Teacher assessment correlates with self-assessment (e.g., Kiliç, 2016), it correlated higher with peer-assessment in some other studies (e.g., Oren, 2018). In general, the literature on teacher and self-assessment has shown more controversial results than on teacher and peer-assessment. Several reports, e.g., Patri (2002), Ross (2006) and Saito and Fujita (2004), have shown a low correlation while some other studies (e.g., Oldfield & Macalpine, 1995) revealed a significant relationship between teacher and self-assessment. Ross's (2006) review article indicated the students' highly consistent rating in self-evaluations, but much less reliable with other measures and sources (e.g., test scores, teacher ratings or peer ratings). These controversial results highlight the need for further research. This study, hence, aims at the congruity among three assessment modes in a CBTE course using an instrument designed based of the pre-defined competencies and teaching criterion.

Competency Based Teacher Education

Many teacher education programs have defining characteristics which lean toward one of several theories: behaviorist or competency-based, outcome-based, humanistic, and developmental theories. The heydays of the Competency Based Teacher Education (CBTE) programs were in the 60s and 70s. CBTE has its roots in behavioral philosophy but persisted into the twenty-first century (Ducharme, Ducharme & Dunkin, 2017). While many of the Outcome-Based teacher education programs focus on learners and the program outcomes, the traditional teacher training programs aim at assessment based on entry requirements, hours of classwork and homework and written examinations. CBTE takes instructional processes into account and focuses on public observable performance. It heavily relies on assessment of performance against a clear set of criteria (Houston & Brown, 1975).

The literature uses the terms competency and performance indiscriminately (Gillie, 1974). Teaching activities comprise many individual competencies varying from very general activities like writing or verbalizing a philosophy of vocational education to more specific activities, such as demonstrating a manipulative skill'(Field, 1979). Learning is strongly influenced by assessment; therefore, CBTE can be more successful when the assessment program is also based on competency (Birenbaum, 2003). The main goal of competency-based assessment is to assess students' ability to perform professional tasks according to specific criteria (Gulikers, et.al., 2010). Before the students tackle learning tasks, they should therefore be provided with clear assessment criteria which are often formulated as competencies and seek what the students are able to do (Crossley & Jolly, 2012). Lurie (2012) advised the language of these competencies to be prescriptive (e.g., "to be able to communicate properly") rather than descriptive since it integrates knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Hence, the present teacher training course was designed based on CBTE with multiple modes of assessment based on a set of pre-established prescriptive criteria. The researchers aimed to know if the course could reveal congruence amongst the assessors and consequently more effective teaching and learning how to teach.

Despite the existing models and the plethora of research on alternative forms of assessment of the students-teachers' practicum, not many researchers have paid attention to both the integration of several sources and implementing them into a CBTE. The current study, however, aimed to employ three modes of assessment, i.e., teacher, peer and self in a criteria-based assessment teacher training program. In other words, student- teachers were engaged in a program in which their practicums were assessed by teacher educator, peers and themselves based on a Teacher

Observation Instrument (TOI) comprising 41 competencies. The course instructor asked them to observe their peer's instruction, reflect on it, give interactive oral feedback and learn how to teach more efficiently through using alternative modes of assessments. Effective teaching competencies in the TOI for the current study were elicited from Harmer (2007). This paper also used the term peer-group assessment interchangeably with peer-assessment since the mean of all peers for every practicum was computed for more convenient analysis. The following research questions were consequently raised.

1. How do peer-group, self and teacher educator's assessment of student teachers' practicums relate to each other?
2. What is the attitude of student teachers towards peer-group, self and teacher educator's assessment in a competency-based teacher training course?

Method

Participants

The present case study recruited 14 English as Foreign Language (EFL) senior undergraduate student teachers (5 males and 9 females). For brevity, student teachers will be referred to by the acronyms ST1, ST2… ST14.They were selected based on convenience sampling and from an English Language Teaching Department at a state university in Iran. With no prior teaching experience, they had willingly enrolled in the teacher training course and consented to participate in this research which indicated their strong motivation. They participated in both quantitative data collection (questionnaires) and qualitative (semi-structured interviews) phases.

The researcher was designated by the university to be the course instructor. Aged 38, with 15 years of experience as EFL teacher and 5 years as teacher trainer, she led the course through both teacher training and the research process. Ethical issues were handled through the debriefing session which was held before the course. The participants were informed that pseudonyms were used to protect their privacy; the course was not a mandatory course in the students' curriculum, and they were free to resign from the course, the research or even both. The participants were initially 16 but two of them resigned from the research halfway through the study and their data were not employed. The participants were also assured that their data would be strictly kept confidential and restricted to the study.

Procedure

The present case study encompassed five phases: teacher training, planning and preparation, practicum, multiple-assessment, and course evaluation. These phases are also illustrated in Appendix I.

The first phase of the study was educating student teachers in an overall 360 minutes (4 sessions of the course) with a focus on the main competencies for a successful teaching of language skills based on Harmer (2007) (See main themes in Appendix I). The educator posed *What*, *Why* and *How else* questions to elicit the responses from the participants and came up with a list of criteria for more effective teaching; for instance, “don’t teach too fast or too slow.”, “have clear instruction.”. In addition to teaching the main competences, in this phase, the researcher developed a list of dos and don’ts for effective teaching.

In the second phase, the participants were given a twenty-day preparation gap in which they were demanded to select, plan and practice a lesson to teach. The selection of the content to teach was opted by the participants but was checked and supervised by the teacher educator. They had access to the DVD of the actual class demonstrations (Harmer, 2007) and were required to watch them as models of good teaching practices prior to their own practice. In this phase, the researcher/course educator developed the TOI based on the list of criteria/competencies that had been taught in the first phase.

The third phase of this research gave an opportunity to each student-teacher to teach one or more activities (reading, writing, listening, speaking, discussion, conversation, vocabulary, pronunciation) from the international English books. They had access to the supplementary teachers’ guidebooks.

In the assessment stage (fourth phase), which occurred immediately after each practicum, student teacher, peers and the teacher educator simultaneously assessed the practicum via TOI. Self, peers and teacher educator assessment was conducted after every teaching from the fifth to thirteenth session of the course. None of the ratings (self, peer, or teacher) could influence the other modes since no one was aware of the feedback from other sources. This multiple-assessment phase was followed by ten-minute feedback exchanged orally on each practicum. The teacher educator and student teachers shared their thoughts when the TOI ratings were collected.

If no feedback was voluntarily produced by the peer-group in the assessment phase, the teacher educator asked *what*, *why* and *how else* questions on the criterion in the TOI, for instance "*What do you think about her/ his pace of teaching? Why do you think she asked the question…..?"*, "*How else could she teach the vocabularies?*" To respond to the first research question, the ratings from the three sources were compared and correlated.

For responding to the second research question, all TOIs were assigned to each participant at the end of each session so that the student-teacher could compare the ratings from all sources and reflect on their teaching by comparing different modes of assessment. In the last phase of research (Evaluation in Appendix I), semi-structured interview and attitude questionnaire were used to collect data and discover the attitude of student teachers towards a CBTE course with multiple modes of assessment. All the interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for further analysis.

Instruments

Teacher Observation Instrument (TOI). TOI was developed by the researcher with 41 statements targeting different criteria/competencies such as appropriate teaching pace, classroom management, asking questions, assigning enough wait time, creating fun, implementing audio-visual sources, using body gesture, teachers' movement, using eye contact and repetition. Appendix II shows the instrument with 41 statements which targeted 41 competencies. In this article, the words criteria and competencies are used interchangeably. The student teachers were required to read each statement with 5 possible ratings, strongly agree, agree, no idea, disagree and strongly disagree, and indicate their opinion about each. They assigned the highest rate of 5 by selecting strongly agree and the lowest by choosing *strongly disagree*.

The competencies for language teaching were adapted by the researcher from Harmer (2007). Since the book had been taught in the teacher training phase of this research, the researcher could ensure that the participants were familiar with the technical terms in TOI. The items were written in English since English was the medium of instruction and interactions along the course and the student teachers had mastery on it. TOI only concentrated on student teachers' teaching practice inside class. Their outside- class competencies such as material development, teacher's relationships with the school, family and society were not taken into the researcher's account due to practicality issues and time limitation.

The instrument was checked for its validity through expert judgment and its reliability through Cronbach's alpha. Prior to its implementation, TOI items were piloted by two more experienced teacher trainers as the field experts and were modified by the researcher. Also, in line with Howell (2002), the researcher in this study estimated reliability of the TOI through Cronbach's alpha for inter-rater reliability of all the 15 measures (student teachers' and teacher educator's assessments of practicums). Cronbach alpha revealed the value of .87, which suggested a high inter-rater consistency for TOI.

Attitude Questionnaire. This study employed a researcher-developed attitude questionnaire with four-point rating scales for sixteen statements to explore the student teachers' attitudes toward the course in general and peer, self and teacher assessment in particular. The items targeted helpfulness of each assessment mode, learning opportunity each mode could provide, attitude to reliability and congruence of each mode as well as oral comments and interactive feedback. The questionnaire was validated by two expert judges in the field and improved in wording and content. It gained a relatively high reliability estimated by Cronbach's alpha (r=.74).

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the literature did not document any questionnaires on student teachers' attitudes towards a teacher training course which incorporated all modes of assessment employed in this study; hence, the researcher had to develop an instrument for the purpose of this research. The development of this questionnaire, however, was informed by McMillan (2001), and Sadeghi and Abolfazli Khoni (2015).

Interview Questions. To answer the second research question more qualitatively and triangulate the data collected through attitude questionnaire, a semi-structured interview (Appendix III) was also conducted. It consisted of nine open questions to elicit the student teachers' opinions about the use of multiple assessors and the CBTE course. More specifically, questions 1, 2 and 3 were asked to collect data on the congruence of different modes of assessment in the course and questions 4, 5, 6 and 7 to elicit the student teachers' attitude towards the CBTE course and its features. The whole interview was held in English and in the last two sessions of the course.

Data Analysis

Both qualitative and quantitative data analyses were used to answer each research question. For the first research question, correlation analysis was conducted on the data obtained from TOI completed by student teachers, their peers and the teacher educator. For the second research question and to know the attitude of the course participants towards using multiple assessors and competency-based assessment, the researcher benefitted from frequency analysis of the data gained through administering attitude questionnaire. To respond to both research questions qualitatively and triangulate the data collected through TOI and attitude questionnaires, the content of the transcribed semi-structured interviews was analyzed based on Corbin and Strauss's (2008) theoretical comparative method. In other words, the data were collected through theoretical sampling or pre-established concepts (i.e., congruence, fairness, and attitude in this study, See Appendix II). Each incident of the concepts in the transcribed data was compared with other incidents to find similarities and differences.

Results

To address the first research question and to find the congruence between every two assessment modes and in order to do correlation analysis on the collected data from the TOI, the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), 19th version was utilized. Prior to that, however, descriptive statistics, such as mean and standard deviations were calculated for the assessment scores from the three sources. Table 1 shows the mean of the assessment scores based on TOI from each of the three sources. Teacher educator had the lowest assessment score for practicums while student teachers had the highest mean score when they assessed their own performance.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics for self-, peer group- and teacher assessment

Assessor	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Teacher educator	143.4	24.94	14
Self-assessment	168.3	20.92	14
Mean of all peer-groups	165.9	12.89	14
Mean of all modes	159.2	14.94	14

The teacher educator's mean score to all the student teachers' practicums was 143.4. Student teachers' mean score on peer-assessment and self-assessment were closer to each other (165.9 and 168.3 respectively) but higher than the assessment from the teacher educator.

Besides descriptive statistics, to fulfill the requirements of performing parametric correlations and respond to the first research question, Multiple Scatterplot (Appendix IV) was run for checking assumptions of linearity and normality. It showed that the linearity assumption was met for teacher educator and peer-group as well as peer-group and self-assessment correlations. The effect size, for both correlations, was large with a fairly wide CI (R^2=.33, CI=95%). The third relationship between self and teacher educator assessment, however, was not fairly linear and the associated effect size was found to be small too (R2=.009, CI=95%). Consequently, to respond to the first research question, Bivariate Pearson Product correlation was run for the first two comparisons while for the third comparison (self and teacher educator), nonparametric Spearman Correlation was employed. Table 2 represents the results of the three correlations.

Table 2

Correlations between peer-group, self and teacher educator assessment

		Teacher educator	Peers' mean	self
Teacher educator	Pearson Correlation	1	.57*	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.03	
	N	14	14	
Peers' mean	Pearson Correlation		1	.57*
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.03
	N		14	14
Self	Spearman's rho	-.037		1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.899		
	N	14		14

As is shown in the above table, peer-group shows a moderately significant correlation with teacher educator's assessment and with self-assessment (for both comparisons $r = .57$, $n = 14$, $P < .05$). There is no positive correlation, however, between self-assessment and teacher educator's ($r = -.037$, $n = 14$, $P < .05$), measured through Spearman' rho correlation coefficient due to the violation of normality assumption. Semi-structured interview revealed similar results on the congruence of teacher educator and peer-assessment but different results on self-assessment and teacher educator's. Except for ST11, all student teachers believed that assessment by their peers based on the checklist of competencies through TOI was similar to the teacher educator's assessment. Despite peer and teacher educator's congruence, the participants' opinions in the interview did not confirm the non-significant correlation between self and teacher assessment. Except for three (ST7, ST9 and ST13), all the student teachers believed that their self-assessment was similar to the teacher educator's. ST7 explained in the end of the course interview why his assessment did not match with the teacher educator's and why he had overrated himself, "Having r*egarded grammar as one of the most demanding components of language to teach, I overrated my teaching practice. I thought I deserved a high rating since I had selected a tough language skill to teach*."

To find the answer to the second research question, the percentages of student teachers' responses to the four scales of the attitude questionnaire were calculated. Table 3 illustrates these results in the following.

Table 3

Percentage of student teachers' attitudes toward peer-group, self- and teacher assessment

Items	Very much Or Much %	very little or Not at all %
Attitude to peer-assessment		
1. My peers' assessment helped me to analyze and review my teaching.	100	
11. I liked it when I knew based on what criterion my peers assessed me.	92.1	
Attitude to assessing peers		
5. I liked it when I could assess my friend's teaching practice.	100	

6. By assessing my peers' practicums, I learned teaching skills better.	100	
14. I liked it when I could express my opinion about my friends' teaching orally.	100	
15. I liked it when I could express my opinion about my friends' teaching on paper.	71.4	
Attitude to Self-assessment		
3. I learned when I assessed my own teaching.		71.4
4. I liked assessing my own teaching practice and scoring myself.		64.3
Attitude to teacher educator's assessment		
2. The teacher's assessment of my practicum and my peers' helped me.	92.9	
Attitude to reliability of each mode		
7. My peer student teachers' assessment of my practicum was reliable.	92.9	
8. As an assessor, I was reliable when I assessed my peers' teaching practice.	100	
9. The teacher educator assessment was reliable.	100	
Attitude to multi-modal assessment congruence		
10. I found the teacher's comments and assessment on my practicum similar to my friends'.	78.6	
12. The teacher's comments and assessment about my teaching were similar to mine.	92.9	
13. I liked it when I could see and compare my teacher' assessment with my friends' assessment.	78.6	
16. Overall, I like the course.	100	

As Table three reveals, the majority of the participants liked all the assessment modes in the course except for its self-assessment. In general, all of the student teachers liked the course very much or much (item 16). Six more items (1, 5, 6, 14, 8 and 9) showed a consensus of 100% of the participants. More specifically, all the participants in the course were interested in how peers assessed their practicums (item 1). They all liked to critically assess their peers through oral feedback and believed that they had learned better (items 5, 6 and 14). Only two participants didn't like filling in the TOI after every practicum and reported in the interview that they found the process trite and boring; however, they enjoyed assessing their peers through giving oral feedback and sharing it with the course instructor (item 14).

In contrast to peer and teacher educator's assessment, items on self-assessment showed participants' negative attitude; the majority of participants had learned very little from their self-assessment and liked assessing and scoring their own performance very little (71.4% and 64.3% respectively for items 3 and 4). Despite the participants' negative attitude to this mode, most student teachers found multiple modes of assessment congruent (items 10, 12, and 13); only one participant didn't find his self-assessment similar to the teacher educator's assessment (item 12).

The results on these items in the questionnaire were also supported qualitatively in semi-structured interview. Thirteen student teachers reported in the interview that peer assessment on their practicum was fair, although they did not accept it to have the lion's share in their final rating. They believed that they required more training on peer-assessment prior to the course and that it could not be impartial due to student teachers' subjective assessment. In a similar vein, two student teachers explained that they tended to avoid the lowest scale of TOI because they did not want to hurt their peers' feelings.

When the interviewer asked the participants about their attitude towards competency-based assessment and being assessed based on TOI, they expressed their interest because competencies made the goal clearer from scratch and could provide them with more convenient quantitative measurement scales, which they assumed resulted in fairer assessment of their peers' practicums. Nevertheless, the course attendees thought if they had delivered more teaching practices and had been assessed more than once; they would have improved their subsequent performances through their prior teaching experiences.

Seven of the participants thought some of the criterion in the TOI could not be implemented in assessing their practicum. ST7, for instance, admitted that he didn't need to use whiteboard for teaching grammar as frequently as his peers who had taught reading skills or idioms. To be assessed more fairly, he believed he should have taught more than once during the course or should have been assessed through a different set of criterion or different observation scales.

In response to the fifth question of the interview (Appendix III), i.e., what they liked about the course, the student teachers referred to several features such as peers' and teacher educator's oral feedback, hands on learning in the course, assessment orientation based on a clear set of criteria, everyone's engagement in assessment and great learning opportunities every practicum provided. ST6, for example, told the researcher, "*I liked it when you asked our views on what the teacher (i.e., student-teacher) had or hadn't done and what he/she should or shouldn't have done*."

The participants in this case study did not show similar attitudes about implementing self-assessment in overall rating of their practicum. In response to question 7 (Appendix II), 12 of the participants did not view self- assessment to be fair or accurate due to being subjective. ST9 admitted, "*I am crazy about reading and enjoyed teaching it especially my selected text. With that passion, I overrated myself.*" ST13 confirmed it saying, "*I assessed myself believing that as for the first experience*, *I had done a great job. My self-assessment was pretty higher since my peers didn't think of my teaching that way*."

Discussion

This case study was conducted based on a well-organized assessment-oriented teacher training course with the aim to improve student teachers' reflective learning through various assessment modes and feedback based on a set of clear pre-defined competences. It reported the assessment conducted by three sources and based on a criterion observation instrument.

The results were in line with many other studies (e.g., Longhurst & Norton, 1997; De Grez et al., 2012; Sedumedi & Mundalado, 2012; Kiliç, 2016, Oren, 2018), and could show a statistically significant correlation between teacher educator and peer-assessment. However, this study showed no relationship between self and teacher educator's assessment, a finding which could probably be due to participants' lack of assessment experiences in general and self- assessment in particular.

Contrary to similarities in procedure and the congruence of various modes, this study was different from Kiliç (2016) in the assessment mode with the highest rating. Peer-assessment in Kiliç's study and self-assessment in this study were the highest ratings and in both different from the teacher's rating. This could probably be attributed to a distinct set of criteria utilized in assessing teachers' performance in the two studies. Competencies required for effective teaching such as comprehensible expression; effective application; being planned and controlled; management of time; using body language, gesture and facial expression efficiently were only a few of the items or competencies in TOI but all the criteria which Kiliç utilized. Unlike the student teachers in this research, the participants of his study had both theoretical and practical experience on self- and peer-assessment procedures. The finding that the self-assessment scores were higher than peer assessment contrasted with the results reported by other researchers in the literature (Magin & Helmore, 2001; Rudy et.al., 2001).

Langan et.al. (2008) attributed incongruent assessments to gender effect with females underscoring their performance. Brown and Harris (2013) associated it to age with younger participants' self-assessment being more optimistic, lenient or generous and less congruent with teacher's ratings than older participants'. Segers and Dochy (2001) justified overestimations in self-assessment of one's performance by the difficulty of critical analysis of one's own performance compared to assessing peer's performance. Borgmeier et al. (2016) related the cause of inconsistencies in teachers' self-assessed use of evidence-based classroom practices to the school levels (primary, intermediate, secondary).

In addition to the aforementioned justifications for incongruent teacher and self-assessment, Orsmond et al. (1996) attributed it to criterion for rating performances which was understood differently amongst students and teachers. Accuracy of self-assessment can be fostered through clear rubrics and criterion (Andrade, 2010; Jonsson & Svingby, 2007); however, there are still teachers who are reluctant to implement self-assessment, even in higher education (Tan, 2012). This reluctance was what the researcher in the current study could similarly observe when the course attendees were asked to assess their own teaching performance.

Inconsistencies of self-assessment and their incongruence with the teacher assessment were furthermore justified in Dochy et al's (1999) review article through more factors such as the time effect, methods for self-assessment and the content of the self-assessment. The participants in this study revealed some more contributing factors such as their different perspectives about the nature of language activity and the difficulty of its instruction, their insufficient teaching and assessment experience in comparison with the teacher educator. What they seemed to be unaware of was the opportunity that self-assessment provided them to reflect on their own learning, as Sadeghi and Abolfazli Khonbi (2015) and Kearney (2013) referred to. Through reflection and self-assessment, the students can promote autonomous learning as a valuable aspect of sustainable learning.

Regarding the result related to the participants' attitudes, while all the student teachers enjoyed the course and learned from assessment sources, particularly peers- and teacher educator's, they liked formative function of assessment more than evaluative function. They had particularly learned from peer-assessment and oral feedback in the course but did not like to be rated by their peers. This could probably be due to the participants' distrust in their peers as an impartial and experienced source of assessment.

The participants' traditional view that assessment should be the sole responsibility of the teacher educator is in line with the participants' views in Ballantyne et al. (2002) and Davies (2000). Despite this attitude, all of the student teachers in this course perceived that the peer and teacher educator's assessment had many benefits in facilitating their learning of a more effective teaching. In particular, they agreed that their peer feedback based on the clear set of competencies on TOI could help them in learning how to teach because it involved them in reflection on their own and their peers' performance.

The course made teacher-students reflect more on the criteria in the observation instrument and the way they themselves or their peers taught different language skills. The teacher educator in this study, by asking interactive questions orally in the assessment phase, required student teachers reflect before and after they delivered their own or their peers' teaching and consequently came up with alternative ways if they found shortcomings in teaching practicums. The questions encompassed not only questions of "what the student-teacher did" but also "what else he/she could do and why"; they were, consequently, based on all descriptive, dialogic/analytic, and critical reflection introduced by Schön, D. A. (1983, p. 68) as reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action based on contextualization of multiple viewpoints. In line with Cosh's (1999) reflective approach, peer observation is not only to judge the teaching of others, but to encourage self-reflection and self-awareness. The general consensus is that dialogic and critical reflection are more conducive to development than descriptive reflection alone (see, e.g., Collier, 1999; Davis, 2006; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Stanley, 1998; Ward & McCotter, 2004; Watts & Lawson, 2009).

The variety of assessment modes, particularly the interactive oral assessment, enabled the student teachers to spend time exploring why they acted as they did and provide alternatives through reflection on their own or their peers' action. The course could also be in line with Greiman and Covington (2007) and Yost et al. (2000) who called for multiple, diverse opportunities/modalities for reflection in teacher-educational courses, including verbal reflection, self-reflection, and written reflection. In the current teacher-education course, the participants had the chance to reflect on their own and their peers' practices and share their thoughts in plenum and individually on the assessment instrument. Seifert and Feliks' (2019) research similarly showed a strong contribution of peer-assessment and assessment rubrics (known here as criterion-based assessment) to teacher training programs.

Although oral interactive assessment and peer assessment based on TOI were both reported by all the participants' to be interesting and helpful, self-assessment mode was not favored by student teachers as much because, as novices, they didn't view themselves capable of self-monitoring and self-assessing. This negative attitude towards self-assessment in this study was in line with Wolffensperger and Patkin (2013) but in contrast with Seifert and Feliks (2019) and Longhurst and Norton (1997). The former researchers found self-assessment experience of students far from faultless while the latter researchers stated that self-assessment could clearly help their participants to improve their own learning, as it focused their' attention on the metacognitive aspects of their learning and effective self- monitoring. The reason could probably be in the skill under assessment which in the current research was not only language skills but also teaching skills.

Overall, teacher training assessment courses with explicit criteria for effective teaching can, in line with Leshem and Bar-Hama (2008), be used as a guideline for trainees to identify their own and their peers' strengths and weaknesses. The integration of multiple modes of assessment with CBTE in this course helped the student teachers have a central role in their own assessment and develop their teaching competencies through reflection and sharing feedback.

Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research

Despite the valuable insights that the present case study can provide for teacher education programs, there are several limitations which open new pathways for further research. Firstly, the small sample size did not allow the researcher to generalize findings and apply them to the wider population of EFL teachers. It could not allow the researcher to apply factor analysis and quantitative validation measures on the instruments that were developed for this research. Further research can, therefore, be conducted in the future to fulfill this. Another limitation of the present study relates to its cross-sectional nature and the time constraints; it was only possible for the participants to carry out one microteaching activity. Giving student teachers more opportunities to engage in microteaching activities help them to develop their teaching and reflective skills. It can also provide teacher educators/ researchers with more insight into the prospective teachers' teaching and reflective processes. An assessment of long-term professional development would also give a fairer and less biased evaluation.

More research can be conducted to implement the same features of the program in this study but to trace the changes in teaching behavior of every student-teacher over a longer period and probe their long-term professional development. Last but not least, further studies can include other qualitative tools such as think-aloud protocols and diaries which might help provide further insight into the student teachers' development.

Conclusion

This study was conducted to explore the congruence of three modes of assessment in a competency-based teacher training course. While peer-group and the teacher educator's assessment were more similar, student teachers' self-assessment was overrated. Although the course helped the student teachers reflect on their own and their peers' teaching based on a pre-determined set of competencies and a Teacher Observation Instrument (TOI), they did not seem to be confident about their own assessment skills.

The student teachers' overall positive attitude towards an assessment-oriented teacher training course in which assessment is formatively used for the purpose of learning rather than simply evaluating can be implemented in teacher training programs not only for educating EFL teachers but also teachers in many other fields. The researcher encourages teacher educators to utilize peer-assessment along with their own assessment of the training practices since their combination can be valuable as a formative assessment method and hence as a part of the learning process.

References

Almutairi, T. S., & Shraid, N. S. (2021). Teacher evaluation by different internal evaluators: Head of departments, teachers themselves, peers and students. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education*, *10*(2), 588-596. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1299262

Al-Mutawa, N., & Al-Dabbous, J. (1997). Evaluation of student teachers' performance in TEFL practicum at Kuwait University. *Journal of the Educational Research Center, 6*(11), 27-48. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED435195

Andrade, H. L. (2010). Students as the definitive source of formative assessment. In *Handbook of formative assessment*, 90-105. https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/hivolda-ebooks/detail.action?pq-origsite=primo&docID=455487

Ballantyne, R., Hughes, K., & Mylonas, A. (2002). Developing procedures for implementing peer assessment in large classes using an action research process, *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *27*(5), 427-441. https://doi.org/10.1080/0260293022000009302

Birenbaum, M. (2003). New insights into learning and teaching and their implications for assessment. In M. Segers, F. Dochy, & E. Cascallar (Eds.), *Optimising new modes of assessment: In search of qualities and standards* (pp. 13–36). Kluwer Academic Publishers. https://link.springer.com/book/10.1007/0-306-48125-1#page=25

Borgmeier, C., Loman, S. L. & Hara, M. (2016). Teacher self-assessment of evidence-based classroom practices: preliminary findings across primary, intermediate and secondary level teachers, *Teacher Development, 20* (1), 40-56. https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2015.1105863

Brown, G. T., & Harris, L. R. (2013). Student self-assessment. In *The SAGE handbook of research on classroom assessment*, 367-393. https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/hivolda-ebooks/detail.action?pq-origsite=primo&docID=1207749

Canh, L. V. (2014). Great expectations: The TESOL practicum as a professional learning experience. *TESOL Journal, 5*(2), 199-224. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.103

Cheng, W., & Warren, M. (2005). Peer assessment of language proficiency. *Language Testing, 22(1),* 93-121. https://doi.org/10.1191/0265532205lt298oa

Collier, S.T. (1999). Characteristics of reflective thought during the student teaching experience. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *50*(3), 173-181. https://doi.org/10.1177/002248719905000303

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008*). Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures* *for developing grounded theory*. Sage Publications.

Cosh, J. (1999). Peer observation: a reflective model. *ELT Journal*, *53*(1), 22-27. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/53.1.22

Crossley, J., & Jolly, B. (2012). Making sense of work-based assessment: Ask the right questions, in the right way, about the right things, of the right people. *Medical Education, 46*(1), 28–37. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.2011.04166.x

Davies, P. (2000). Computerized peer assessment, *Innovations in Education and Training International*, *37*(4), 346–355. https://doi.org/10.1080/135580000750052955

Davis, E. A. (2006). Characterising productive reflection among preservice elementary teachers: Seeing what matters. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *22*(3), 281-301. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2005.11.005

Deering, T. (2011). How should we evaluate student teachers? *Critical Questions in Education*, *2*(2), 66-73. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1047572.pdf

De Grez, L., Valcke, M., & Roozen, I. (2012). How effective are self- and peer assessment of oral presentation skills compared with teachers' assessments? *Active Learning in Higher Education*, *13*(2), 129–142. https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787412441284

Dochy, E., Segers, M., & Sluusmans, D. (1999). The use of self-, peer and co-assessment in higher education: A review. *Studies in Higher Education*, *24*(3), 331-350. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079912331379935

Ducharme, E., Ducharme, M., & Dunkin, M. J. (2017). Teacher education: Historical overview, international perspective. https://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/2479/Teacher-Education.html.

Field, H. (1979). Competency-based teacher education (CBTE): A review of the literature. *British Journal of In-Service Education, 6*(1), 39-42. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305763790060109

Gale, K., Martin, K., & Mcqueen, G. (2002). Triadic assessment. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 27*(6), 557–67. https://doi.org/10.1080/0260293022000020318

Gan, Z. (2014). Learning from interpersonal interactions during the practicum: A case study of non-native ESL student teachers. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*, *40*(2), 128-139. https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2013.869969

Gillie, A.C., (1974). Competency-based Teacher Education, *American Vocational Journal, 49*(4), 1-30. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ094266

Greiman, B., & Covington, H. (2007). Reflective thinking and journal writing: Examining student teachers' perceptions of preferred reflective modality, journal writing outcomes, and journal structure. *Career and Technical Education Research*, *32*(2), 115-139. https://doi.org/10.5328/CTER32.2.115

Gulikers, J. T. M., Baartman, L. K. J., & Biemans, H. J. A. (2010). Facilitating evaluations of innovative, competence-based assessments: Creating understanding and involving multiple stakeholders. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 33*(2), 120–127. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2009.07.002

Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching*. Longman ELT.

Hanrahan, S. J., & Isaacs, G. (2001). Assessing self-and peer assessment: The students' views. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *20*(1), 53–69. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360123776

Houston R.W., & Brown, K.W., (1975). Competency-based instructional systems: Past, present and future. *Journal of Industrial teacher Education*, *12*(4).

Howell, D. C. (2002). *Statistical methods for psychology*. Duxbury.

Jay, J. K., & Johnson, K.L. (2002). Capturing complexity: A typology of reflective practice for teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *18*(1), 73-85. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(01)00051-8

Jonsson, A., & Svingby, G. (2007). The use of scoring rubrics: Reliability, validity, and educational consequences. *Educational Research Review*, *2*(2), 130–144. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2007.05.002

Kearney, S. (2013). Improving engagement: The use of authentic self-and peer-assessment for learning to enhance the student learning experience. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *38*(7), 875-891. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2012.751963

Kiliç, D. (2016). An Examination of using self-, peer-, and teacher-assessment in higher education: A case study in teacher education. *Higher Education Studies*, *6*(1), 136-144. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1099387

Langan, A.M., Shuker, D.M., Cullen, W.R, Penney, D. Preziosi, R.F., & Wheater, C.P. (2008). Relationships between student characteristics and self-, peer and tutor evaluations of oral presentations. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *33*(2), 179–190. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930701292498

Leshem, S., & Bar-Hama, R. (2008). Evaluating teaching practice, *English Language Teaching Journal*, 62(3), 257-265. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccm020

Longhurst, N. & Norton, L.S. (1997). Self-assessment in coursework essays. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 23*(4), 319-330.

Lurie, S. J. (2012). History and practice of competency-based assessment. *Medical education*, *46*(1), 49-57. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.2011.04142.x

Magin, D., & Helmore, P. (2001). Peer and teacher assessments of oral presentation skills:

How reliable are they? *Studies in Higher Education*, *26*(3), 287-298. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070120076264

McMillan, J. H. (2001). Secondary teachers' classroom assessment and grading practices. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice*, *20*(1), 20-32. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-3992.2001.tb00055.x

Matsuno, S. (2009). Self-, peer-, and teacher-assessments in Japanese university EFL writing classrooms. *Language Testing*, *29*(1), 75–100. https://doi.org/10.1177/026553220809733

Merç, A. (2015). Assessing the performance in EFL teaching practicum: Student teachers' views. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(2), 44-56. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1060561

Oldfield, K. A. & Macalpine, J. M. K. (1995). Peer and self-assessment at the tertiary level - an experiential report, *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, *20(1)*, 125-132. https://doi.org/10.1080/0260293950200113

Oren, F. S. (2018). Self, peer and teacher assessments: What is the level of relationship between them? *European Journal of Education Studies, 4(7), 1-16*. https://oapub.org/edu/index.php/ejes/article/view/1661/4293

Orsmond, P., Merry, S. & Reiling, K. (1996). The importance of marking criteria in peer assessment. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 21*(3), 239–49. https://doi.org/10.1080/0260293960210304

Patri, M. (2002). The influence of peer feedback on self and peer assessment of oral skills. *Language Testing, 19*(2), 109-131. https://doi.org/10.1191/0265532202lt224oa

Ross, J. A. (2006). The reliability, validity, and utility of self-assessment. *Practical Assessment Research & Evaluation*, *11*(1). https://doi.org/10.7275/9wph-vv65

Rudy, D. W., Fejfar, M. C., Griffith III, C. H., & Wilson, J. F. (2001). Self-and peer assessment in a first-year communication and interviewing course. *Evaluation & the Health Professions, 24*(4), 436-445. https://doi.org/10.1177/016327870102400405

Sadeghi, K., & Abolfazli Khonbi, Z. (2015). Iranian university students' experiences of and attitudes towards alternatives in assessment. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *40*(5), 641-665. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2014.941324

Saito, H., & Fujita, T. (2004) Characteristics and user acceptance of peer rating in EFL writing classrooms. *Language Teaching Research*, *8*(1), 31-54. https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168804lr133oa

Sedumedi, T. D. T., & Mundalamo, F. J. (2012). Understanding field assessment of pre-service teachers on school practicum. *Africa Education Review, 9*(1), 73-90. https://doi.org/10.1080/18146627.2012.755247

Segers, M. & Dochy, F. (2001). New assessment forms in problem-based learning: The value added of the students' perspective. *Studies in Higher Education, 26*(3), 327–43. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070120076291

Seifert, T., & Feliks, O. (2019). Online self-assessment and peer-assessment as a tool to enhance student teachers' assessment skills. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *44*(2), 169-185. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2018.1487023

Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. Basic Books.

Smith, K., & Lev-Ari, L. (2005). The place of the practicum in pre-service teacher education: The voice of the students. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *33*(3), 289–302. https://doi.org/10.1080/13598660500286333

Somervell, H. (1993). Issues in assessment, enterprise, and higher education: The case for self-, peer and collaborative assessment, *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, *18*(3), 221-233. https://doi.org/10.1080/0260293930180306

Stanley, C. (1998). A framework for teacher reflectivity. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(3), 584-587. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588129

Tan, K. H. K. (2012). *Student self-assessment. Assessment, learning and empowerment.* Singapore: Research Publishing.

Ward, J.R., & McCotter, S. (2004). Reflection as a visible outcome for preservice teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *20*(3), 243-257. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2004.02.004

Watts, M., & Lawson, M. (2009). Using a meta-analysis activity to make critical reflection explicit in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *25*(5), 609-616. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2008.11.019

Wolffensperger, Y., & Patkin, D. (2013). Self-assessment of self-assessment in a process of co-teaching. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *38*(1), 16-33. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2011.596925

Yost, D. S., Sentner, S. M., & Forlenza-Bailey, A. (2000). An examination of the construct of critical reflection: Implications for teacher education programming in the 21st century. *Journal of teacher education*, *51*(1), 39-39. https://doi.org/10.1177/002248710005100105

Appendix I

The phases of the research

Phase	Session	Course Content
		Main themes
1. Teacher Education	1	- Learner differences, traits of a successful eacher, teacher skills and knowledge, classroom management
	2	- Teaching grammar, teaching vocabulary, teaching pronunciation
	3	- Teaching reading, teaching writing
	4	- Teaching speaking, teaching listening
2. Preparation		Student teachers …
	(20 day gap)	- selected a lesson
		- developed a lesson plan
		- consulted with the teacher educator
		- watched the model teaching practices
		- practiced the lesson and got prepared for the actual practicum
3. Practicum	5-13	Teaching practicums (30 minutes each)
4. Multiple- Assessment	5-13	Assessments through the TOI* (5 minutes each)
		student teachers' and teacher educator's interactive oral assessment (10 minutes for each teaching practice)
		Student-teacher's comparison of all assessments
5. Course Evaluation	14, 15	Semi-structured interview
		attitude questionnaire

* TOI (Teacher Observation Instrument) which was developed from the dos and don’ts in the first phase

Appendix II.

Teacher Observation Instrument (TOI)

	Items/ criteria	5 SA	4 A	3 NI	2 SD	1 D
1	She/he had a good **first impression** on the students.					
2	She/he talked clearly about the objective and **purpose of the lesson**.					
3	The teacher's **warm up** could involve the students and reveal the purpose of the lesson.					
4	She/he used the instructional strategies and activities that reflected attention to students' experience, preparedness, and **prior knowledge**.					
5	She/he encouraged a **collaborative approach** to learning among the students.					
6	She/he devoted adequate time for every activity **(time management)**.					
7	The teacher appeared **confident** in his/her ability to teach.					
8	The teacher's **classroom management** style/strategies enhanced the quality of the lesson.					
9	The **pace of the lesson** was appropriate. The teacher had balanced speed in all the steps of instruction.					
10	The teacher was able to **"read" the students' level of understanding** and adjusted instruction accordingly.					
11	The teacher's **questions** could enhance students' understanding/problem solving					
12	The teacher used all sorts of questions including questions that made the students think on the answer (**higher level of cognition**)					
13	The teacher waited enough for the students to answer the questions. (**enough wait time** after questions)					
14	The teachers' **questions were clear** to understand.					
15	The teacher could **engage all the students** into the lesson.					
16	There was a climate of **respect for students'** ideas and questions.					
17	Teacher encouraged **interactions (student/s with students/s & teacher with student/s)**.					
18	The teacher used a good warm up, went on to the main lesson and concluded well. (**lesson plan**)					

	Items/ criteria	5 SA	4 A	3 NI	2 SD	1 D
19	The teacher used the **audio visual resources** (e.g. cassette player, computer,…) very well.					
20	Teacher could create **fun** in the class (a lively class) so that students learn better.					
21	The teacher had **mastery on English** (fluency and accuracy).					
22	The teacher had **knowledge** of the subject matter.					
23	She/he used **body gestures** (e.g. clapping, snapping fingers,…) to make students attend.					
24	She/he established **a friendly rapport** with students.					
25	She/he **did not interrupt nor interfere** the students' activities or responses.					
26	The teacher used variety in his/her **tone of voice**.					
27	The teacher was **fair and even-handed** in treating with students.					
28	The teacher was **aware of** what was happening in her/his class and what the students thought.					
29	She/he **moved around** the class in the right way and the right time.					
30	The teachers' **voice** was **audible** (easy to hear, loud and clear).					
31	The teacher was **conservative in energy** and breathing (did not spend too much energy).					
32	She/he could **rough-tune his/her language** at the level of the students.					
33	The teacher used **repetition** in the right time and appropriately.					
34	**Classroom activities** were **meaningful**.					
35	She/he could **personalize students' learning**.					
36	She/he used the **whiteboard** appropriately.					
37	She/he had a **legible handwriting**.					
38	The teacher's **instructions were clear** for the students to understand.					
39	The teacher provided **enough examples and exercises** for the lesson to contextualize the lesson content.					
40	She/he used **pictures in the book** in the best way.					
41	The teacher had **eye contact** with every student. She did not have a blind spot.					

Appendix III

Semi-structured Interview Questions

(Congruence)

After comparing your self-assessment with your peers' and your teacher educator's,

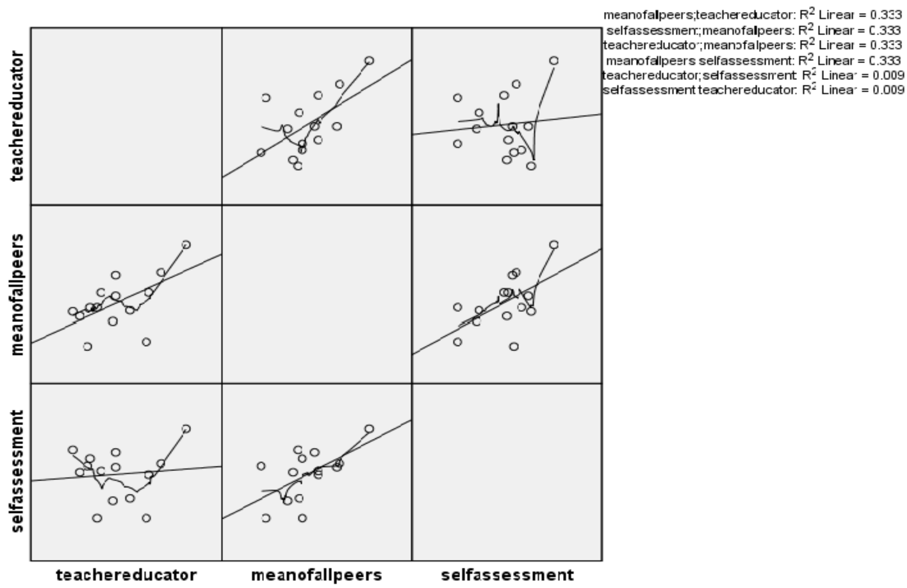
1. Did you see the congruence between your self- and peer assessment?
2. Did you see your own assessment in line with your teacher's?
3. Did you see your peers' assessment in line with your teacher's?

1. (Attitude)

4. To what extent do you think peers assessment has been fair to you? Explain.
5. What did you like or dislike about this course?
6. To what extent do you think your peers' assessment should be taken into your teacher's consideration? Explain your reasons.
7. To what extent do you think your self-assessment should be taken into your teacher's consideration? Explain.

Appendix IV

Figure 1 Multiple Scatterplot for Self, Peer-group and Teacher educator



Journal of
Language Horizons

LGHOR

Scientific Quarterly Journal of Language Horizons, ***Alzahra University***
Volume 7, Issue 4,Winter 2024
Research Article
pp. 37-62

A Cross-Move Analysis of Interactional Metadiscourse Markers in Abstracts of Local and International Journals of History

Mavadat Saidi[1]
Niloofar Karami[2]

Received: 14/09/2022 Accepted: 30/04/2023

Abstract
The current study aimed to explore the generic organization of research article (RA) abstracts published in the Iranian local and international history journals. To this end, a corpus of 80 RA abstracts (40 local and 40 international) were scrutinized in terms of their constituent moves based on Hyland's (2000) five-move model. Additionally, the study examined the interactional metadiscourse markers across various local and international abstract moves, using Hyland's (2005) interpersonal metadiscourse model. The results of the genre analysis revealed a high frequency of introduction and purpose moves in local abstracts, as well as introduction, purpose, and product moves in the international corpus. The analysis of interactional metadiscourse markers revealed that boosters were the most frequently occurring category in the two groups of abstracts. Nevertheless, hedges were more frequently used by the local authors while the international researchers made a higher use of self-mentions. The results revealed the informed subjectivity and venue-based patterns of interaction at the service of presenting a persuasive account of the research objectives and outcomes in the field of history. The findings have pedagogical implications for EAP courses that aim to equip novice members of the history discourse community with the tools necessary to adhere to generic and interactional conventions.

Keywords: genre analysis, interactional metadiscourse markers, research article abstracts

[1] English Language Department, Shahid Rajaee Teacher Training University, Tehran, Iran
[2] English Language Department, Shahid Rajaee Teacher Training University, Tehran, Iran

DOI: 10.22051/lghor.2023.41767.1738

Introduction

Completing tasks in academic discourse communities requires learners to master the linguistic and discursive norms (Gessesse, 2016). On the other hand, promoting the novice members' status in their academic and professional communities is possible if they publish their research findings in scholarly journals in their field of study (El-Dakhs, 2018). To this end, familiarity with the generic construction of academic research articles is instrumental in inspiring and boosting complete confidence in their research activities (Suntara & Usaha, 2013).

Being informed of the generic conventions enables novice researchers to adhere to existing writing norms and speed up their alliance with their community experts (El-Dakhs, 2018; Pho, 2008). These instructional and practical contributions to academic literacy development have emphasized the critical role of genre analysis in English for academic purposes (EAP) courses offered to students from various disciplines.

EAP courses are an indispensable part of the academic curricula, aiming to bridge the gap between general English knowledge and discipline-specific English competency of university students (Atai, 2002). Needs analysis research has highlighted the considerable role of writing skills in the students' academic literacy in EAP courses (Atai & Asadi, 2013; Atai & Shoja, 2011; Shahini & Riazi, 2001) where the goal of the learners is to use English in a particular domain (Paltridge & Starfield, 2013). Accordingly, writing lies at the very heart of EAP. However, non-native members of academic communities face obstacles in adhering to the international editorial board standards (Flowerdew, 2008). Knowing the generic conventions empower EFL learners to resolve difficulties and comply with the standard discursive practices.

As one of the important academic genres, a research article abstract serves as a screening device (Huckin, 2006) for an article to be accepted or rejected and acts as the primary locus of flaunting the novelty of the research (Hyland, 2009) and giving a concise summary of a serious academic endeavor (Tankó, 2017). Considering the critical role of abstracts in determining the ultimate fate of the manuscripts, various models have been proposed to investigate its move structure (Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2000; Santos, 1996; Swales, 1990) with Hyland's (2000) five-move framework serving as a comprehensive one, encompassing introduction, purpose, method, product, and conclusion moves (Ghasempour & Farnia, 2017).

All these frameworks have proposed a set of generic principles for the structural organization of RA abstracts irrespective of discipline. However, subsequent studies have demonstrated that the structure of RA abstracts may bear significant variations across disciplines and languages (Kaya & Yağiz, 2020). For the most part, the focus has been on unraveling the organization of abstracts concerning the disciplinary or linguistic context. Few studies have compared the move structure of RA abstracts published in different locally and internationally published scholarly journals in one particular discipline (Saidi & Talebi, 2021). In a recent attempt, variations were observed in the organization of the RA abstracts, even between the local and international journals of applied linguistics, raising the question of whether there is variation between the local and international venues of research of other disciplines (Saidi & Talebi, 2021). In this regard, the journals published by Chabahar Maritime University and Elsevier related to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) were considered and the move patterns of their abstracts were compared. The results pointed to the higher degree of generic variations in the international corpus. To our knowledge, no study has yet addressed this question in the field of history. Thus, the current study sought to determine whether there were differences in the generic organization of RA abstracts in journals of history published locally and internationally. There appears to be no research on the generic norms that characterize the history of RA abstracts (Coffin, 2002).

On the other hand, patterns of interaction vary according to the disciplinary and generic contexts (Hyland, 2010). History as “a distinct form of knowledge” underlines the need for its community members’ repertoire of persuasive discursive practices (Coffin, 2002, p. 3). It can no longer be considered a factual record of the past because it has been encapsulated in an explanatory and interpretive form, relying on specific lexico-grammatical resources to convince readers of the true value of its narratives (Blanco & Rosa, 1997).

Those novice members yearning to become acculturated in such a discourse community must master the rhetorical devices and textual tools required to express their attitudinal stances and simultaneously conform to the specific academic norms of interaction in their own discipline (Hatipoğlu, 2007). A comprehensive model is needed to unfold the interactional subtleties among the academic community members (Fu & Hyland, 2014). In this regard, Hyland's (2004) notion of interactional metadiscourse seems to fit as it untangles "the writer's efforts to control the level of personality in a text" (p.139) and divulges the author-reader pattern of interaction. Metadiscourse markers provide the authors with the required resources to organize their propositions and establish a link with their audience (Hyland, 2000). They are divided into two major categories of linguistic tools including interactive ones which enable the writers to connect the presented statements in a coherent and comprehensible way and interactional ones which facilitate the formulation of an interaction between the writers and their intended group of readers (Hyland, 2004).

Previous research has examined metadiscourse markers in various academic genres, including research articles (Abdi, 2002; Atai & Sadr, 2008; Hyland, 1996, 2005; Yağiz & Demir, 2015), book reviews (Hyland, 2004; Tse & Hyland, 2006; Gezegin, 2016; Junqueira & Cortes, 2014), and master and doctoral dissertations (Akoto, 2020; Hyland & Tse, 2005; Salahshoor & Afsari, 2017; Samraj, 2008). Moreover, various parts of academic research articles have been studied, including abstracts (Gillaerts, 2010), introductions (Rubio, 2011), and discussions (Faghih & Rahimpour, 2009).

Metadiscourse markers, like genre markers, have been scrutinized across multiple disciplines (Hyland, 2004; Tse & Hyland, 2006) and languages (Gezegin, 2016; Junqueira & Cortes, 2014). Nevertheless, the literature review demonstrates a dearth of research on the use of interactional metadiscourse markers across the moves of the abstracts published in local and international history research venues (El-Dakhs, 2018). In filling this void, the current study further explored whether RA abstracts in history differ between the local and international journals in terms of the interactional metadiscourse markers across their moves.

Review of Literature

Genre Analysis of Research Article Abstracts

Abstracts as "major scholastic enterprise" (Seidlehofer, 1995, p.2) allow the authors to present the synopsis of their academic contribution (Tankó, 2017) and manifest the novelty of their study (Hyland, 2009). The authors become involved in the successful commercialization of their research by writing a well-organized abstract (Saidi & Talebi, 2021).

Numerous models have been proposed for analyzing the generic constituents of the abstracts. Swales (1990) identified Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion (IMRD) moves. Bhatia (1993) put forth another categorization and considered introducing purpose, describing methodology, summarizing results, and presenting conclusions concerning the four moves of the abstracts. Santos (1996) added one move and provided a five-move framework, including situating the research, presenting the research, describing the method, summarizing the results, and discussing the results. Similarly, Hyland (2000) presented a five-move model encompassing Introduction, Purpose, Method, Product, and Conclusion (IPMPrC).

A wide range of studies has attempted to analyze the genre of RA abstracts in light of Hyland's (2000) framework. In one study, Saeeaw (2014) conducted a genre analysis of RA abstracts in environmental science and applied linguistics and demonstrated the prevalence of the purpose, method, product, and conclusion moves. Furthermore, Sidek et al. (2016) examined the generic structure of abstracts from conference proceedings in applied linguistics and linguistics and discovered that authors emphasized the purpose, method, and product moves. Likewise, Darabad (2016) compared the RA abstracts in applied linguistics, applied mathematics, and applied chemistry in their generic constituents and showed the frequency of purpose and product moves.

Adopting the same framework, El-Dakhs (2018) compared the RA abstracts published in less prestigious and more prestigious journals in linguistics and revealed the general conformity of the RA abstracts to the five-move model. The analysis results demonstrated that less prestigious journals included abstracts with a lengthier introduction, purpose, and method moves while abstracts in more prestigious ones focused on reporting the research outcomes in the form of longer product moves. Saidi and Talebi (2021) conducted a recent study comparing the RA abstracts published in a local and an international journal dedicated to English for academic purposes as a subfield of applied linguistics. The findings indicated that the two corpora frequently used purpose, method, and product moves. Nevertheless, varied move patterns were found across RA abstracts in the two sets of abstracts. The existing literature indicates the focus on different disciplines and subdisciplines of social sciences. However, it appears as though no study has addressed the generic norms that govern abstracts in the field of history (Coffin, 2002).

Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse refers to "the interpersonal resources used to organize a discourse or the writer's stance towards its content or the reader" (Hyland, 2000, p.109). It entails a wide range of linguistic features to launch, continue, and finish the arguments and comply with the audience's expectations to establish a successful relationship and achieve the intended interpretation. Metadiscourse resources may carry textual or interpersonal meanings and forms (Vande Kopple, 1985) and unfold the patterns of interaction across various contexts (Hyland, 2017).

Textual interactive interaction is concerned with how the information is organized, and the ideas are connected by employing such rhetorical resources as transition, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidential, and code glosses. On the other hand, interactional interaction entails formulating an interaction with the intended audience and presenting the authors' assessment of the presented ideas (Hyland, 2004). The interactional metadiscourse resources reveal "the writer's efforts to control the level of personality in a text and establish a suitable relationship to his/her data, arguments, and audience" reflecting the author-reader interaction (Hyland, 2004, p.139) and encompass such rhetorical devices including hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, and self-mentions. They untangle the cooperative framework injected into the text to transfer certain bulk of information to the readers' minds (Bal-Gezegin & Baş, 2020).

Drawing on metadiscourse framework, a more significant number of studies have focused on revealing the interpersonal and textual patterns of interaction across various academic genres, namely research articles (Abdi, 2002; Atai & Sadr, 2008; Hyland, 1996, 2005; Yağiz & Demir, 2015), MA and Ph.D. theses (Akoto, 2020; Tse & Hyland, 2006; Salahshoor & Afsari, 2017; Samraj, 2008), book reviews (Hyland, 2004; Tse & Hyland, 2006; Gezegin, 2016; Junqueira & Cortes, 2014), and non-academic genres, such as newspaper articles (Dafouz-Milne, 2003, 2008), and popular science articles (Saidi & Karami, 2020). Moreover, the frequency of metadiscourse markers was examined in research article subsections, including abstracts (Gillaerts, 2010), introductions (Rubio, 2011), and discussion sections (Faghih & Rahimpour, 2009).

Furthermore, numerous scholars have tried to reveal the metadiscourse devices in academic genres across different disciplines. Marandi (2003) compared the frequency of metadiscourse markers in Persian and English Master's theses and found variations of such categories as connectives, hedges, attributors, and persona markers across three corpora written by native Persian speakers, non-native Iranian English speakers, and native English speakers. Tse and Hyland (2006) analyzed book reviews in sociology, philosophy, and biology and discovered that the corpus of philosophy research articles contained a higher frequency of interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers. In addition, Faghih and Rahimpour investigated the discussion sections of applied linguistics research articles written in English and Persian in terms of the frequency of metadiscourse markers. They found out that interactive metadiscourse markers were more frequently used by both groups of authors. McGrath and Kuteeva (2012) revealed the low frequency of hedges and attitude markers by taking a corpus of math research articles. In another study, Salahshoor and Afsari (2017) explored the frequency of interactional metadiscourse markers in the discussion and conclusion sections of natural and social science master theses. They found out that social science master theses contained more interactional metadiscourse markers than natural science master theses. Besides, the hedges were the most frequent category in both groups of theses, while attitude markers and self-mentions were the least prevalent ones in social science and natural science corpus, respectively. Additionally, Jalilifar, Hayati, and Don (2018) compared book reviews and blurbs from four disciplines of applied linguistics, literature, history, and psychology and discovered that metadiscourse markers were genre-specific rather than discipline-specific.

However, a review of the existing literature reveals a dearth of research on history research articles. Previous studies have focused on exploring the interactional resources in academic writing across various disciplines, excluding history (Coffin, 2002). The current study aimed to fill this void by analyzing the metadiscursive practices of academics in the local and international community of history experts.

Method

Corpus

The corpus included 80 abstracts from four leading journals in the field of history on the national and international scales. A list of highly ranked prestigious journals at the local and international scales was prepared based on the impact factors. The list was given to two associate professors and two PhD candidate in the field of history. The highly recommended journals (which enjoyed high impact factors and accessibility of full-text articles) were listed and were given to two associate professors. The final journal selection was based on the expert judgment of two associate professors in the field of history who were active researchers in their field. Only the abstracts published between 2020 and 2021 were included in the corpus to prevent data contamination resulting from the impact of the publication date (Atai & Habibie, 2012).

As a result, 40 RA abstracts were selected from two internationally published journals, *Public Opinion Quarterly* and *Comparative Studies in Society and History*. *Public Opinion Journal* is an academic journal published by Oxford University Press and is among the most frequently cited journals. *Comparative Studies in Society and History* is also a peer-reviewed journal published quarterly by Cambridge University Press. Additionally, 40 RA abstracts were selected from the archive of two locally published journals in Iran, *Journal of Historical Research* and *Journal of Historical Sciences Studies*. Both are peer-reviewed academic journals that are indexed in the Islamic World Science Citation Center (ISC). We extracted titles, keywords, and author affiliations from 80 RA abstracts and created the local and international corpora.

Data Analysis Procedures

In order to identify the generic organization of the RA abstracts, Hyland's (2000) five-move model was applied. As a comprehensive framework, it divides the abstracts into five moves, including introduction (establishing the background of the study), purpose (stating the objectives and questions addressed in the study), method (outlining the design, data collection, and analysis procedures), product (reporting the major outcomes), and conclusion (elaborating on the theoretical and practical contributions of the findings).

We relied on existing literature (Saidi & Talebi, 2021) to distinguish between conventional and optional moves, classifying those with a frequency of more than 60% as conventional and those with less than 60% as optional. Both researchers analyzed the RA abstracts, and inter-coder reliability of 0.96 was achieved. Before the data were finalized, the areas of disagreement were negotiated, and the frequency and percentage values were calculated. A chi-square test was used to observe the existence of a significant difference between the two sets of RA abstracts published in local and international history journals.

As for the second purpose of the study, Hyland's (2005) model of metadiscourse was employed. Hyland considered two groups of resources encompassing interactive and interactional (See Table 1).

Table 1

Hyland's model of metadiscourse (Hyland, 2005, p. 49)

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	Help to guide the reader through the text	Resources
Transition	Express relations between main clause	In addition; but; thus; and
Frame markers	Refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages	Finally; to conclude; my purpose is
Endophoric markers	Refer to information in other parts of the texts	Noted above; see fig.; in section 2
Evidentials	Refer to information from other texts	According to x; z states
Code glosses	Elaborate propositional meanings	Namely; e.g.; such as; in other words
Interactional	Involve the reader in the text	Resources
Hedges	Withhold commitment and open dialogue	Might; perhaps; possible; but
Booster	Emphasize certainty or close dialogue	In fact; definitely; it is clear that
Attitude markers	Express writer's attitude to proposition	Unfortunately; I agree; surprisingly
Engagement markers	Explicitly build relationship with reader	Consider; note; you can see that
Self-mentions	Explicit reference to author(s)	I; we; my; our

While interactive metadiscourse markers enable the authors to cherish the cohesion and organization of the text, the interactional metadiscourse markers impart the authors' attitudes towards the topic under study along with the intended audience. Interactional metadiscourse markers entail five subcategories of hedges (displaying academic modesty and reticence), boosters (highlighting the claims and achievements), attitude markers (appraising or dispraising propositions), engagement markers (demonstrating the authors' solidarity with the readers), and self-mentions (taking an authorial stance). Two researchers coded the interactional metadiscourse markers in each move of the RA abstracts to achieve the second study objective. Inter-coder reliability of 0.99 demonstrated the researchers' consensus over the data analysis. The nuances were negotiated and removed, and the frequency plus percentage values were calculated and reported.

Results and Discussion

Move Occurrence

In order to identify the moves of the RA abstracts within the two corpora, Hyland's (2000) model was applied. Table 2 displays the frequency and percentage values of the moves in the RA abstracts published in local and international journals in the history field.

Table 2

Frequency and percentage values of moves in abstracts of local and international journals in the field of history

Moves	Local Journals		International Journals	
	F	P(%)	F	P(%)
Introduction	40	100	35	87.5
Purpose	38	95	34	85
Method	13	32.5	14	35
Product	21	52.5	30	75
Conclusion	13	32.5	25	62.5

The comparison of the frequency of each move revealed that introduction and purpose moves were prevalent in the local corpus, while introduction, purpose, and product moves were common in the international corpus. The authors of RA abstracts in the field of history appear to have been informed of the significance of the first two moves, which may reflect the authors' proclivity to emphasize the existing void before presenting the research horizon (Kaya & Yağiz, 2020).

The inclusion of the introduction move in all local abstracts and most of the international ones may indicate the emerging nature of the discipline (Atai & Habibie, 2012; Ozturk, 2007). Indeed, researchers in emerging disciplines tend to underscore the necessary background for perceiving the new research products presented in the entire paper. The high prevalence of the introduction move corroborated El-Dakhs's (2018) genre analysis of RA abstracts in less and more prestigious journals in the field of linguistics and contradicted previous research indicating that this move was optional (Darabad, 2016; Saeeaw 2014; Sidek et al., 2016; Saidi & Talebi, 2021). Following the introduction move, the purpose enjoyed a high frequency of occurrence. However, the product move was included in 30 international abstracts while its low frequency of occurrence failed to place this move among the conventional ones within the local corpus. In fact, local authors frequently kept their readers in suspense until they reached the end of the paper. The obligatory nature of the purpose move in local and international corpora corroborated previous research on this genre in various natural and social sciences (Darabad, 2016; El-Dakhs, 2018; Saeeaw, 2014; Saidi & Talebi, 2021; Sidek et al., 2016).

Furthermore, the product and conclusion moves had a lower frequency of occurrence in the local abstracts and conclusion moves in the international corpus, indicating that the local authors were unaware of the importance of the remaining moves in attracting the scholarly audience's attention (Kaya & Yağiz, 2020). On the other hand, the low frequency of the conclusion move in both corpora may refer to the authors' focus on presenting their research rather than elaborating on its theoretical and practical contribution to the field.

The chi-square test was conducted to observe any significant difference between the history RA abstracts in locally and internationally published journals regarding their constituent moves (See Table 3).

Table 3

Results of Chi-square tests for comparing the history RA abstracts in local and international journals in terms of their constituent moves

Chi-square test of independence	Value	Df	Sig.
Local vs. International Abstracts	5.341	4	0.254

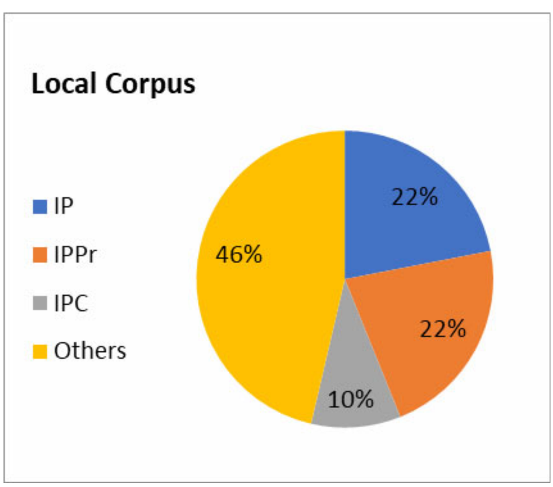
According to Table 3, no significant difference was found between the two corpora regarding the constituent moves of history RA abstracts implying that the authors of both local and international journals in history adhered to the seemingly similar generic norms in writing RA abstracts. In this regard, the results were commensurate with the existing bulk of research, which revealed no significant difference between the locally and internationally published RA abstracts (El-Dakhs, 2018; Saidi & Talebi, 2021).

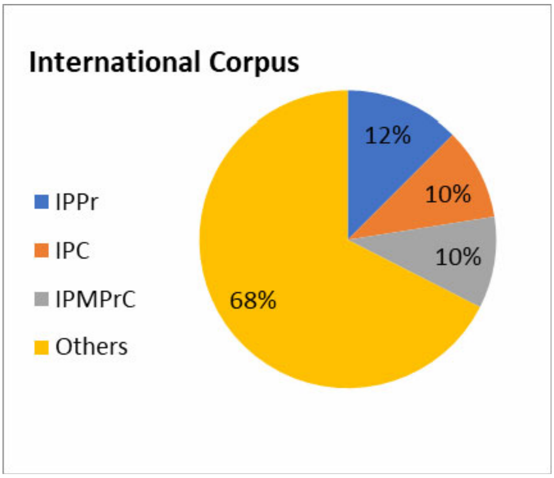
Move Patterns

The study also focused on exploring the most frequent move patterns in the two corpora to complement and supplement the results of the previous phase. Figure 1 shows the variations in the move patterns of the local and international history RA abstracts.

Figure 1

Percentage of the most frequent move patterns in the local and international journals RA abstracts (I: Introduction, P: Purpose, M: Method, Pr: Product, C: Conclusion)





As shown in Figure 1, the frequent move patterns were IP, IPPr, and IPC in the local RA abstracts and IPPr, IPC, and IPMPrC in the international corpus. The results indicated that RA abstracts contained 16 and 26 move patterns in the local and international corpora, respectively, indicating that the generic structure of RA abstracts in local and international journals in the field of history varied by 40% and 75%. This may betoken the presence of various generic norms across different research venues within a field of study (Saidi & Talebi, 2021).

The researchers tended to highlight the required background and what the study added to it through including the introduction and purpose moves in both corpora. They preferred to omit the rest of the moves to save more space for elaborating on these two components. This may root in the word limitation set by the journals for writing abstracts. Moreover, the authors may presume that their scholarly audience would pursue their interest and read the full paper provided that the background and purpose were clearly presented. Indeed, this may refer to the history experts' intentional discursive practices to emphasize particular parts of their research work (Kaya & Yağiz, 2020). This corroborated the low degree of generic variation among the RA abstracts in the local journals compared to the ones in international venues of research (Saidi & Talebi, 2021).

In general, the analysis of move patterns across the local and international journals revealed that the authors followed their own generic conventions regardless of the prevailing move patterns in academic communities (i.e., IPMPrC). Hence, it might be said that Hyland's (2000) model failed to account for the generic construction of RA abstracts in the field of history, either in local or international communities.

Interactional Metadiscourse Markers

The study further attempted to investigate the interactional metadiscourse markers in RA abstracts published in local and international journals in the history field. Table 4 displays the frequency and percentages of interactional metadiscourse markers in the two corpora.

Table 4

Frequency and percentages of interactional metadiscourse markers in the RA abstracts in local and international journals of history

Interactional metadiscourse markers	Local Journals		International Journals	
	F	P(%)	F	P(%)
Hedges	20	29.85	29	17.36
Boosters	31	46.26	65	38.9
Attitude Markers	3	4.47	12	7.1
Engagement Markers	3	4.47	1	0.59
Self-mentions	10	14.92	60	35.9
Total	67	100	167	100

The presence of interactional metadiscourse markers confirmed the existing literature in that the interpersonal meanings were embedded in the academic writings of social sciences (Jalilifar et al., 2018; Salahshoor & Afsari, 2017; Tse & Hyland, 2006). The interactional metadiscourse markers used to express personal and attitudinal stance in the abstracts challenged the widely held belief in academic discourse's impersonal, objective nature (Conrad & Biber, 2000). Indeed, the existence of a set of textual principles persuading their audience in social sciences in general (Coffin, 2002) and in history in particular (Blanco & Rosa, 1997) was validated in the current study. The findings disputed the existing claims about the pure objectivity in history (Coffin, 2002) and revealed the value-laden account of the historical academic outcomes (Farmer & Knight, 1995).

As Table 4 indicates, the most frequent category of interactional metadiscourse markers was boosters in the local and international RA abstracts. Following this category, hedges were more frequently used by the local authors while the international researchers took advantage of more self-mentions in writing the RA abstracts. This might imply that the authors of both corpora considered the significance of employing boosters at the service of commercializing their full paper to highlight the key points of their studies. However, the authors of the local RA abstracts seemed to be cautious in claiming their own academic territory by including a more significant number of hedges. In contrast, those of the international RA abstracts took more personal stances towards their own findings and presented the summary of their research by making more use of self-mentions.

The general studies on interactional metadiscourse markers in social sciences academic discourse have revealed the high occurrence of hedges (Salahshoor & Afshari, 2017). Contrarily, the findings demonstrated the high frequency of boosters in the two corpora. This may imply the discipline-dependent nature of metadiscourse besides its genre-based variation (Jalilifar et al., 2018). This was further substantiated by the prevalence of self-mentions in the RA abstracts in the field of history, as a representative of the social sciences discourse community, which contradicted the low frequency of these devices in academic texts in natural sciences (Salahshoor & Afshari, 2017; McGrath & Kuteeva, 2012).

As Table 4 illustrates, a total number of 67 and 167 interactional metadiscourse markers were identified in the local and international RA abstracts, respectively, which may refer to the international authors' higher tendency to take advantage of these rhetorical devices to establish communication with their scholarly audience. This was in line with Tse and Hyland's (2006) study results which demonstrated the interpersonal nature of academic writing in soft disciplines.

The study further aimed to investigate the distribution of interactional metadiscourse markers across various moves of history RA abstracts in the local and international corpus. Table 5 illustrates the frequency of interactional metadiscourse resources in five local and international RA abstracts move.

Table 5

Frequency of interactional metadiscourse markers in the RA abstracts in local (L) and international (I) journals of history

Markers/Moves	Introduction		Purpose		Method		Product		Conclusion	
	L	I	L	I	L	I	L	I	L	I
Hedges	8	15	1	3	0	1	6	3	5	7
Boosters	22	14	3	11	0	1	4	27	2	12
Attitude Markers	3	3	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	3
Engagement Markers	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Self-mentions	1	5	5	18	2	12	0	18	2	7
Total	36	37	9	35	2	14	10	51	10	30

The introduction move seemed to be loaded with these resources, and the boosters were the most prevalent category in both corpora, considering the frequency of interactional metadiscourse markers across five moves of the abstracts. Out of 67 and 167 interactional metadiscourse markers, 36 and 37 ones were included in the first move of the local and international RA abstracts, respectively. Out of these numbers, 22 and 14 boosters were used in the introduction move of the local and international abstracts, respectively. This might root in the authors' inclination to form a sound background of the study in their readers' minds. Indeed, the authors aimed to persuade their audience to embrace the truth value of their claims in the first move through including a more significant number of boosters. Some examples are presented below.

> *Heritage and modernity are among* ***the most challenging*** *and perhaps* ***the most sensitive*** *issues of the last two …………… (Historical Researches, 2021)*
>
> *At the beginning of the 20th century, Bushehr was* ***the most important*** *Iranian port in the Persian Gulf. (Historical Sciences Studies, 2021)*
>
> *……….. whose first children were girls rather than boys—daughters rather than sons—were* ***more likely*** *to support gender-equality policies. (Public Opinion Quarterly, 2020)*
>
> *Although Ottoman cities long have been recognized as sites of significant ethnic and religious heterogeneity,* ***very little*** *scholarship exists that documents or analyzes patterns of residential sorting, …………..*

(Comparative Studies in Society and History, 2021)

The international authors also included hedges to moderate their claims and accommodate the degree of certainty at the beginning of the article. Out of 37 interactional metadiscourse markers in the introduction move, 15 of them were hedges. In this way, they attempted to adhere to the widely held academic norms of modesty and objectivity. The epistemological nature of such soft disciplines as history may justify the authors' lenience towards lower degrees of certainty and rapt attention to the rubrics of impersonality in an academic context (Author, 2021). Some examples are as follows.

*These gaps **could** reveal that partisanship colors perception or, alternatively, that in answering survey questions, …………… (Public Opinion Quarterly, 2020)*

*This **can be** acceptable for many purposes. But there **may** be also good reasons to distinguish between them. (Comparative Studies in Society and History, 2021)*

The analysis revealed that the authors of the local RA abstracts used interactional metadiscourse markers significantly less frequently in the remaining moves (i.e., 9, 2, 10, and 10 in the purpose, method, product, and conclusion moves, respectively). In contrast, their international counterparts maintained the same pattern of interactional resource distribution as the first move throughout the remaining moves.

The purpose move of the international RA abstracts encompassed many self-mentions, which might imply the authors' tendency to adopt a personal stance on their research work. Out of 35 devices in the purpose move, 18 were self-mentions. It seemed that the authors attempted to establish their authorial stance when they stated the aim and objectives of their study.

*In this paper, **we** study the question of democratic accountability in the ……………......*

(Public Opinion Quarterly, 2020)

***I** compare how the groups at the bottom of these ethnic hierarchies………..*

(Comparative Studies in Society and History, 2020)

Likewise, their authorial presence was marked in the method move of the international RA abstracts due to the prevalence of self-mentions. In this sense, 12 out of 14 interactional markers belonged to self-mentions. This might root in the authors' propensity for marking their own territory.

> ***We*** *have been obliged to organize the exhibition around categories that did not correspond with the logic of the photographic archive………… (Comparative Studies in Society and History, 2021)*

Furthermore, the international authors showed a disposition to highlight their findings through inserting boosters in the fourth move. Accordingly, 27 out of 51 ones were boosters in the product move of the international corpus. Using these devices enabled the authors to draw the scholarly audience's attention to their outcomes and highlight their contributions to the academic community (Fu & Hyland, 2014).

> *African Americans responded by emphasizing racial discourses while Dalit mobilizations foregrounded* ***more porously*** *bordered community visions. These different circumstances enabled* ***more widespread*** *African American mobilization, but offered Dalits* ***more favorable*** *interethnic alliances, ……….... (Comparative Studies in Society and History, 2020)*
>
> *I argue that a group of bondsmen accused of rebelling against the chiefly household were* ***actually*** *seeking to preserve it …… (Comparative Studies in Society and History, 2021)*

The same trend was followed in the conclusion move of the international RA abstracts in which boosters were the most frequent category of interactional metadiscourse markers. In this sense, 12 out of 30 interactional markers in the final part of the abstracts were boosters. The researchers used these resources to wrap up their summary with a higher degree of certainty to persuade the readers to peruse the entire research article. In this way, they enticed their audience to welcome the recommendations and suggestions resulting from their research findings.

> *We suggest that paying attention to embodied reading—that is, readers' social entanglements with both language and materiality—yields a* ***fuller*** *analysis of what reading is, in particular, historical situations, and ultimately ………… (Comparative Studies in Society and History, 2021)*
>
> *Therefore, group representation and policy benefits increased* ***sooner*** *and more in India than in the United States, ……. (Comparative Studies in Society and History, 2021)*

Overall, the findings revealed the traces of interpersonality in the RA abstracts of a soft academic discipline (i.e., history). The results showed that the authors of international RA abstracts took more advantage of interactional metadiscourse resources than their local counterparts, implying the international history experts' cognizance of the role of these devices in their academic dialogic interactions (Hyland, 2005). The international authors seemed to have maintained control of the level of personality instilled in their research synopsis (Hyland, 2004), which confirmed the results of previous studies on the frequency and distribution of interactional resources in academic discursive practices (Fu & Hyland, 2014). Moreover, the results challenged the widely held view towards academic writing and revealed the informed subjectivity at the service of presenting a persuasive account of the research objectives and outcomes in the field of history. This was commensurate with the representation of authorial presence and visibility in soft disciplines discourse (Hyland, 2006). Academic texts in soft disciplines have proved to enjoy a "more interpretive" nature (Hyland, 2005, p.145), and interactional metadiscourse might serve as a discursive tool to fulfill these textual norms of the history of ?? academic discourse community.

Conclusion

The current study aimed to investigate the generic construction of RA abstracts published in Iranian local and international journals of history. Despite no significant difference observed between the two corpora regarding the constituent moves, the RA abstracts in the international journals displayed a higher degree of generic variations. In general, the results indicated that even different venues might carry their own generic conventions within a single discipline. Moreover, it might imply that Hyland's (2000) five-move model failed to account for the generic organization of RA abstracts in the history field. As a result of the emerging nature of the discipline (Ozturk, 2007), it is possible to conclude that the authors followed their own generic patterns to focus on specific aspects of their research. In this regard, researchers in both groups considered including a well-developed introduction move as a preliminary stage for presenting their novel historical research while they had a miscellaneous move pattern for proceeding and ending the RA abstracts.

The study further sought to investigate the interactional metadiscourse markers across the moves of the two corpora. The results manifested the traces of this genre's authorial stances and attitudinal discursive practices (Blanc & Rosa, 1997). Accordingly, it might imply that history RA abstracts presented a value-ridden account of the academic outcomes, regardless of the publication venue (Farmer & Knight, 1995). The local and international authors practiced commercializing their research works by including a large number of boosters. However, the local authors slightly withdrew from the text's interpersonal interference through hedges, while their international counterparts claimed a more authorial presence by including many self-mentions. In conclusion, the analysis of RA abstracts revealed the interpretive nature of history as one of the social sciences (Hyland, 2005).

The current study's findings have pedagogical implications for EAP courses for history students. Therefore, the academic writing instructors are recommended to incorporate genre-based instructional plans to familiarize the history graduate students with the writing conventions of their own community of academic practice (El-Dakhs, 2018). The results can also contribute to the novice researchers' awareness of existing norms within prestigious and refereed history journals. The results proved the validity of the interpersonal model of metadiscourse in disclosing "the rhetorical preferences of different discourse communities" (Hyland, 2004, p.18). Being aware of these venue-based, discipline-dependent interaction conventions enriches the academic learning procedures (Swales, 1990). Moreover, shedding light on the expectations of disciplinary communities raises the writing and reading instructors' consciousness regarding the rhetorical devices. Accordingly, they can transfer these findings to the EAP materials and methods to enhance the academic skills, particularly in EFL contexts, since "the opportunities for language socialization are limited" (Cook, 2001, p.84).

The present study focused on the generic organization of RA abstracts published in the local and international journals of history. Further studies can explore the generic variations across various venues in other disciplines within social or natural sciences. Furthermore, more research can be conducted on the interpersonal meanings embedded in other sections of research articles in history to see whether authors' personal stances characterize the whole academic communication of the research findings. Other understudied disciplines' interactional metadiscourse markers could be investigated in RA abstracts.

References

Abdi, R. (2002). Interpersonal metadiscourse: An indicator of interaction and identity. *Discourse Studies, 4*(2), 139-145. https://doi.org/10.1177/14614456020040020101

Akoto, O. Y. (2020). Metadiscourse within a discipline: a study of introduction and literature review chapters of sociology master's theses. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 10*(2), 471-480. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v10i2.28588 471

Atai, M. R. (2002). ESAP curriculum planning in Iran: An incoherent educational experience. *Special Issue of the Journal of Persian Literature and Human Sciences, 1*, 17-34. https://scholar.google.com/scholar?cluster=10537209692994706435&hl=en&oi=scholarr

Atai, M. R., & Asadi, S. A. (2013). Assessing academic and professional English language needs of Iranian railway engineering students: A triangulated evaluation study. *ESP Across Cultures, 10*(1), 35-54. https://edipuglia.it/wp-content/uploads/ESP%202013/Mahmood-Reza-Atai-Seyyed-Asadollah-Asadi.pdf

Atai, M. R., & Habibie, P. (2012). Genre analysis of applied linguistics research article introductions: exploring sub-disciplinary variations. *Taiwan International ESP Journal*, *4*(1), 25–44. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Pejman-Habibie/publication/282176293_Genre_Analysis_of_Research_Article_Introductions_across_ESP_Psycholinguistics_and_Sociolinguistics/links/619c39b8d7d1af224b199970/Genre-Analysis-of-Research-Article-Introductions-across-ESP-Psycholinguistics-and-Sociolinguistics.pdf

Atai, M. R., & Sadr, L. (2008). A cross-cultural study of hedging devices in discussion section of applied linguistics research articles. *Teaching English and Literature Society of Iran (TELLSI), 2*(7), 1-2.

Atai, M. R., & Shoja, L. (2011). A triangulated study of academic language needs of Iranian students of computer engineering: are the courses on track? *RELC Journal*, *42*(3), 305-323. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688211419392

Bal-Gezegin, B., & Baş, M. (2020). Metadiscourse in academic writing: a comparison of research articles and book reviews. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 6*(1), 45-62. https://doi.org/10.32601/ejal.710204

Bhatia, V. K. (1993). *Analyzing Genre: Language use in professional settings*. Longman Publishing.

Blanco, F., & Rosa, A. (1997). Dilthey's dream. Teaching history to understand the future. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *27*(3), 189-200. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355(97)89727-3

Coffin, C. (2002). The Voices of history: Theorizing the interpersonal semantics of historical discourses. *Text, 22*(4), 503–528. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.2002.020

Conrad, S., & Biber, D. (2000). Adverbial marking of stance in speech and writing. *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse*, *56*, 56-73.

Cook, H. M. (2001). Why can't learners of JFL distinguish polite from impolite speech styles? In R. Kenneth, & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 80-102). Cambridge University Press.

Dafouz-Milne, E. (2003). Metadiscourse revisited: A contrastive study of persuasive writing in professional discourse. *Edios Ingleses de la Universidad Complutense, 11*(1), 29-57. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Emma-Dafouz/publication/39284379_Metadiscourse_revisited_A_contrastive_study_of_persuasive_writing_in_professional_discourse/links/02e7e5322d98f4729a000000/Metadiscourse-revisited-A-contrastive-study-of-persuasive-writing-in-professional-discourse.pdf

Dafouz-Milne, E. (2008). The pragmatic role of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the construction and attainment of persuasion: A cross-linguistic study of newspaper discourse. *Journal of pragmatics*, *40*(1), 95-113. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2007.10.003

Darabad, A. M. (2016). Move analysis of research article abstracts: a cross-disciplinary study. *International Journal of Linguistics*, *8*(2), 125–140. http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/ijl.v8i2.9379

El-Dakhs, D. (2018). Comparative genre analysis of research article abstracts in more and less prestigious journals: linguistics journals in focus. *Research in Language*, *16*(1), 47-63. https://www.ceeol.com/search/article-detail?id=891736

Faghih, E., & Rahimpour, S. (2009). Contrastive rhetoric of English and Persian written text: Metadiscourse in applied linguistics research articles. *Rice Working Papers in Linguistics, 1*, 92-107. https://www.academia.edu/32272586/Contrastive_rhetoric_of_English_and_Persian_written_texts_Metadiscourse_in_applied_linguistics_research_articles

Farmer, A., & Knight, P. (1995). *Active history in key stages 3 and 4*. David Fulton Publishers.

Flowerdew, J. (2008). Scholarly writers who use English as an Additional Language: what can Goffman's "Stigma" tell us? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *7*(2), 77–86. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2008.03.002

Fu, X., & Hyland, K. (2014). Interaction in two journalistic genres: a study of interactional metadiscourse. *English Text Construction, 7*(1), 122-144. https://doi.org/10.1075/etc.7.1.05fu

Gessesse, C. M. (2016). An investigation into the macro rhetorical structures of the EFL research abstracts of graduates of 2013: the case of Bahir Dar University in Ethiopia. *Online Journal of Communication and Media Technologies, 6*(1), 1–22. https://www.ojcmt.net/download/an-investigation-into-the-macro-rhetorical-structures-of-the-efl-research-abstracts-of-graduates-of.pdf

Gezegin, B. (2016). A corpus-based investigation of metadiscourse in academic book reviews. *Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences, 232,* 713-718. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.097

Ghasempour, B., & Farnia, M. (2017). Contrastive move analysis: Persian and English research article abstracts in law. *The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes, 5*(4), 739-753. http://espeap.junis.ni.ac.rs/index.php/espeap/article/view/243

Gillaerts, P., & Van de Velde. (2010). Interactional metadiscourse in research article abstracts. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 9(2)*, 128-139. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.02.004

Hatipoğlu, Ç. (2007). (Im)politeness, national and professional identities and context: Some evidence from e-mailed 'Call for Papers'. *Journal of Pragmatics, 39,* 760-773. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2006.11.014

Huckin, T. (2006). Abstracting from abstracts. In M. Hewings (Ed.), *Academic writing in context* (pp. 93–103). Continuum.

Hyland, K. (1996). Talking to the academy: Forms of hedging in science research articles. *Written Communication, 13*(2), 251-281. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088396013002004

Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourse: Social interactions in academic writing.* Longman.

Hyland, K. (2004). Disciplinary interactions: metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 13*(2), 112-132. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2004.02.001

Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing.* Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2009). *Academic Discourse*. Continuum International Publishing. https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=6fVEAAAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PR5&dq=Hyland,+K.+(2009).+Academic+Discourse.+Continuum+International+Publishing&ots=075ntNFcR-&sig=GLEWOS-r6EQRFvyqG58t8dB1MM8#v=onepage&q=Hyland%2C%20K.%20(2009).%20Academic%20Discourse.%20Continuum%20International%20Publishing&f=false

Hyland, K. (2010). Constructing proximity: Relating to readers in popular and professional science. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *9*(2), 116-127. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.02.003

Hyland, K. (2017). Metadiscourse: What is it and where is it going? *Journal of Pragmatics, 113,* 16-29. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2017.03.007

Jalilifar, A., Hayati, S., & Don, A. (2018). Investigating metadiscourse markers in book reviews and blurbs: A study of interested and disinterested genres. *Studies about Languages, 33,* 90-107. https://www.ceeol.com/search/article-detail?id=769000

Junqueira, L., & Cortes, V. (2014). Metadiscourse in book reviews in English and Brazilian Portuguese: A corpus-based analysis. *Rhetoric, Professional Communication and Globalization, 6*(1), 88-109. https://docs.lib.purdue.edu/rpcg/vol6/iss1/5

Kaya, F., & Yağiz, O. (2020). Move analysis of research article abstracts in the field of ELT: A comparative study. *Dil Ve Dilbilimi Çalışmaları Dergisi*, *16*(1), 390–404. https://doi.org/10.17263/jlls.712854

Marandi, S. (2003). Metadiscourse in Persian/English master's theses: A contrastive study. *Iranian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 6*(2), 23-42.

McGrath, L., & Kuteeva, M. (2012). Stance and engagement in pure mathematics research articles: Linking discourse features to disciplinary practices. *English for Specific Purposes*, *31*(3), 161-173. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2011.11.002

Ozturk, I. (2007). The textual organization of research article introductions in applied linguistics: variability within a single discipline. *English for Specific Purposes, 26*(1)*,* 25-38. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2005.12.003

Paltridge, B., & Starfield, S. (2013). *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*. Wiley-Blackwell. https://doi.org:10.1002/9781118339855

Pho, P. D. (2008). Research article abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology: a study of linguistic realizations of rhetorical structure and authorial stance. *Discourse Studies, 10*(2), 231-250. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445607087010

Rubio, M. (2011). A pragmatic approach to macro-structure and metadiscoursal features of research article introductions in the field of agricultural studies. *English for Specific Purposes, 30*(4), 258-271. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2011.03.002

Saeeaw, S., & Tangkiengsirisin, S. (2014). Rhetorical Variation across Research Article Abstracts in Environmental Science and Applied Linguistics. *English Language Teaching*, *7*(8), 81-93. DOI:10.5539/elt.v7n8p81

Saidi, M. & Karami, N. (2021). Interactional metadiscourse markers in applied linguistics reply articles. *Language Teaching Research Quarterly, 22,* 64-77. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Mavadat-Saidi/publication/363134093_Interactional_Metadiscourse_Markers_in_Applied_Li nguistics_Reply_Articles/links/6329cee7873eca0c00a07cc4/Interactional-Metadiscourse-Markers-in-Applied-Linguistics-Reply-Articles.pdf

Saidi, M., & Talebi, S. (2021). Genre analysis of research article abstracts in English for academic purposes journals: Exploring the possible variations across the venues of research. *Education Research International*, *2021*, 1-5. https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/3578179

Salahshoor, F., & Afsari, P. (2017). An investigation of interactional metadiscourse in discussion and conclusion sections of social and natural science master theses. *The Journal of Applied Linguistics and Applied Literature: Dynamics and Advances, 5*(2), 7-14. https://doi.org/10.22049/jalda.2018.26208.1060

Samraj, B. (2008). A discourse analysis of master's theses across disciplines with a focus on introductions. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 7*(1), 55-67. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2008.02.005

Santos, M. B. (1996). The textual organization of research paper abstracts in applied linguistics. *Text – Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse*, *16*(4), 481–499. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.1.1996.16.4.481

Seidlhofer, B. (1995). *Approaches to Summarization: Discourse Analysis and Language Education (Vol. 11)*. Gunter Narr Verlag, Tübingen. https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=PbN48_KNODgC&oi=fnd&pg=PA1&dq=Seidlhofer,+B.+(1995).++Approaches+to+Summarization:+Discourse+Analysis+and+Language+Education+(vol.11).+Gunter+Narr+Verlag,+T%C3%BCbingen.&ots=rbC8Rg8kZw&sig=RK8glquwlWFqX2YFG9tpoOHhJoQ#v=onepage&q&f=false

Shahini, G., & Riazi, M. (2001). A needs assessment for the English language courses at Shiraz University. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *27*(1), 147-155. http://pascal-francis.inist.fr/vibad/index.php?action=getRecordDetail&idt=1167172

Sidek, H. M., Mat Saad, N. S., Baharun, H., & Idris, M. M. (2016). An analysis of rhetorical moves in abstracts for conference proceedings. *IJASOS- International E-Journal of Advances in Social Sciences*, *2*(4), 24–31. http://ijasos.ocerintjournals.org/en/download/article-file/232078

Suntara, W., & Usaha, S. (2013). Research article abstracts in two related disciplines: rhetorical variation between linguistics and applied linguistics. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(2), 84-99.

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings.* CUP. https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=shX_EV1r3-0C&oi=fnd&pg=PR7&dq=Swales,+J.+(1990).+Genre+analysis:+English+in+acade

mic+and+research+settings.+CUP.&ots=8IN7p1knwl&sig=ZGNW3oh_qhMf5yeQub7hbuePT5E#v=onepage&q&f=false

Tankó, G. (2017). Literary research article abstracts: an analysis of rhetorical moves and their linguistic realizations. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *27,* 42–55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2017.04.003

Tse, P., & Hyland, K. (2006). So what is the problem this book addressed? Interactions in academic book reviews. *Text and Talk, 26*(6), 767-790. https://doi.org/10.1515/TEXT.2006.031

Vande Kopple, W. J. (1985). Some exploratory discourse on metadiscourse. *Composition and Communication, 36*(1)*,* 82-93. https://doi.org/10.2307/357609

Yağiz, O., & Demir, C. (2015). A comparative study of boosting in academic texts: a contrastive rhetoric. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 5*(4), 12-28. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v5n4p12

Journal of Language Horizons

Scientific Quarterly Journal of Language Horizons, *Alzahra University*
Volume 7, Issue 4, Winter 2024
Research Article
pp. 63-85

Language Learning Needs Analysis at Different Stages of the Undergraduate Course of Consecutive Interpreting

Zohreh Gharaei[1]
Saeed Ketabi[2]

Received: 14/07/2022 Accepted: 11/03/2023

Abstract
This study reports on an extended learner needs analysis carried out at different stages of course progress in the undergraduate course of Consecutive Interpreting. The participants were 32 undergraduate translation students. Two questionnaires were used to identify the initial- and final-stage lacks and wants, and learners' reflective diaries served as a tool to gain ongoing insight into their lacks. At each stage, after the identification of lacks and/or wants, the required adaptations were decided on and implemented, and their effect was traced on learners' views. The ongoing lacks were mainly related to L2 listening comprehension and note-taking from L2. The final stage investigation of the lacks revealed that although the majority of the learners reported progress in note-taking, listening comprehension, and consecutive interpreting, almost half of them did not feel confident to be active members in class. Moreover, the investigation of wants revealed that a high percentage of the learners believed the class materials and activities were effective regarding their progress. However, activities in which interaction and cooperation were essential were least preferred. This together with the final-stage investigation of lacks revealed that the course curriculum needed to work more toward creating a non-threatening atmosphere for interaction. Although the study was conducted in a specific setting, it bears implications for different settings since it is a practical example of how an extended needs analysis could be done. Besides, the nature of

[1] Corresponding author
English Department, University of Kashan, Kashan, Iran; zgharaei@kashanu.ac.ir
[2] Department of English, University of Isfahan, Isfahan, Iran; ketabi@fgn.ui.ac.ir

DOI: 10.22051/lghor.2023.41041.1714

the problems the learners reported and the measures taken to address them could be very similar in other contexts.

Keywords: consecutive interpreting, lacks, listening, needs analysis, note-taking, wants

Introduction

Needs analysis is defined as "the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students" (Brown, 2001, p. 35). Needs are viewed in the literature from apparently different perspectives. According to Brindley (1989), for example, they could be regarded as *objective* and explored prior to the course, or *subjective* and addressed while the course is in progress. While objective needs are factual and determined based upon learners' real context of use, their current skills and difficulties, subjective needs have to do with such affective and cognitive factors as personality, attitude and expectations. In a similar vein, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) propose the classification of *target needs* and *learning needs*. To accurately capture the breadth of needs, they further subdivide target needs into necessities, lacks and wants. Necessities, which are objective in nature (Brindley, 1989), are also termed as required knowledge, and target whatever a learner needs to know to function effectively in the target situation. Lacks, still fitting into objective needs, emerge when what learners already know is set against the necessities. However, wants represent what learners feel they need to acquire to perform appropriately in the target situation.

Practitioners and theorists alike assume that any program or course should be designed based on the results of the needs assessment. This is a prerequisite and a phase that gives validity to all other phases of the process. Nunan (1994) asserts that needs analysis is a determining factor in the selection and sequencing of the content, teaching methodology, and length, duration and intensity of a given course. Richards (2001) recognizes it as a distinct phase in the plan of educational courses and confesses that a sound curriculum should be based on needs analysis. Likewise, Ozdemir (2018) believes an effective course design which motivates learners relies heavily on needs analysis. In parallel with such theoretical considerations, in recent decades, several empirical studies in different fields have been reported which base one or different aspects of a course and/or curriculum design, from objective setting and materials development to assessment, on the findings of needs analysis. The meta-analysis study conducted by Bocanegra-Valle (2016) provides a good review of such studies in the field of English for Academic Purposes.

Literature Review

Along with the rise of learner-centered approaches to teaching and learning, needs analysis has gained even more significance in different settings within the last two decades. Interpreter training has been no exception. Focus on learners' needs has had different manifestations in interpreting research. Among the empirical studies that bring the learners' interpreting needs to the fore, some have focused on the learners' views. Jeong (2005), for example, gained insight into the past students' views to improve the existing translation and interpreting program in South Korea. Takeda (2010) investigated interpreting students' feedback to identify their interests and expectations. Furthermore, learners' diaries have served as a tool for gaining insight into learners' interpreting needs. Miyamoto (2008), for instance, used learners' diaries to understand learners' cognitive and metacognitive strategies in their self-learning practices. In a recent study, Madrid (2020) focused on oral expression as an important component for interpreting among undergraduate students. Using learners' diaries as pedagogical introspection tools which foster among learners such skills as critical self-analysis, she gained insight into students' experiences and attitudes.

Some researchers have focused on objective needs and attempted to include real-world considerations in training based on a situated learning approach. Authors such as Cho and Roger (2010) and Baxter (2012) emphasized the role of theatrical training and role-play on the grounds that in such activities real-world conditions can be simulated. Others, with the same concern of training interpreters capable of meeting real-world demands, emphasized the gap between the skills acquired by students and the needs of the translation industry and focused on the inclusion of components in the curriculum that contribute to employability (Cuminatto et al, 2017; Rodríguez de Céspedes, 2017). In one recent study, Afolabi (2019) compared the actual market needs with what learners acquired at interpreter training centers in Nigeria. Finding the gap between the actual needs and the training offered, he stressed the need for a paradigm shift and offered a number of practical solutions for revising the existing programs.

A brief review of the literature reveals learners' interpreting needs have been in focus during the last two decades and different aspects of learners' needs have been studied. Even so, few empirical studies could be found to show how a systematic needs analysis is carried out at different stages of course development, and how the findings of each stage can be served as the steppingstones for the rest of the same semester. Besides, although needs analysis should not be limited to one point and conducted only prior to curriculum or course design (Nation & Macalister, 2010; Ozdemir, 2018), the existing studies have limited collecting data on the learners' needs to a specific time (either the outset or the end of the semester). This highlights a research gap that needs to be addressed. Against this backdrop, this study aims to report a needs analysis study in which learners' views in the undergraduate course Interpreting are investigated and reflected upon throughout the semester. The study, borrowing from the concept of *needs* originally proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), specifically aims to explore the learners' major initial, on-going and final-stage lacks. At each stage, upon the identification of the lacks, the authors sought to explore remedies and accordingly make the required modifications and/or enhancements. Besides, to see if the course meets the learners' expectations and needs, final-stage wants are also investigated.

Method

Theoretical Framework

This study was conducted to gain insight into the lacks and wants of undergraduate Translation students in the undergraduate course Interpreting 1 from the learners' perspective. As for the framework for needs analysis, Nation and Macalister's (2010) categories of needs were used which are, in turn, adapted from Hutchinson and Waters (1987). According to this classification, needs are defined and analyzed in terms of *necessities*, *lacks,* and *wants*. The guiding principles for outlining necessities were drawn out of the features Gile (2009) enumerates for consecutive interpreters.

Participants

The participants were 32 students who registered in the undergraduate course Interpreting 1 at an institute of higher education in Isfahan, Iran. They were male (n = 4) and female (n = 28) learners whose L1 and L2 were Persian and English, respectively. Their ages ranged from 20 to 38 with an average of 22.3. Prior to the study, participants were informed that their performance and feedback to instruction would serve as the research data with the purpose of improving educational practice. They were assured that if any data was to be used, it would remain anonymous. The diaries completed by the learners as part of their regular assignments were a source of data and, therefore, were submitted to the researchers. However, the students were encouraged but not required to participate in this study if they so chose.

Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

Necessities were basically elicited based on the features Gile (2009) outlines including knowledge of learners' working languages, knowledge of the subject matter, and declarative and procedural knowledge. Moreover, he includes such intellectual and personal features as self-confidence, concentration, and public speaking abilities. Having necessities in mind, learners' lacks were traced throughout the semester; i.e., data on needs was collected at the outset and end of the semester through questionnaires and continually throughout the semester using learners' diaries. For the ease of data presentation and discussion, three stages were assumed which represent the whole semester: at the outset of the semester while the course was in progress and at the conclusion of the semester. To see if the course was effective in pursuing learners' needs, data on *wants* was also collected at the end of the semester.

The First Self-report Questionnaire. To gain insight into the learners' lacks in the initial phase, a self-report questionnaire was used. The questionnaire was administered at the outset of the semester and comprised two general questions, one asking about the last level of English listening practices they experienced, and the other asking them to evaluate themselves in terms of a number of skills and characteristics. They majorly reflected the necessities which were based on Gile's (2009) characteristics enumerated for consecutive interpreters. The questionnaire was in Persian.

The Second Self-report Questionnaire. This questionnaire was designed by the instructor-researcher (the first author of the article) and content-validated by two other experts to be administered at the conclusion of the semester. It comprised 17 items on a five-point Likert scale in learners' L1. Five questions were intended to investigate the learners' degree of progress (final-stage lacks) and 12 questions were designed to gain insight into their wants of which nine focused on teaching and learning effectiveness from the learners' perspective and three were about the learners' satisfaction. The questions were organized under three thematic subheadings of Class materials and activities, Assignments, and Your skills. The reliability of the questionnaire estimated by Cronbach's alpha was 0.78.

Learners' Reflective Diaries. To gain continual insight into the learners' lacks, they were asked to write reflective diaries on a regular basis. They were requested to reflect on their individual experiences in L2 listening comprehension, note-taking in both L1 and L2, and expressing ideas in L1. In their reflections, they were asked to focus on the problems they faced (be they linguistic or affective in nature), their possible source, and the solutions they came up with. Besides, they were asked to compare their present performance with the preceding ones and see how satisfied they felt with their work. Considering their weaknesses and strengths, the problems they faced, and the possible solutions they came up with, they were also said that it would be a good idea to determine the specifications of their upcoming task. As for the language of diaries, they were free to choose either their L1, Persian, or their L2, English.

Data Analysis

Data obtained from the five-point Likert scale items was analyzed through descriptive statistics. As for the open question in the questionnaire, the content of the answers was analyzed to be classified thematically. Concerning the learners' reflective diaries, content analysis was also done and the learners' problems, solutions, suggestions, and strengths were classified in terms of the skills and characteristics pertinent to each case.

Results and Discussion

In what follows, the results of the study are presented in terms of different stages at which needs analysis was conducted. Then, the findings are discussed and the implications are put forth.

Initial Phase

Investigation of Needs. At the outset of the semester, to gain insight into the learners' initial lacks, they were asked to (1) report their last level of listening comprehension practices, and (2) judge themselves in terms of a number of characteristics and skills pertaining to interpreting. Regarding their English listening comprehension skill, 21 learners reported that the last practices had been in their speaking and listening courses they had passed within the first (two) semester(s) of university. They reported that the main book they worked on had been *Tactics for Listening, Expanding*. Six students reported the same book, but they added that meanwhile they had been occasionally engaged in watching movies. Two other learners reported that they were engrossed in watching movies and documentaries. The remaining three learners mentioned other sources: one of them reported that she worked on *Contemporary Topics* series without mentioning the level; another referred to *Contemporary Topics 3*, and one referred to *Northstar 4*.

As for the second question, the results of the learners' self-evaluation are reported in Table 1. Among the skills and characteristics listed, listening comprehension seemed to be the most challenging area for the learners: less than 13% of them reported possessing a very good or good command of listening comprehension.

Table 1

Learners' initial self-evaluation

Skill or characteristic	Very good	Good	Average (%)	Weak	Very weak	No Idea
Listening comprehension	3.12	9.37	34.37	43.57	9.37	0
Note-taking	15.62	50	21.87	12.5	0	0
Delivering ideas in L1	21.87	40.62	15.62	12.5	3.12	6.25
Public speaking	9.37	21.87	37.5	15.62	6.25	9.37
Concentration	3.12	21.87	40.62	28.12	3.12	3.12
Confidence	9.37	37.5	31.25	18.75	3.12	0

Implications and Measures Taken. As stated above, the major perceived lack was in learners' ability to comprehend English listening materials. Overall, this finding affected the decisions made by the instructor in four ways: (1) materials selection, (2) materials development, (3) class procedures, and (4) weekly assignments.

Materials Selection

Since the last level of the listening comprehension practices of the majority of learners was intermediate, the upper-intermediate level was chosen as the level of the first materials to be interpreted in class. Besides, considering the learners' weakness in listening comprehension, it was decided that it would be best to start with materials on more general topics as the sources for in-class interpreting practices. The idea was that more specialized topics posed additional challenges to the learners. To have a smooth transition and to pose a workable challenge to the learners, therefore, the authors decided on a pattern of progression for the class interpreting materials which moved from general to more specialized topics.

Materials Development

The instructor designed two types of materials as further help for each interpreting topic. Enhancers were developed to give the learners a general account of the topic of interpreting and provide them with linguistic (basically lexical) and extra-linguistic (e.g., names of places, people, events) knowledge on the topic. The materials usually started with a paragraph or two giving learners some general information regarding the topic of the interpreting material they were to work on. This was followed by a section in which those vocabulary items and expressions were included that the instructor believed most of the learners were not familiar with. Moreover, if a grammatical point was crucial to comprehending the interpreting material, it was included in the Grammar Focus section of the enhancer. Enhancers, therefore, served as tools by which the learners were hoped to be guided through fostering top-down processing. Moreover, worksheets were designed to serve as listening comprehension exercises for the class interpreting material. Both files were sent to a channel created for this course and launched on a social messaging application one week before the class. Meanwhile, the learners were expected first to gain more general information about the topic of the material introduced in the Enhancer, and second to study the linguistic information they were provided with.

Class Procedures

As for the in-class provisions, in each session, the linguistic content of the enhancer was reviewed mostly in the form of question-asking. Then the learners were invited to share the result of their searches about the topic. Prior to interpreting, depending on the challenge of the track, the learners had the opportunity to listen once or twice to the whole track as multiple exposures to a passage can improve comprehension (Chang & Read, 2006). This was followed by the completion of listening comprehension exercises in the worksheet.

Weekly Assignments

A number of websites containing English podcasts as well as several listening comprehension practice books were introduced which entailed different levels of proficiency, a range of different topics, and different accents. As it was their first course in interpreting and considering learners' weaknesses in listening comprehension, the materials were not highly specialized. The learners were asked to listen to at least ten minutes of the materials weekly. They were asked to start their practices considering their current level, but they were expected to make progress by the end of the semester. In addition to the progress in their level, they were also expected to choose the material for their weekly practices from among different sources and different topics. That way, they had the chance to listen to a range of topics with different accents.

During the Semester

Investigation of Needs. To gain continual insight into the learners' lacks from their perspective, reflective diaries were used as tools for collecting data and were analyzed while the course was in progress. The learners' diaries were mainly focused on two areas of (1) English listening comprehension, and (2) note-taking from both Persian and English materials. As it was mentioned before, the learners were free to choose their L1 or L2 as the language of diaries. However, all participants wrote their diaries in Persian.

Listening Comprehension

One demanding aspect appeared when the learners were listening to a track on a specific subject matter containing technical words. The focus of some reports was on the technical words:

> (R1) I couldn’t get some parts. I think the reason was I didn’t know about medicine. There were some medical words and the name of drugs. Sometimes I couldn’t understand even the words coming immediately after them… While I was concentrating on the medical word, I lost the next words; sometimes I couldn't recognize where the medical word ended, so I lost the next word.

Statements reflecting almost the same concern were frequently reported concerning other subject matters such as politics, economy, geography, and tourism. Still, in an almost relevant area of challenge, they reported their difficulty understanding proper names:

> (R2) The material I was listening to right now had four parts, each about a character. There were many names; I got only Mother Teresa! It was confusing and difficult to go on when I even didn’t know about whom the talk was. I got tired; I lost concentration in some parts.

Problems with non-technical, unfamiliar words and expressions were also among the learners’ major challenges, which are related to vocabulary size. Most of the learners were well aware of the root of the problem:

> (R3) I lost many words… I lost many sentences… there were many new words. The level wasn’t appropriate for me.

Difficulty in understanding word boundaries was another problem area that was highlighted in the learners’ diaries. Close attention to R1 reveals that the student refers to this problem as well, as she points out her difficulty recognizing where one word ends and the next starts. Following is a more illuminating report:

> (R4) One annoying problem is that sometimes I can’t get even the words I know; there are some words following one another, but I can’t recognize them. Sometimes I even lose one or more sentences for that. For example, I listened to a part several times, five or six times, but I couldn’t even find

out how many words that part consisted of. It was a strange rapid string to me. When I read the script, I found that it was “extra liquids” and I knew both words, but I couldn’t even recognize it wasn’t one word.

Speakers’ accent was another challenge; those students whose listening comprehension experiences were mainly focused on the American accent had difficulty understanding other English accents let alone understanding a non-native speaking English.

Note-taking from L1 and L2

The learners’ problems in note-taking comprised problems with notes taken from both Persian and English listening materials. Among the problems listed here, the first two were reported for both L1 and L2 with L1 having a remarkably less share; the rest were specific to L2.

The first major problem was the length of the material. They reported that when the listening material got lengthy, they faced problems in note-taking. The following quote from a learner could be revealing in this regard:

> (R5) When it gets lengthy, my hand gets tired and I can't go on; I lose my concentration.

The second area of problem in note-taking relevant to both languages was the habit of writing all of the sentences as completely as possible; this was recognized by some learners as a barrier impeding them from noticing the upcoming statements. Other students who tried not to write all the ideas completely, faced some problems as well:

> (R6) When I try not to write all the ideas, I forget some of them.

Another problem reported as a major challenge was the rate of speech. This was reported to be a problem merely in the case of note-taking from English listening materials. Below, is a part of one learner’s diary:

> (R7) When I start writing the first words in a sentence, I lose the next words and the whole sentence altogether. Writing a sentence needs more time; the speech is so fast that I can’t. I have the same problem in class; it is even worse there!

The same problem was voiced out by other learners frequently, sometimes from a different point of view and, therefore, way of expression:

> (R8) My biggest problem is that while listening I can't take notes and if I don't take notes, I won't remember the points.

Besides, the learners' diaries revealed another area of difficulty pertaining to their English note-taking experiences, i.e., failure to understand the link between ideas from which they had taken note:

> (R10) I had written some phrases and ideas but when it came to reading them, I couldn't understand how they were related to one another; […] I couldn't make meaningful sentences.

Implications and Measures Taken.As it was reported above, the learners' diaries were telling of their problems in English listening comprehension, and note-taking from both L1 and L2. In what follows, the implications and measures taken are discussed.

Listening Comprehension

Learners' listening comprehension challenges entailed problems in both top-down processing and bottom-up processing. This was indicative of the fact that in many cases the learners needed to activate both processes so that the two work in synergy.

A good number of problems enumerated in the diaries were centered on the learners' unfamiliarity with a topic. This problem is acknowledged and discussed in the literature on L2 listening comprehension as possessing the knowledge of subject matter is believed to be a factor that facilitates comprehension (Chang & Read, 2006; Goh & Aryadoust, 2016; Vandergrift & Goh, 2009). The use of this metacognitive strategy, which facilitates top-down processing, can even help learners compensate for their shortcomings in getting some words in the continuous chain of speech; that is to say, it even can help them compensate for their weaknesses in bottom-up processing. This could be helpful, especially for less proficient listeners.

Vocabulary size, which was among the learners' concerns, is also regarded as a prerequisite to guarantee success in listening comprehension (Bonk, 2000; Buck, 2001; Kobeleva, 2012). Proper names, however, have been partly overlooked in the literature because of having a limited area of reference (Berezowski, 2002). The learners' self-reports suggested that they needed guidance in this regard. This is a need highlighted by Kobeleva (2012) who valued possessing knowledge of proper names and found that it affected students' perception of the ease of the listening task.

Being in the situation and teaching the course for eight semesters prior to the semester in focus, the instructor was aware of these problems. Therefore, pre-planning as a metacognitive strategy had been thought to be a solution. To meet the need of the learners in class practices, Enhancers were the materials designed to serve as tools for pre-planning . The learners started to receive Enhancers early in the semester and for the very first sessions of class practices.

Enhancers could also work as models for the learners' pre-planning prior to home listening practices. Considering the lack they perceived, we were optimistic to see learners make use of this metacognitive strategy on their own in doing their weekly practices. This hope came true for some learners. As an example, working with a listening book, a learner gave the following report in her diary:

> (R11) I did the pre-listening exercises first and then listened to the track. There were words I didn't know, and some parts I didn't get but it was better than last week's practice. […] For example, there was the term "a flair for" which I hadn't known or heard. If I hadn't seen it in the exercises, I couldn't get it.

It was worth noting that some learners' in their own learning experiences perceived that they lacked and needed the background knowledge and the vocabulary required for completing such tasks. That way, they themselves chose to pre-plan, a decision that was soon expressed in the diaries. The value of this process gone through by the learners was that they, in their personal ventures, felt a gap, i.e., a need, and thought about a solution for it. This makes the solution more effective.

Later diaries in which learners expressed their failure to get words and/or ideas despite pre-planning were indicative of the fact that although top-down processes and metacognitive strategies were necessary in their path toward progress, they were not enough. R1 is a case in point, which is a telling account of the learners' failure in recognizing word boundaries, i.e., word segmentation. Considering that listeners do not enjoy the advantage of spaces in print, Vandergrift and Goh (2009) confirm that word segmentation is a major problem for language learners. They assert that the challenge of parsing a stream of sounds could be so disruptive that listeners may even fail to recognize known words in "concatenated speech" (p. 399) since the problem has partly to do with adjacent sounds influencing one another in the stream of speech (Chang, 2012). Vandergrift and Goh (2009) believe that problem with word segmentation needs to be explicitly addressed in the course of instruction. A variety of techniques and practices are suggested in the literature; i-1 level listening (Hulstijn, 2001), dictogloss (Wilson, 2003), the six-step listening procedure (Hulstijn, 2003), and dictation and analogy exercises (Field, 2005) are among the most-cited ones. To address the problem, we decided to choose Hulstijn's (2003) six-step procedure as the technique to be introduced to the learners with this problem. It was chosen on the grounds that the procedures went well with learners' weekly listening comprehension practices.

Regarding their problem with less familiar accents, it should be noted that familiarity with the accent of the passage positively affects comprehension (Major et al., 2005). According to Floccia et al. (2009), the effectiveness of accented speech is in that it both decreases the successful retrieval of the passage and calls for more effort on the part of the listener to identify the words pronounced. Since most of the learners' practices in our study had been focused on American English, attempts were made to include materials in the class representing other accents as well. The researchers also asked learners to include other accents in their weekly practices. This was counted as one of the criteria for evaluating their weekly assignments.

Note-taking from L1 and L2

Generally, areas of challenge in the learners' note-taking practices were the length of speech, their habit of writing sentences in full, forgetting the points not taken note from, rate of speech, and inability to link the ideas. Among them, the first two were commonalities between note-taking from L1 and L2, while the rest were reported to be problematic only in their L2. Besides, note-taking from a text spoken in L1 was the area with the least reported challenges. Justifying this observation through the lens of Gile's Effort Model (2009), it could be argued that working with L1 lessens the L Effort, leaving more room for the N Effort which results in a wholly more successful performance.

A closer look at the problems reported reveals that they were interrelated. When learners write sentences in full, they cannot write all the ideas; this is a problem acknowledged in the literature on note-taking. The students in Piolat et al.'s (2008) study also reported it as a major challenge. The difference between the speed of speech and note-taking turns note-taking into a cognitively demanding undertaking that requires note-takers to implement wise content and formal reductionist strategies (Barbier & Piolat, 2005; Piolat et al., 2008). When learners fall behind, they attribute this failure to the rate or length of the speech. It is important to note that research has also supported that students tend to attribute their problems to the rate of speech while it may have been caused by other factors (Moore et al., 2007). In our case, the learners needed to pay attention to the meaning, not form, and be selective in taking notes.

If being selective is a solution, why then the selective learners in this study were also complaining that they forgot the ideas from which they did not take notes? Why did they fail to find the link between ideas in their notes? The answer is that they could not decide what to take notes from and what to leave. In addressing these challenges, it was explained to them that some of the problems they faced in note-taking had their roots in their L2 comprehension. Using Gile's terminology, this, in turn, facilitates L effort, opens up the way to N effort, and, as a result, leads to a more successful experience. However, to tackle the specific problems reported by the learners in note-taking, the instructor inspired by Gillies (2005) introduced three practices to the class.

A Mini Summary was introduced as a technique for increasing their attention to the ideas and not the forms (Gillies, 2005). This exercise requires learners to write a summary of the main ideas for each part of the passage in the margins. Structure map (Gillies, 2005), as a practice for drawing attention to macro-elements of speech, was the technique introduced to the learners to overcome problems with finding the links between ideas. In this exercise, learners write the function of each part of the speech concisely in the margins; they do not summarize the content but focus on the function. Later in the semester, for those learners who had difficulty taking notes from the content and/or those who were complaining that writing all the ideas left them behind in listening, and being selective resulted in forgetting some ideas, another practice was introduced. The practice was to take notes from ideas in terms of their basic units, i.e., subject, verb, and object. This practice was further emphasized in the class activities, especially sight translation practices, which, with the written script in front of the learners, provided a good opportunity to further elaborate on and work with the technique.

At the Conclusion of the Semester

Investigation of Needs. As both lacks and wants were investigated at this stage, the findings are presented and discussed in terms of both categories.

Lacks

In the final questionnaire, items were designed so that we could gain insight into the learners' progress in the components under investigation.

Table 2

Learners' self-report of their progress

I have made progress in …	1	2	3 (%)	4	5	6
note-taking from L1	28.12	65.62	3.12	0	0	3.12
note-taking from L2	9.37	46.87	25	12.5	3.12	3.12
listening comprehension	9.37	50	28.12	6.25	3.12	3.12
consecutive interpreting	6.25	34.37	50	9.37	0	0
confidence level for active class participation	3.12	43.75	12.5	37.5	3.12	0

1= strongly agree; 2=agree; 3=indifferent; 4=disagree; 5=strongly disagree; 6=no answer

Table 2 reflects the learners' views. Regarding the statement asking the learners about their progress in note-taking from Persian materials, 93.74% marked either strongly agree or agree, and thereby expressed their positive view toward their progress. Regarding note-taking from English materials, almost half of them reported their progress; however, 15.62% clearly expressed their weakness in this area. As for their listening comprehension skill, 59.37% reported progress during the semester. As for the affective side, 40.62 % of the learners still felt they made no progress in boosting their confidence level and, as a result, they could not cooperate in class.

Wants

To evaluate the success of the course from learners' view, their wants were investigated.[1] To do so, some items were included in the second questionnaire that addressed teaching/learning effectiveness as well as the learners' satisfaction.

Table 3

Learners' report of teaching/learning effectiveness

Effectiveness of …	1	2	3 (%)	4	5	6
Enhancers	34.37	59.37	6.25	0	0	0
Worksheets	31.25	53.12	12.5	0	0	3.12
Sight translation practices	25	56.25	12.5	6.25	0	0
Role-play	6.25	59.37	25	9.37	0	0
Class note-taking	31.25	56.25	6.25	6.25	0	0
Class discussions on progress, problem, and solution	15.62	53.12	21.87	6.25	3.12	0
Listening comprehension assignments	21.87	56.25	15.62	6.25	0	0
Note-taking assignments	9.37	50	25	9.37	0	6.25
Writing reflective diaries	3.12	9.37	21.87	34.37	21.87	3.12

Table 3 reveals the learners' perceptions concerning the effectiveness of materials, class activities, and weekly assignments. Altogether, they confirmed the effectiveness of the materials developed by the instructor. Concerning class activities, the most well-received practice turned out to be sight translation. Besides, the majority of the learners found role-play, note-taking exercises, and class discussions on their progress, problems, and solutions effective. However, the effectiveness of role-playing and class discussions was dubious for a good number of learners. As to the effectiveness of weekly assignments (the last three items in Table 3), listening comprehension practices turned out to be the most welcome assignment. However, only 12.49% of the learners confirmed the effectiveness of writing reflective diaries in their progress.

[1] The investigation of wants, as in the case of lacks, was conducted throughout the semester. In this article, for space reasons, the report of wants is limited to the final stage.

Table 4
Learners' satisfaction

Satisfaction from …	1	2	3 (%)	4	5	6
level of English materials interpreted in class	15.62	31.25	12.5	28.12	12.5	0
progress of materials from general to subject-specific	28.12	65.62	6.25	0	0	0
class atmosphere for activities and cooperation	6.25	34.37	12.5	31.25	15.62	0

Learners' satisfaction was another factor included in the questionnaire. As Table 4 shows, they reported the highest rate of dissatisfaction with the statement regarding the atmosphere of the class being tensionless for their cooperation (46.87%), though almost the same number felt satisfied (40.62%). The highest degree of satisfaction was reported for the statement concerning the sequencing of the class interpreting practices.

Implications and Measures Taken

Lacks

The majority of learners believed they had made progress in note-taking from L1 and L2, listening comprehension, and consecutive interpreting. However, it could not be overlooked that some learners expressed they did not make much progress. Even if these learners were among the less-motivated low-performing ones, the implication was that the curriculum still had way to go to reach excellence in engaging less motivated learners in learning. Considering that learning through self-engagement, cooperation and interaction was a key in the design of the course, this could be a threat to the fulfillment of the course's objectives. Although the instructor had been trying to encourage silent learners by assuring them that their participation, regardless of the accuracy of their answers, was valued, this seemed not enough for all the learners; i.e., the affective side still had room for improvement since almost half of the learners did not feel confident to be active members in the class.

Wants

The majority of learners believed that class materials and activities were all effective. Amid them, role-play and class discussions planned for the learners' problems, solutions, and experience sharing turned out to be the least favored activities. A closer look at these activities revealed that common to both of them was interaction and cooperation. Therefore, the learners may have had problems with interaction and cooperation inherent in such activities, not the activities themselves. This, in turn, could have been the result of the weaknesses they perceived to have in their skills and their low confidence. This argumentation gains strength considering the learners' attitude when they were asked to report their degree of satisfaction with the atmosphere of the class for cooperation and engagement in activities (Table 4).

Moreover, there was an additional reason for the learners to perceive class discussions on problems and solutions and experience-sharing as not effective enough: the class time did not allow the instructor to hold such discussions regularly. While in the initial plan it was intended to start each session with a short discussion as such, considering the time limit, it turned out not to be feasible in practice. Considering the importance of such discussions guided by the instructor on problems and solutions (Orlando, 2011), any defect in their true fulfillment could impede the pre-set objectives, resulting in the learners' perception of the ineffectiveness of the discussions. The negative effects of this were extended to the learners' reflective diaries; seeing that reflective discussions were limited to a few sessions, some learners downplayed writing reflective diaries. That being the case, they did not submit their diaries regularly or wrote some repetitive fabricated sentences that lacked any reflection. That could be the main reason why the majority of the learners were indifferent or in disagreement when they were asked if writing reflective diaries as a part of assignments had been useful (Table 3).

These results bore implications for the next-semester implementation of the same course. The instructor needed to take a two-fold action: she needed to first further clarify to learners the advantages of these activities both verbally and in practice since it is believed that being explicit about the reason behind the choice of instructional activities adds to learners' motivation and reduces their resistance against learning (Felder, 2007). Secondly, the instructor needed to provide a feasible, safe, and unthreatening ground to facilitate interaction and cooperation among the learners.

Conclusion

This article reported on an extended needs analysis investigation conducted at three stages of course progress to gain insight into the weaknesses and strengths of the curriculum that had been developed for the course *Consecutive Interpreting*. Although the study explored learners' needs in a context with a particular group of learners and their specific needs, it bears implications for different settings because the nature of the problems the learners faced and their expectations could be similar in any other introductory course in interpreting. More importantly, the study bears implications for other contexts since it shows the implementation of an extended needs analysis in practice. It can be served as a practical example of how such an investigation could be informative at different stages of curriculum implementation. At the commencement of the semester, it can be revealing in that it shows the learners' weaknesses. Upon detecting the weaknesses, the instructor should make sure that the curriculum developed can meet the needs of the learners. If the shortcomings are identifiable; therefore, the instructor should take early action to address them. The ongoing investigation of lacks works as a signpost indicating how the learners respond to training, where they perform well, and where they need further guidance. This is followed by remedial actions for addressing the problems. The final-stage investigation into the lacks provides the course designers and instructors food for thought for the future implementation of the course. Therefore, while a needs analysis should be conducted before course design, it is not an action completed at a given point; it should be, instead, extended through the course progress. That way, the curriculum could be continuously monitored and reflected upon to detect shortcomings and strengths. In some cases, the drawbacks could be tackled within the same semester; however, if addressing the problem needs fundamental changes or enhancements, it would be put on the priority list for the next-semester implementation of the course.

References

Afolabi, S. (2019). Translation and interpretation market needs analysis: towards optimizing professional translator and interpreter training in Nigeria. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer, 13*(1), 1-3. https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399X.2019.1572997

Barbier, M. L., & Piolat, A. (2005). L1 and L2 cognitive effort of note taking and writing. In L. Allal & B. Schneuwly (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Special Interest Group on Writing*. Geneva, Switzerland.

Baxter, R. N. (2012). A simplified multi-model approach to preparatory training in consecutive interpreting. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer, 6*(1), 21- 43. https:// doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.2012.758751

Berezowski, L. (2002). *Articles and proper names*. Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego.

Bocanegra-Valle, A. (2016). Needs analysis for curriculum design. In P. Shaw & K. Hyland (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English for academic purposes* (pp. 584–600). Routledge.

Bonk, W. J. (2000). Second language lexical knowledge and listening comprehension. *International Journal of Listening, 14*(1), 14-31. https://doi.org/10.1080/10904018.2000.10499033

Brindley, G. P. (1989). The role of needs analysis in adult ESL program design. In R. K. Johnson (Ed.), *The second language curriculum* (pp. 63-72). Cambridge University Press.

Brown, D. (2001). *The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development*. Pergamon Press.

Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge University Press.

Chang, A. C., & Read, J. (2006). The effects of listening support on the listening performance of EFL learners. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*(2), 375-420. https://doi.org/10.2307/40264527

Chang, S. (2012). Approaching L2 listening comprehension for advanced learners: Using reading as a pre-listening task. *The Korean Language in America, 17*(2), 166-186. https://www.jstor.org/stable/42922364

Cho, J., & Roger, P. (2010). Improving interpreting performance through theatrical training. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer, 4*(2), 151-71. https://doi.org/10.1080/13556509.2010.10798802

Cuminatto, C., Baines, R., & Drugan, J. (2017). Employability as an ethos in translator and interpreter training. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer, 11*(3), 123-138. https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399X.2017.1350899

Felder, R. M. (2007). Sermons for grumpy campers. *Chemical Engineering Education, 41*(3), 183-184. https://doi.org/10.1187/cee-13-09-0190

Field, J. (2005). Intelligibility and the listener: The role of lexical stress. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*(3), 399-423. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588487

Floccia, C., Butler, J., Goslin, G., & Ellis, L. (2009). Regional and foreign accent processing in English: Can listeners adapt? *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, 38*(4), 379-412. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10936-008-9097-8

Gile, D. (2009). *Basic concepts and models for interpreter and translator training*. John Benjamins.

Gillies, A. (2005). *Note-taking for consecutive interpreting: A short course*. St. Jerome Publishing.

Goh, C., & Aryadoust, V. (2016). Learner listening: New insights and directions from empirical studies. *International Journal of Listening, 30*(1-2), 1-7. https:// doi.org/10.1080/10904018.2016.1138689

Hulstijn, J. H. (2001). Intentional and incidental second language vocabulary learning: A reappraisal of elaboration, rehearsal and automaticity. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 258-286). Cambridge University Press.

Hulstijn, J. H. (2003). Connectionist models of language processing and the training of listening skills with the aid of multimedia software. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 16*(5), 413-425. https:// doi.org/10.1076/16.5.413.29488

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centred approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Jeong, C. (2005). Leaner needs analysis for T&I program reform. *Meta, 50*(4). https://doi.org/10.7202/019866ar

Kobeleva, P. P. (2012). Second language listening and unfamiliar proper names: Comprehension barrier? *RELC Journal, 43*(1), 83-98. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688212440637

Madrid, L. (2020). The challenge of oratory in the training of consecutive interpreting reflected in a students' diary. *Translation and Translanguaging in Multilingual Contexts, 6*(2), 161-171. https://doi.org/10.1075/00051

Major, R., Fitzmaurice, S. F., Bunta, F., & Balasubramanian, C. (2005). Testing the effect of regional, ethnic and international dialects of English on listening comprehension. *Language Learning, 55*(1), 37-69. https:// doi.org/10.1111/j.0023-8333.2005.00289

Miyamoto, T. (2008). What did good interpreting learners do in their self-learning of consecutive interpreting? *Journal of Osaka Jogakuin College*, *5*, 145-156. https://www.pnas.org/content/111/23/8410

Moore, R., Adams, E., Dagenais, P., & Caffee, C. (2007). Effects of reverberation and filtering on speech rate judgment. *International Journal of Audiology, 46*(3), 154-160. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17365069

Nation, I. S. P., & Macalister, J. (2010). *Language curriculum design*. Routledge.

Nunan, D. (1994). *The learner-centered curriculum*. Cambridge University Press.

Orlando, M. (2011). Evaluation of translations in the training of professional translators: At the crossroads between theoretical, professional and pedagogical practices. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer, 5*(2), 293-308. https://doi.org/10.1080/13556509.2011.10798822

Ozdemir, N. O. (2018). Needs analysis. In J. I. Liontas (Ed.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching.* Wiley-Blackwell.

Piolat, A., Barbier, M. L., & Russey, J. Y. (2008). Fluency and cognitive effort during first- and second-language notetaking and writing by undergraduate students. *European Psychologist, 13*(2), 114-125. https://doi.org/10.1027/1016-9040.13.2.114

Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching.* Cambridge University Press.

Rodríguez de Céspedes, B. (2017). Addressing employability and enterprise responsibilities in the translation curriculum. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer, 11*(3), 107-122. https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399X.2017.1344816

Takeda, K. (2010). What interpreting teachers can learn from students: A case study. *The International Journal for Translating and Interpreting Research, 2*(1), 38-47. https://www.trans-int.org/index.php/transint/article/view/88

Vandergrift, L., & Goh, C. (2009). Teaching and testing listening comprehension. In M. H. Long & K. J. Doughty (Eds.), *The handbook of language teaching* (pp. 395-411). Wiley-Blackwell.

Wilson, M. (2003). Discovery listening: Improving perceptual processing. *ELT Journal, 57*, 335-343. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/57.4.335

Journal of Language Horizons

LGHOR

Scientific Quarterly Journal of Language Horizons, ***Alzahra University***
Volume 7, Issue 4,Winter 2024
Research Article
pp. 87-118

Monitoring Discourse in Translation: An Analysis of the Qur'anic Elaborative Discourse Marker *wa* in Parallel Corpora

Ali Mohammad Mohammadi[1]

Received: 16/08/2022 Accepted: 11/03/2023

Abstract

Discourse is monitored through the employment of discourse markers in the process of human communication. The present article investigated two translations of the most frequent, complex, and ambiguous Qur'anic discourse marker *wa* into the Persian language. Two theories of coherence and translation spotting shaped the foundation of this research. Two Persian translations were selected based on purposive sampling. The analysis of the Persian parallel corpora revealed that the translation of this elaborative discourse marker was performed innovatively and dynamically by resorting to four categories of contrastive, elaborative, temporal, and inferential discourse markers and their various combinations. The creative, flexible, and dynamic approach observed in the analysis of the parallel corpora indicated that translation is complex pragmatic, culture-based, and discourse-oriented phenomenon. It is a dynamic discourse construction system underpinned by the invocation of different theoretical perspectives in discourse and the pragmatic enrichment of linguistic elements between languages, cultures, and discourses. As these creative and flexible approaches applied by translators are not put into practice in the areas of lexicography, curriculum development, and other areas of translation education, researchers, teachers, and other authorities are recommended to revise their approaches based on research findings and the relevant implications arising from parallel data analyses.

Keywords: elaborative discourse marker, monitoring discourse, the Qur'an, translation, Qur'anic elaborative discourse marker «*wa*»

[1] Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Literature and Languages, Arak University, Arak, Iran; A-mohammadi@araku.ac.ir

DOI: 10.22051/lghor.2023.41330.1728

Introduction

Rational, linguistic, pragmatic, and metalinguistic processes of decoding and encoding information in the process of translation are activated according to the principles and standards of the target culture and discourse (Chesterman, 2016). From a discursive perspective, prepositional phrases, adverbs, coordinators, conjunctions, fixed expressions, and some sentences such as *in addition, accordingly, besides, then, as a matter of fact,* and *you see* are referred to as discourse markers (DMs). DMs are meta-lingual, meta-communicative, and meta-commentative elements that are applied by interlocutors in the comprehension, production, and creation of a context sensitive discourse in the process of exchanging ideas (Aijmir, 2002; Frank-job, 2006). As inseparable constituents of human communication, DMs are considered as the most frequent, productive, multidimensional, and meta-discursive variables in the processes of decoding and encoding information in human communication. Principally, DMs are very context-sensitive and ambiguous, do not play any grammatical role in the text, and lack any propositional meaning (Aijmir, 2002; Hyland, 2005; Faghih Malek Marzban, 2008). Moreover, the DM *and* is the most frequent elaborative DM in many languages, such as Chinese, Arabic, English, and Persian (Nejadansari & Mohammadi, 2014; Yang, 2011), with almost all of the above complex features in discourse comprehension and production. EDMs are either applied for the purpose of adding units to discourse or for the sake of clarification of ideas in communication. Consequently, translators confront multidimensional challenges in the translation of DMs (Furko, 2014).

The present comparative and exploratory investigation analyzed two Persian translations of the Qur'anic elaborative discourse marker (EDM) *wa* based on the coherence theory in discourse (Glanzberg, 2018) and the Translation Spotting theory in translation studies (Cartoni and Zuferry, 2013). These translators have applied an interpretative approach and their methodology is different from the other semantically accurate translations. Moreover, the researcher tried to examine the innovative and creative courses of action in decoding and encoding information between the source and target texts to present the readership with an intelligible and fluent text and investigate how the natural use of language in the creation, distribution, and utilization of discourse in translation is activated. Against this background, this research addressed the following questions:

1. How was the encoding of the Quranic EDM *wa* approached in these Persian translations?
2. What groups of Persian DMs are employed in encoding the Qur'anic EDM *wa* in these Persian renderings?
3. What are the different theoretical resources, justifications, and explanations that underpin the approaches and strategies of the Persian translators in encoding the Qur'anic EDM *wa*?

Seeing the natural application of language as an essential variable in encoding information in the process of translation (Forko, 2014), this researcher hypothesizes that translators might resort to some sort of adjustment, development, and enrichment in the process.

Review of Literature

This review covers various lines of research. The first part focuses on elaborative relations. Elaborative relations in discourse focus on the interlocutors' imagined, envisaged, and projected association, relationship, and connection between the preceding, current, and following units in human communication and represent various types of logical relations in discourse. These logical relations add up more ideas to the text for the sake of description and development of ideas. They are substantiated through parallel, additional, and explanatory connotations, implications, and associations between units of discourse (Schiffrin, 2006). That is, through elaborative reasoning, interlocutors try to indicate that the current unit is complementary, compatible, and well-matched with the preceding units, and offers further evidence appreciating the following units to support the argument by applying EDMs (Urgelles-Coll, 2010).

The second part analyzes the empirical studies conducted in the study of translations of the Quran. This part provides a report of three lines of research on the translation of the Quran by researchers in Iran. The first group of researchers focused on the strategies applied in the translation of the Quran and discovered the following approaches: problem-solving strategies and creative thinking skills (Tayyebi, 2010), versified translation of the Quran (Poshtdar, 2010), explicitation (Karimnia & Gharekhani, 2016). The next group of studies focused on strategies for rendering terms and figures of speech: conservation and substitution (Afrouz & Mollanazar, 2017).

Some other researchers analyzed the rendering of metaphoric expressions and foregrounding and backgrounding in the Quran and found the following procedures: literal translation, rendering of metaphor by metaphor and simile by simile (Movahhedian & Yazdani, 2020), literal, semantic, and interpretive strategies (Eghbaly, 2010), marked structures and unmarked structures (Manafi Anari & Ramezanpour Sobhani, 2017).

The second line of research examined the rendering of various aspects of words in the translation of the Quran. Ashrafi and Seyedalangi (2010) investigated polysemic words. The researchers concluded that they did not properly translate the polysemic words of the Quran. Kafash Roodi et al. (2010) identified, classified, and analyzed the collocation errors made by four English translations of the Quran and discovered that some collocational errors were made due to low competence in the English language. Mansuri (2015) investigated the translation of the repetition of words and their collocations in Arberry's and Yusuf Ali's translations. The findings revealed that Arberry benefitted from fewer equivalents in his translation.

Other studies analyzed the translation of metonymies and emphatic devices. They discovered the following approaches: literal translation, overlooking figurative meanings, and describing the implicit concepts (Valavi & Hassani, 2016), literal translation, transferring implied meaning, employing content-based translation (Mohammadi & Valavi, 2018), applying union, balanced, and unbalanced outlooks in selecting the equivalents (Vaezi et al. 2018).

Finally, the last line of studies examined ideology-driven approaches to Quran translation. They investigated the impact of gender and different world views. Eriss and Hashemi (2018) studied the influence of gender-oriented ideologies on translations of the Quran. They reported that translators' gender-based ideology intentionally and automatically affected their translations and their translations represented their gender-driven orientations, hypotheses, and impressions. Taghipour Bazargani (2010) comparatively investigated two translations of the Holy Quran based on critical discourse analysis. He applied the three-dimensional analytical framework of Fairclough (1989). His findings revealed that these translators used different translation strategies based on ideological differences.

Mosaffa Jahromi (2010) investigated the ideological approaches used in translating metaphors in the Holy Quran from a cognitive perspective. The analysis of the parallel corpora revealed that due to the various ideological backgrounds of Shia and Sunni Muslims in terms of metaphors in the Holy Quran, they were translated differently. He concluded that strategies for the translation of metaphors were influenced by translators’ different ideologies. Since there are no studies on the translation of the EDM *wa* into Persian, this study attempted to fill this gap.

Method

Research Design

As this research takes theoretical perspectives, analyzes data derived from the natural use of language, and asks research questions, it is both descriptive and qualitative (Seliger & Shohamy 1989).

Theoretical Perspectives

This investigation was theoretically supported by coherence in discourse analysis and translation spotting in translation studies. Glanzberg (2018) maintains that the validity, precision, and legitimacy of an idea depend on its connection to other concepts in discourse. This connection shapes the foundations of coherence theory in discourse. According to Cartoni and Zuferry (2013), the investigation of professional translators' pragmatic approaches and strategies in solving their problems would result in the exploration of new translation strategies, novel translation universals, and new theories and models in research. Therefore, Cartoni and Zuferry (2013) introduced translation spotting theory in translation studies for pragmatic exploratory purposes.

Corpus and Sampling

Our corpus consisted of two sections: the source text and target text. The source text corpus was made up of 6 sections of the Quran called Juze. And the target text was two Persian translations of the Quran: Maleki’ (2018) and Safavi’ (2008). The reason for sampling these two Persian translations is their interpretive approach to translation. That is, both translations were based on Almizan, an interpretation of the Quran by Allameh Tabatabaee (1960). Thus, the target text corpus was selected based on purposive sampling and included the same sections.

Procedures and Reliability

First, 20% of the Quran was selected randomly for the purpose of analysis. Then, the instances of the EDM *wa* were identified in the source text corpus. There were 1236 examples of this DM, accounting for 48% of the instances in the corpus. Therefore, the highest frequency of distribution belongs to this DM (Tables 1 and 2). Afterward, the equivalents offered by the two translators were identified, sorted, analyzed, and reported. After that, 150 instances (12%) were sent to the raters for evaluation. Research reliability was established by the two raters' contributions to the data analysis process. They were to judge and evaluate the instances of equivalents reported by the researcher. The raters verified all instances of equivalents.

Table 1

Frequency of selected sections, words, and DMs in the corpus

Number	Elements Analyzed	Frequency	Percentage
1	Sections	6	20%
2	Total words	77807	100%
3	Words in the corpus	16906	22%
4	DMs in the corpus	2535	15%

Table 2

Frequency of distribution of four groups of DMs in the Quranic corpus

Number	DM	Frequency	Percentage
1	EDMs	1262	51%
2	IDMs	950	38%
3	CDMs	169	7%
4	TDMs	89	4%

Table 3

Frequency of distribution of EDM wa in source text corpus

Number	DM	Frequency	Percentage
1	EDM wa	1236	48%

Results

According to Table 4, 77 different types and combinations of Persian DMs are applied in rendering the Quranic EDM *wa* into Persian. They consisted of four different groups of DMs expressing linguistic, logical, communicative, and discursive relations of elaboration, contrast, inference, and temporality (question 2). In 57 instances, accounting for 74% of distribution, rendering of this DM underwent adaptation and adjustment- a very high index of pragmatic creativity in translation (question 1).

Table 4

Categories of DMs applied in rendering the Quranic wa into Persian

Number	DM	Frequency	Percentage
1	IDMs	26	33%
2	EDMs	20	26%
3	TDMs	17	23%
4	CDMs	14	18%
Total	4 groups	77	100%

Elaborative DMs

Twenty different types and combinations of elaborative discourse markers (EDMs) were applied in translation of this Quranic EDM by these Persian translators. They have applied two groups of additive and descriptive EDMs. Additive EDMs have the function of adding units to discourse in the process of communication. That is, they are applied for the purpose of increasing items in the list and are in the service of construction of discourse by going into details. Descriptive EDMs provide further explanation, elaboration, and analysis of discourse to provide the audience with a comprehensive and comprehensible discourse in the framework of different units of discourse in the corpus under investigation, and they are shown in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 5

Persian Additive EDMs Equivalents for the Quranic EDM Wa

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
1		فَلَا تَجْعَلُوا لِلّهِ أَنْدَادًا وَأَنْتُمْ تَعْلَمُونَ	Al-Baqarah, 22
Maleki	Also	پس برای خدا همتایان قرار ندهید خودتان هم خوب می‌دانید که خدا همتایی ندارد.	
2		أُولئِکَ الّذِینَ اشْتَرَوُا الضّلَالَةَ بِالْهُدَی فَمَا رَبِحَت تِجَارَتُهُمْ وَ مَا کَانُوا مُهْتَدِینَ	Al-Baqarah, 16
Maleki	And … also	آنها کسانی‌اند که گمراهی را به قیمت از دست دادن هدایت می‌خرند. بنابراین، چنین تجارتی سودی برایشان ندارد و کسی هم دستشان را نمی‌گیرد.	
3		قُلْ إِنّمَا الْعِلْمُ عِنْدَ اللّهِ وَ إِنّمَا أَنَا نَذِیرٌ مُبِینٌ	Al-Molk, 26
Safavi	And … also	بگو علم آن تنها نزد خداست و من هم فقط پیامبری اخطارگرم که پیامم را به روشنی به شما ابلاغ می‌کنم	
4		...فَإِذَا وَجَبَتْ جُنُوبُهَا فَکُلُوا مِنْهَا وَأَطْعِمُوا الْقَانِعَ	Al-Haj, 36
Maleki	And also	وقتی به پهلو افتادند، هم خودتان از گوشتشان بخورید و هم به فقیران آبرومند بدهید.	
5		قَالُوا لِقَوْمِهِمْ إِنّا بُرَآءُ مِنْکُمْ وَمِمّا تَعْبُدُونَ مِن دُونِ اللّهِ کَفَرْنَا بِکُمْ وَ بَدَا بَیْنَنَا وَبَیْنَکُمُ الْعَدَاوَةُ وَالْبَغْضَاءُ أَبَدًا	Al-Momtahene, 4
Maleki		به قومشان گفتند ما به شما و بت‌هایی که به جای خدا می‌پرستید کاری نداریم و عقایدتان را قبول نمی کنیم دیگر بین ما و شما تا ابد دشمنی و کینه افتاد	
6		وَ الّذِینَ تَبَوّءُو الدّارَ وَ الْإِیمَانَ مِنْ قَبْلِهِمْ	Al-Hashr, 9

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
Maleki	Also	همین طور برای انصار نیازمندی است که قبل از مهاجران مکه در مدینه ساکن بوده‌اند.	
7		وَ أَصْحَابُ مَدْيَنَ وَ كُذِّبَ مُوسَى...	Al-Haj, 44
Safavi	And also	و نیز اهل مدین و موسی هم از سوی فرعونیان تکذیب شد.	
8		أَلَمْ يَأْتِكُمْ نَبَأُ الَّذِينَ كَفَرُوا مِنْ قَبْلُ فَذَاقُوا وَبَالَ أَمْرِهِمْ وَ لَهُمْ عَذَابٌ أَلِيمٌ	Al-Taghabon, 5
Safavi	Also	آیا خبر کسانی که کفر ورزیدند و وزر و بال کارشان را در همین جهان چشیدند به شما مشرکان نرسیده است؟ آنان در آخرت نیز عذابی دردناک خواهند داشت.	
9		هَذَا ذِكْرُ مَنْ مَعِيَ وَ ذِكْرُ مَنْ قَبْلِي	Al-Anbiya, 24
Safavi	And … also	این قرآن برای همراهان من مایه یادآوری است و کتاب‌های گذشته نیز برای امت‌های پیشین مایه یادآوری بوده‌است.	
10		..وَ إِنْ تَظَاهَرَا عَلَيْهِ فَإِنَّ اللَّهَ هُوَ مَوْلَاهُ وَجِبْرِيلُ وَصَالِحُ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ وَ الْمَلَائِكَةُ بَعْدَ ذَلِكَ ظَهِيرٌ.	Al-Tahrim, 4
	And in addition… also	..و اگر بر ضد او هم داستان شوید خداوند خود یاور اوست و جبریل و صالحی از مومنان نیز یاور اویند و علاوه بر اینان فرشتگان هم پشتیبان او خواهند بود.	
11		وَمِنَ النَّاسِ مَنْ يُجَادِلُ فِي اللَّهِ بِغَيْرِ عِلْمٍ وَ لَا هُدًى وَ لَا كِتَابٍ مُنِيرٍ	Al-Haj, 8
Maleki	Moreover … or	عده‌ای هم هستند که در باره قدرت خدا چون و چرا می‌کنند، آن هم بدون دلیل عقلی، الهام درونی یا استناد به کتاب روشنگر آسمانی.	

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
12		وَ قَوْمُ إِبْرَاهِيمَ وَ قَوْمُ لُوطٍ	Al-Haj, 43
Maleki	Moreover… also	همین طور هم قوم ابراهیم و قوم لوط	
13		وَ وَهَبْنَا لَهُ إِسْحَاقَ وَ يَعْقُوبَ نَافِلَةً وَ كُلًّا جَعَلْنَا صَالِحِينَ	Al-Anbia, 72
Maleki	Also… and in addition	پسری هم به نام اسحاق به ابراهیم بخشیدیم و علاوه بر آن نوه ای به نام یعقوب، همگی شان را افرادی شایسته کردیم.	

Table 6

Persian Descriptive EDMs Equivalents for the Quranic EDM Wa

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
1		...نُؤْمِنُ بِمَا أُنْزِلَ عَلَيْنَا وَ يَكْفُرُونَ بِمَا وَرَاءَهُ وَهُوَ الْحَقُّ مُصَدِّقًا لِمَا مَعَهُمْ ...	Al-Baqarah, 91
Maleki	Yea	ما فقط توراتی را که بر خودمان نازل شده باور می کنیم بله قرآن را باور نمی کنند با آنکه حق است و تورات آنها را قبول دارد.	
2		...وَ يَتَعَلَّمُونَ مَا يَضُرُّهُمْ وَلَا يَنْفَعُهُمْ ...	Al-Baqarah, 102
Safavi	Yea	آری یهودیان چیزهایی را از هاروت و ماروت فرا می گرفتند که برای آنان زیانبار بود و سودی عایدشان نمی کرد.	
3		...وَ قُولُوا حِطَّةٌ نَغْفِرْ لَكُمْ خَطَايَاكُمْ وَ سَنَزِيدُ الْمُحْسِنِينَ.	Al-Baqarah, 58
Maleki	Furthermore	و بگویید: خدایا گناهان‌مان را بریز تا خطاهای‌تان را ببخشیم. در ضمن، درستکاران را به رشد و تعالی خواهیم رساند.	
4		وَ إِسْمَاعِيلَ وَإِدْرِيسَ وَذَا الْكِفْلِ كُلٌّ مِنَ الصَّابِرِينَ	Al-Anbia, 85

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
Maleki	Moreover…also	در ضمن اسماعیل و ادریس و ذوالکفل هم همگی جزو بندگان صبور بودند.	
5		…تَضَعُ كُلُّ ذَاتِ حَمْلٍ حَمْلَهَا وَ تَرَى النَّاسَ سُكَارَى …	Al-Haj, 2
Maleki	Altogether	…هر حامله جنینش را می اندازد اصلاً خیال میکنی که عقل از سر مردم پریده،….	
6		وَ مَنْ أَظْلَمُ مِمَّنِ افْتَرَى عَلَى اللَّهِ الْكَذِبَ وَ هُوَ يُدْعَى إِلَى الْإِسْلَامِ وَاللَّهُ لَا يَهْدِى الْقَوْمَ الظَّالِمِينَ	Al-Saf, 7
Maleki	Whom	چه کسانی ستمکار تر از آنهایی اند که به دین اسلام دعوت می شوند ولی به خدا نسبت دروغ میدهند خدا دست چنین مردم بد کاری را نمی گیرد.	
7		…أَطِيعُوا اللَّهَ وَرَسُولَهُ وَ اللَّهُ خَبِيرٌ بِمَا تَعْمَلُونَ	Al-Mojadelah, 13
Safavi	Who	خدا و پیامبرش را فرمان برید که خدا به آنچه که می‌کنید آگاه است.	
8		…وَ ظَلَّلْنَا عَلَيْكُمُ الْغَمَامَ وَأَنْزَلْنَا عَلَيْكُمُ الْمَنَّ وَالسَّلْوَى…	Al-Baqarah, 57
Maleki	In addition	تازه ابرها را سایه سرتان کردیم و برایشان گز انگبین و بلدرچین فرستادیم.	
9		قُلْ هُوَ أَذًى فَاعْتَزِلُوا النِّسَاءَ فِى الْمَحِيضِ وَ لَا تَقْرَبُوهُنَّ حَتَّى يَطْهُرْنَ	Al-Baghareh, 222
Maleki	That is	بگو این حالت ناراحتی و رنج دارد پس در دوره عادات ماهیانه از همبستری شدن با همسرانشان بپرهیزید یعنی با آن‌ها نزدیکی نکنید تا پاک شوند.	
10		حَافِظُوا عَلَى الصَّلَوَاتِ وَ الصَّلَاةِ الْوُسْطَى وَقُومُوا	Al-Baghareh, 238

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
		لِلّهِ قَانِتِینَ	
Maleki	More specifically	کاملاً مراقب نمازها به ویژه نماز ظهر باشید و به خاطر خدا و با فروتنی به نماز بایستید.	
11		وَ جَاءَ أَهْلُ الْمَدِینَهِٔ یَسْتَبْشِرُونَ	Al-Hejr, 67
Maleki	On the other hand	از آن طرف مردان شهر ذوق زده و گوش به گوش رسان به طرف خانه لوط آمدند.	
12		وَ نَبِّئْهُمْ عَنْ ضَیْفِ إِبْرَاهِیمَ	Al-Hejr, 51
Maleki	To clarify the issue	برای جا افتادن مطلب داستان فرشتگانی را بازگو کن که مهمان ابراهیم شدند.	
13		وَ أَنّا ظَنَنّا أَنْ لَنْ تَقُولَ الْإِنْسُ وَالْجِنُّ عَلَى اللّهِ کَذِبًا	Al-Jen, 5
Maleki	Also	ما هم که فکر می کردیم انسان ها و جنی ها هیچ وقت به خدا دروغ نمی بندند این حرفها را باور کردیم	
14		...وَ سَقَاهُمْ رَبُّهُمْ شَرَابًا طَهُورًا.	Al-Ensan, 21
Maleki	Above all	...برتر از همه خدا شرابی بسیار پاکیزه به آنان می نوشاند.	

Contrastive DMs

These Persian translators have applied 14 different types and combinations of contrastive discourse markers (CDMs) in the translation of the Quranic EDM *wa* into Persian. This group of discourse markers has got the lowest frequency of distribution in the corpus. However, they also displayed another aspect of creativity in the rendering of this DM (Table 7).

Table 7

Persian CDMs equivalents for the Quranic EDM Wa

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
1		كَيْفَ تَكْفُرُونَ بِاللَّهِ وَ كُنْتُمْ أَمْوَاتًا فَأَحْيَاكُمْ ثُمَّ يُمِيتُكُمْ	Al-Baghareh, 28
Maleki	Although	چطور خدا را قبول ندارید؟ در حالی که بی جان بودید و خدا به شما زندگی بخشید بعد از آن شما را میمیراند	
2		وَلَا تَلْبِسُوا الْحَقَّ بِالْبَاطِلِ وَتَكْتُمُوا الْحَقَّ وَأَنْتُمْ تَعْلَمُونَ	Al-Baghareh, 42
Safavi	While	و حق را در چهره باطل آشکار نسازید و حق را کتمان نکنید درحالی که آن را می دانید	
3		يَوْمَ يَبْعَثُهُمُ اللَّهُ جَمِيعًا فَيُنَبِّئُهُمْ بِمَا عَمِلُوا أَحْصَاهُ اللَّهُ وَ نَسُوهُ وَ اللَّهُ عَلَى كُلِّ شَيْءٍ شَهِيدٌ	Al-Mojadele, 6
Maleki	But	در روزی که خدا دوباره همه‌شان را زنده می‌کند و از آنچه کرده‌اند باخبرشان می‌سازد همان کارهایی که خدا یکی یکی ثبت شان کرده است ولی خودشان فراموش کردند خدا شاهد همه چیز است	
4		يُخَادِعُونَ اللَّهَ وَالَّذِينَ آمَنُوا وَ مَا يَخْدَعُونَ إِلَّا أَنْفُسَهُمْ وَمَا يَشْعُرُونَ	Al-Baghareh, 9
Safavi	But	با خدا و کسانی که ایمان آورده‌اند سخت نیرنگ می بازند ولی جز خود را فریب نمی‌دهند و این را در نمی یابند	
5		وَ لِكُلٍّ وِجْهَةٌ هُوَ مُوَلِّيهَا فَاسْتَبِقُوا الْخَيْرَاتِ أَيْنَ مَا تَكُونُوا يَأْتِ بِكُمُ اللَّهُ جَمِيعًا إِنَّ اللَّهَ عَلَى كُلِّ شَيْءٍ قَدِيرٌ	Al-Baghareh, 148
Maleki	Though	هر گروهی به هر حال قبله‌ای دارد که به طرف	

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
		آن رو می کند پس بیشتر از این درباره تغییر قبله بحث نکنید و به جایش در کارهای خوب از همدیگر سبقت بگیرید	
6		وَ لَوْلَا أَنْ کَتَبَ اللّهُ عَلَیْهِمُ الْجَلَاءَ لَعَذَّبَهُمْ فِی الدُّنْیَا وَ لَهُمْ فِی الْآخِرَةِ عَذَابُ النَّارِ	Al-Hashr, 3
Safavi	And anyhow	و اگر خدا این جلای وطن را بر آنان مقرر نکرده بود قطعاً آنان را در دنیا عذاب می‌کرد و به هر حال برای آنان در آخرت عذاب آتش خواهد بود.	
7		وَإِنْ یَأْتُوکُمْ أُسَارَى تُفَادُوهُمْ وَ هُوَ مُحَرَّمٌ عَلَیْکُمْ إِخْرَاجُهُمْ أَفَتُؤْمِنُونَ بِبَعْضِ الْکِتَابِ وَتَکْفُرُونَ بِبَعْضٍ	Al-Baghareh, 85
Maleki	However	اگر هم اسیر شما شوند آنها را با اسیران خودتان مبادله می کنید یا با گرفتن پول آزادشان می سازیم در صورتی که از اولش هم آواره کردنشان بر شما حرام بود. بعضی از احکام و تورات را می پذیرید و بعضی را رد می‌کنید؟	
8		یَا أَیُّهَا الَّذِینَ آمَنُوا لَا تَتَّخِذُوا عَدُوِّی وَ عَدُوَّکُمْ أَوْلِیَاءَ تُلْقُونَ إِلَیْهِمْ بِالْمَوَدَّةِ وَ قَدْ کَفَرُوا بِمَا جَاءَکُمْ مِنَ الْحَقِّ	Al-Momtaheneh, 1
Safavi	While	ای کسانی که ایمان آورده اید دشمنان من و دشمنان خودتان را دوست نگیرید شما با آنان طرح دوستی می افکنید در صورتی که آنان قرآن و آیینی را که برای شما آمده و سراسر حق است انکار کردند.	

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
9		هُمُ الّذِينَ يَقُولُونَ لَا تُنْفِقُوا عَلَى مَنْ عِنْدَ رَسُولِ اللّهِ حَتّى يَنْفَضّوا وَ لِلّهِ خَزَائِنُ السّمَاوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ وَلَكِنّ الْمُنَافِقِينَ لَا يَفْقَهُونَ.	Al-Monafeghoon, 7
Maleki	While	آنها همان کسانی اند که می گویند به آنهایی که پیش پیامبر خدایند کمک نکنید تا از دور و برش پراکنده شوند حال آن که گنجینه‌های آسمانها و زمین مال خداست ولی منافق ها فهمش را ندارند	
10		يَقُولُونَ لَئِنْ رَجَعْنَا إِلَى الْمَدِينَةِ لَيُخْرِجَنّ الْأَعَزّ مِنْهَا الْأَذَلّ وَ لِلّهِ الْعِزّةُ وَلِرَسُولِهِ وَلِلْمُؤْمِنِينَ وَلَكِنّ الْمُنَافِقِينَ لَا يَعْلَمُونَ	Al-Monafeghoon, 8
Safavi	And while	می گویند اگر به مدینه باز کردیم قطعاً آنکه عزیزتر است آن را که زبون تر است از آنجا بیرون خواهد کرد. و حال آنکه عزت همه از آن خدا و پیامبرش و مومنان است اما منافقان نمی دانند	
11		إِنّ الّذِينَ يُحَادّونَ اللّهَ وَرَسُولَهُ كُبِتُوا كَمَا كُبِتَ الّذِينَ مِنْ قَبْلِهِمْ وَ قَدْ أَنْزَلْنَا آيَاتٍ بَيّنَاتٍ وَ لِلْكَافِرِينَ عَذَابٌ مُهِينٌ	Al-Mojadeleh, 5
Maleki	Yea despite	بله با وجود فرستادن آیه هایی به این روشنی کسانی که با خدا و رسولش در میافتند ذلیل می‌شوند همانطور که امثال‌شان در گذشته ذلیل شده‌اند عذابی خفت‌بار هم نصیب چنین بیدین هایی میشود.	
12		أَسَرّوا النّجْوَى الّذِينَ ظَلَمُوا هَلْ هَذَا إِلّا بَشَرٌ مِثْلُكُمْ أَفَتَأْتُونَ السّحْرَ وَ أَنْتُمْ تُبْصِرُونَ	Al-Anbia, 3

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
Maleki	However	سران بد کارشان آهسته بیخ گوش هم گفتند مگر نه اینکه این هم بشری مثل شماست با این که چشم دارید و میبینید به طرف حرف های سحر آمیزش می روید؟	
13		كُتِبَ عَلَيْكُمُ الْقِتَالُ وَ هُوَ كُرْهٌ لَكُمْ وَ عَسَى أَنْ تَكْرَهُوا شَيْئًا وَهُوَ خَيْرٌ لَكُمْ وَ عَسَى أَنْ تُحِبُّوا شَيْئًا وَهُوَ شَرٌّ لَكُمْ وَاللّٰهُ يَعْلَمُ وَ أَنْتُمْ لَا تَعْلَمُونَ	Al-Baghareh, 216
Safavi	While	جنگ بر شما واجب شده است با این که آن برای شما دشوار و ناخوشایند است شاید چیزی را ناخوشایند بدانید درحالیکه آن برای شما نیکوست و شاید چیزی را دوست بدارید درحالیکه آن برای شما شر است	
14		مَا يَأْتِيهِمْ مِنْ ذِكْرٍ مِنْ رَبِّهِمْ مُحْدَثٍ إِلَّا اسْتَمَعُوهُ وَ هُمْ يَلْعَبُونَ	Al-Anbia, 2
Maleki	But	هر حرف تازه ای از طرف خدا برایشان می‌آید ظاهراً خوب گوش می‌دهند اما آن را به شوخی می‌گیرند و دلشان متوجه دنیاست	
15		يُدْخِلُ مَنْ يَشَاءُ فِى رَحْمَتِهِ وَ الظَّالِمِينَ أَعَدَّ لَهُمْ عَذَابًا أَلِيمًا	Al-Ensan, 31
Safavi	But	از این رو هر که را بخواهد به رحمت خود در می آورد و این را تنها برای مومنان و تقواپیشگان خواسته است اما برای ستمکاران عذابی دردناک آماده کرده است	
16		وَ إِذَا بُشِّرَ أَحَدُهُمْ بِالْأُنْثَى ظَلَّ وَجْهُهُ مُسْوَدًّا وَ هُوَ كَظِيمٌ	Al-Nahl, 58
Safavi	However	این در حالی است که وقتی به یکی از آنان	

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
		مژده دختر دهند چهره‌اش از خشم سیاه می شود و خشم خود را فرو می برد	
17		لَا تَمُدَّنَّ عَيْنَيْكَ إِلَى مَا مَتَّعْنَا بِهِ أَزْوَاجًا مِنْهُمْ وَلَا تَحْزَنْ عَلَيْهِمْ وَ اخْفِضْ جَنَاحَكَ لِلْمُؤْمِنِينَ	Al-Hejr, 88
Maleki	But	وقتی می گوییم ندیده بگیر یعنی به امکاناتی مادی که گروه‌هایی از بی دین ها را از آن بهره مند کرده‌ایم چشم ندوز و برای گمراهی شان اندوه مخور در عین حال مومنان را زیر پر و بالت بگیر	
Maleki		يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا لَا تَقُولُوا رَاعِنَا وَ قُولُوا انْظُرْنَا وَاسْمَعُوا وَ لِلْكَافِرِينَ عَذَابٌ أَلِيمٌ	Al-Baghareh, 104
	Otherwise	مسلمانان دیگر نگویید راعنا و به جایش بگویید انظرنا. این توصیه را جدی بگیرید وگرنه سرکشان از این دستور عذابی زجرآور دارند	
18		فَيَتَعَلَّمُونَ مِنْهُمَا مَا يُفَرِّقُونَ بِهِ بَيْنَ الْمَرْءِ وَزَوْجِهِ وَ مَا هُمْ بِضَارِّينَ بِهِ مِنْ أَحَدٍ إِلَّا بِإِذْنِ اللَّهِ	Al-Baghareh, 102
Maleki	Although	ولی از آن دو فرشته چیزهایی یاد می گرفتند که با آن بین مرد و همسرش جدایی می‌انداختند هر چند که بی اجازه خدا نمی توانستند با جادو به کسی ضربه بزنند	
19		...وَ تَنَاجَوْا بِالْبِرِّ وَ التَّقْوَى وَ اتَّقُوا اللَّهَ الَّذِي إِلَيْهِ تُحْشَرُونَ	Al-Mojadele, 9
Safavi	Rather	...بلکه در نجوا های تان از گرایش به کارهای پسندیده و رعایت تقوا سخن به میان آورید و از خدا که به سوی او محشور می شوید پروا بدارید	

Inferential DMs

In rendering the Quranic EDM *wa* into Persian, the translators have applied 26 different types and combinations of IDMs comprising the highest frequency of distribution in the corpus with 33% of the instances. They consist of three groups of argumentative, conditional, and conditional IDMs in the corpus. Argumentative IDMs comprised of 10 different DMs. Argumentative IDMs are applied to approve a point of view. Conditional IDMs consisted of 7 different types and combinations. Conclusion indicating IDMs are concerned with the expression of conclusions and consequences between units of discourse in the target text and, they include four different categories and combinations (Tables 8, 9, and 10).

Table 8

Persian argumentative IDMs equivalents for the Quranic EDM Wa

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
1		قَالَ رَبِّی یَعْلَمُ الْقَوْلَ فِی السَّمَاءِ وَ الْأَرْضِ وَ هُوَ السَّمِیعُ الْعَلِیمُ	Al-Anbia, 4
Maleki		پیامبر گفت هر حرفی در آسمان یا زمین زده شود از جمله همین سخن های در گوشی تان را خدا می داند زیرا او شنوای داناست	موافق
2		وَ لَهُ مَنْ فِی السَّمَاوَاتِ وَ الْأَرْضِ وَ مَنْ عِنْدَهُ لَا یَسْتَکْبِرُونَ عَنْ عِبَادَتِهِ وَ لَا یَسْتَحْسِرُونَ	Al-Anbia, 19
Safavi	Because	زیرا هر که در آسمانها و زمین است از آن اوست و کسانی که مقرب درگاه اویند کبر نمی‌ورزند و از پرستش او سرباز نمی زنند و خسته نمی‌شوند.	موافق
3		وَلَقَدْ آتَیْنَا إِبْرَاهِیمَ رُشْدَهُ مِنْ قَبْلُ وَ کُنَّا بِهِ عَالِمِینَ	Al-Anbia, 51
Maleki	Since	قبل از موسی و هارون هم ابراهیم را به رشد معرفتی رساندیم چون ما از شایستگی هایش	موافق

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
		با خبر بودیم	
4		.... وَ أَمَرُوا بِالْمَعْرُوفِ وَ نَهَوْا عَنِ الْمُنْكَرِ وَ لِلَّهِ عَاقِبَةُ الْأُمُورِ	Al-Haj, 41
Safavi	As	و به آنچه شایسته است فرمان می‌دهند و آنچه ناشایسته است نهی می‌کنند، چراکه فرجام امور از آن خداست	موافق
5		وَ عَلَّمْنَاهُ صَنْعَةَ لَبُوسٍ لَكُمْ لِتُحْصِنَكُمْ مِنْ بَأْسِكُمْ فَهَلْ أَنْتُمْ شَاكِرُونَ.	Al-Anbia, 80
Maleki	Because of	به خاطر شما فوت و فن زره سازی را به داوود یاد دادیم تا آن زره‌ها از ضربه‌های سفت و سخت حفظتان کند.	موافق
6		فَمَنْ يَعْمَلْ مِنَ الصَّالِحَاتِ وَ هُوَ مُؤْمِنٌ فَلَا كُفْرَانَ لِسَعْيِهِ وَ إِنَّا لَهُ كَاتِبُونَ	Al-Anbia, 94
Maleki	Due to	بنابر این هر که از روی ایمان و اعتقاد کارهای خوب بکند، کار و کوشش او نادیده گرفته نمی‌شود و ما همه را برایش ثبت و ضبط می‌کنیم.	موافق
7		خَتَمَ اللَّهُ عَلَى قُلُوبِهِمْ وَ عَلَى سَمْعِهِمْ وَ عَلَى أَبْصَارِهِمْ غِشَاوَةٌ وَ لَهُمْ عَذَابٌ عَظِيمٌ	Al-Baghareh, 7
Maleki	Also due to	چون خدا بر دلها و گوش هایشان مهر بدبختی زده آخر پرده غفلتی جلوی چشم هایشان را گرفته است برای همین هم عذاب بی اندازه در انتظارشان است	موافق
8		وَ لِلَّهِ غَيْبُ السَّمَاوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ وَ مَا أَمْرُ السَّاعَةِ إِلَّا كَلَمْحِ الْبَصَرِ أَوْ هُوَ أَقْرَبُ إِنَّ اللَّهَ عَلَى كُلِّ شَيْءٍ قَدِيرٌ	Al-Nahl, 77

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
Maleki	So	اسرار آسمانها و زمین از جمله اسرار قیامت فقط در اختیار خداست برای همین برپایی قیامت برای خدا مثل یک چشم به هم زدن است و حتی آسانتر زیرا خدا از عهده هر کاری بر می‌آید	موافق
9		وَ لَقَدْ جَاءَهُمْ رَسُولٌ مِنْهُمْ فَكَذَّبُوهُ....	Al-Nahl, 113
Maleki	Of course	البته پیامبری از خودشان برای راهنمایی شان برخاست اما به او برچسب دروغگویی زدند	موافق
10		وَ عَلَى الَّذِينَ هَادُوا حَرَّمْنَا مَا قَصَصْنَا عَلَيْكَ مِنْ قَبْلُ...	Al-Nahl, 118
Maleki	Of course…also	البته برای یهودیان نعمت های دیگری را هم حرام کردیم که قبلاً برایت شرح دادیم	موافق

Table 9

Persian conditional IDMs equivalents for the Quranic EDM Wa

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
1		...وَ مَا ظَلَمْنَاهُمْ وَلَكِنْ كَانُوا أَنْفُسَهُمْ يَظْلِمُونَ	Al-Nahl, 118
Maleki	In fact	در واقع ما به آنها بد نکردیم بلکه آنها خودشان به خود بد کردند	موافق
2		وَ لَا يَحِلُّ لَهُنَّ أَنْ يَكْتُمْنَ مَا خَلَقَ اللَّهُ فِي أَرْحَامِهِنَّ إِنْ كُنَّ يُؤْمِنَّ بِاللَّهِ وَ الْيَوْمِ الْآخِرِ	Al-Baghareh, 228
Maleki	And if	و اگر به خدا و روز قیامت ایمان دارند نباید حاملگی شان را مخفی کنند	موافق
3		وَ اللَّهُ يَقْبِضُ وَ يَبْسُطُ وَ إِلَيْهِ تُرْجَعُونَ	Al-Baghareh, 245
Maleki	Only	فقط خدا روزی بندگان را کم و زیاد می کند و دست آخر هم فقط به سوی او برگردانده می شوید.	موافق

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
4		مَنْ عَمِلَ صَالِحًا مِنْ ذَكَرٍ أَوْ أُنْثَى وَ هُوَ مُؤْمِنٌ فَلَنُحْيِيَنَّهُ حَيَاةً طَيِّبَةً	Al-Nahl, 97
Maleki	Due to	به آنان که کار خوب کنند چه مرد باشند چه زن به شرط با ایمان بودن حتماً زندگی سالم و لذت بخشی می بخشیم.	موافق
5		وَ لَقَدْ جَاءَكُمْ مُوسَى بِالْبَيِّنَاتِ ثُمَّ اتَّخَذْتُمُ الْعِجْلَ مِنْ بَعْدِهِ وَ أَنْتُمْ ظَالِمُونَ	Al-Baghareh, 92
Maleki	Really	در حقیقت موسی برای تان معجزه های روشنی آورد. ولی شما در نبود او مشغول گوساله پرستی شدید. واقعاً که بد کردید.	موافق
6		وَ يُشْهِدُ اللَّهَ عَلَى مَا فِي قَلْبِهِ وَ هُوَ أَلَدُّ الْخِصَامِ	Al-Baghareh, 204
Maleki	Perhaps	تازه خدا را برای چیزی که در دل دارند شاهد می‌گیرند. اتفاقاً آن‌ها دشمن سرسخت اسلام‌اند.	موافق
		كُتِبَ عَلَيْكُمُ الْقِتَالُ وَهُوَ كُرْهٌ لَكُمْ وَ عَسَى أَنْ تَكْرَهُوا شَيْئًا وَهُوَ خَيْرٌ لَكُمْ	Al-Baghareh, 216
Maleki	Maybe	جنگ با دشمن بر شما واجب است، هر چند برایتان ناخوشایند است! شاید چیزی را دوست نداشته باشید، اما به نفعتان باشد.	

Table 10

Persian conclusion indicating IDMs equivalents for the Quranic EDM Wa

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
1		إِنْ يَثْقَفُوكُمْ يَكُونُوا لَكُمْ أَعْدَاءً وَ يَبْسُطُوا إِلَيْكُمْ أَيْدِيَهُمْ وَأَلْسِنَتَهُمْ بِالسُّوءِ...	Al-Momtaheneh, 2
Safavi	Therefore	اگر بر شما دست یابند با شما دشمنی می کنند هرچند دست دوستی به آنان داده باشید. آنان	موافق

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
		در این صورت دست و زبانشان را به بدی به سوی شما می گشایند....	
2		وَ مَنْ يُرِدْ فيهِ بِإِلْحادٍ بِظُلْمٍ نُذِقْهُ مِنْ عَذابٍ أَليمٍ	Al-Haj, 25
Maleki	Generally	كلاً آن عذاب سزای آنهایی است که با انحراف از حقیقت می خواهند در این سرزمین ظالمانه دست به چنین کارهایی بزنند	موافق
3		وَإِذْ جَعَلْنَا الْبَيْتَ مَثَابَةً لِلنَّاسِ وَأَمْنًا وَ اتَّخِذُوا مِنْ مَقامِ إِبْراهيمَ مُصَلًّى	Al-Baghareh, 125
Safavi	So	و یادآرآن زمانی را که آن خانه کعبه را بازگشتنگاهی برای مردم و مکانی امن قرار دادیم پس از مقام ابراهیم جایگاهی برای دعا برگزینید	موافق
4		وَلَكِنَّ الْبِرَّ مَنِ اتَّقَى وَ أْتُوا الْبُيُوتَ مِنْ أَبْوَابِهَا وَ اتَّقُوا اللَّهَ لَعَلَّكُمْ تُفْلِحُونَ	Al-Baghareh, 189
Maleki	So	بلکه خوبی آن است که مراقب رفتارتان باشید پس در هر کاری از راهش وارد شوید و در حضور خدا مراقب رفتارتان باشید تا خوشبخت شوید.	موافق
5		وَ قالُوا قُلُوبُنا غُلْفٌ بَلْ لَعَنَهُمُ اللَّهُ بِكُفْرِهِمْ فَقَليلًا ما يُؤْمِنُونَ	Al-Baghareh, 88
Maleki	Well then	می گفتند خب پس حتماً فهم ما کور است نخیر خدا برای بی دینی ایشان لعنتشان کرده است پس عده کمی از آنها ایمان می آورند	موافق
6		...وَ يَتَعَلَّمُونَ ما يَضُرُّهُمْ وَ لا يَنْفَعُهُمْ	Al-Baghareh, 102
Maleki	In sum	...خلاصه یهودی ها چیزهایی یاد می گرفتند که به آنها ضرر می زد و فایده‌ای هم نداشت	موافق

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
7		وَإِذَا رَآکَ الَّذِینَ کَفَرُوا إِنْ يَتَّخِذُونَکَ إِلَّا هُزُوًا أَهَذَا الَّذِی يَذْکُرُ آلِهَتَکُمْ وَ هُمْ بِذِکْرِ الرَّحْمَنِ هُمْ کَافِرُونَ	Al-Anbia, 36
Maleki	Well	وقتی بت‌پرستاها تو را می‌بینند، غیر از این که به مسخره‌ات می‌گیرند، انگار کاری ندارند: آیا این همان است که از بت‌های‌تان بد می‌گوید؟ خب طبیعی است، به خدای رحمان که ایمان ندارند.	

Table 11

Persian conclusion indicating IDMs equivalents for the Quranic EDM Wa

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
1		فِی قُلُوبِهِمْ مَرَضٌ فَزَادَهُمُ اللَّهُ مَرَضًا وَ لَهُمْ عَذَابٌ أَلِيمٌ بِمَا کَانُوا يَکْذِبُونَ	Al-Baghareh, 10
Maleki	Consequently	آنها مرض دارند و خدا هم مریضی شان را بیشتر کرده و می کنند. در نتیجه این همه دروغ گویی گرفتار عذابی زجرآور می‌شوند.	موافق
2		أُولَئِکَ عَلَيْهِمْ صَلَوَاتٌ مِنْ رَبِّهِمْ وَ رَحْمَةٌ وَ أُولَئِکَ هُمُ الْمُهْتَدُونَ	Al-Baghareh, 157
Safavi	And as a result	اینانند که الطاف از جانب پروردگار شامل حالشان خواهد شد و در پی آن رحمتی آنان را فرا خواهد گرفت و در نتیجه به سوی حق هدایت خواهند یافت	موافق
3		وَلَا يَرْتَابَ الَّذِينَ أُوتُوا الْکِتَابَ وَالْمُؤْمِنُونَ وَ لِيَقُولَ الَّذِينَ فِی قُلُوبِهِمْ مَرَضٌ وَالْکَافِرُونَ مَاذَا أَرَادَ اللَّهُ بِهَذَا…	Al-Modather, 31
Safavi	And finally	و نیز مومنان در حقانیت قرآن تردید نکنند و	موافق

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
		سرانجام کسانی که در دلهایشان بیماری شک و نفاق است و کفر پیشگان بگویند خدا از … چه چیزی اراده کرده است	
4		فَاسْتَجَبْنَا لَهُ فَكَشَفْنَا مَا بِهِ مِنْ ضُرٍّ وَ آتَيْنَاهُ أَهْلَهُ وَ مِثْلَهُمْ مَعَهُمْ رَحْمَةً مِنْ عِنْدِنَا وَ ذِكْرَى لِلْعَابِدِينَ	Al-Anbia, 84
Maleki	Until	از سر لطف مان بچه های مرده اش را زنده کردیم و تازه به همان تعداد هم به او بچه دادیم تا عبادت کنندگان ارزش صبر و دعا را بفهمند	موافق

Temporal Discourse Markers

In rendering the Quranic DM *wa* into Persian, 17 different types and combinations of Persian TDMs are applied, comprising 23% of the frequency of distribution in the corpus. These two Persian translators have applied three groups of Persian TDMs (Table 12): A. TDMs indicating the end of the time sequence. They indicate the end of the time sequence and provide information about the outcome and consequences (extracts 1, 2, 3, 6, 11). B. TDMs indicating time in progress: this group of DMs provides information about the even seen progress at the moment of construction of discourse (extracts 4 and 5). C. TDMs indicating the ordinal sequence of events. They deal with the order of events within the units of discourse (extracts 7, 8, 9, 10).

Table 12

Persian TDMs equivalents for the Quranic EDM Wa

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
1		كُلُّ نَفْسٍ ذَائِقَةُ الْمَوْتِ وَ نَبْلُوكُمْ بِالشَّرِّ وَ الْخَيْرِ فِتْنَةً وَ إِلَيْنَا تُرْجَعُونَ	Al-Anbia, 35
Safavi	And finally	هر انسانی مرگ را خواهد چشید و ما شما را در مدت عمرتان چنانکه باید به بد و نیک می	

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
		آزماییم و سرانجام به سوی ما بازگردانده می شوید	
2		ثُمّ لْیَقْضُوا تَفَثَهُمْ وَ لْیُوفُوا نُذُورَهُمْ وَ لْیَطّوّفُوا بِالْبَیْتِ الْعَتِیقِ	Al-Haj, 29
Maleki	So at the end	بعد با تراشیدن سر یا کوتاه کردن مو و ناخن از احرام خارج بشوند و بقیه اعمال حج شان را به جا بیاورند تا اینکه دست آخر دور خانه تاریخی کعبه طواف کنند	
3		وَ الّتِی أَحْصَنَتْ فَرْجَهَا فَنَفَخْنَا فِیهَا مِنْ رُوحِنَا وَجَعَلْنَاهَا وَابْنَهَا آیَةً لِلْعَالَمِینَ	Al-Anbia, 91
Maleki	And finally	و در پایان، مریم: او در زندگی پاکدامن بود ما هم با اراده الهی مان باردارش کردیم و بچه اش را به عنوان معجزه‌ای بزرگ به جهانیان شناساند ایم	
4		وَ دَاوُودَ وَ سُلَیْمَانَ إِذْ یَحْکُمَانِ فِی الْحَرْثِ إِذْ نَفَشَتْ فِیهِ غَنَمُ الْقَوْمِ وَکُنّا لِحُکْمِهِمْ شَاهِدِینَ	Al-Anbia, 78
Maleki	Now	حالا بشنو از داوود و سلیمان روزی درباره چگونگی جبران خسارت مزرعه‌ای مشورت می‌کردند که شب هنگام گوسفندان عده‌ای در آن چریده و پایمال کرده بودند	
5		وَ ذَا النّونِ إِذْ ذَهَبَ مُغَاضِبًا…	Al-Anbia, 87
Maleki	Now	حال قصه یونس: در نتیجه ایمان نیاوردن مردم با ناراحتی زودتر از انتظار از شهر خارج شد	
6		کُلّ نَفْسٍ ذَائِقَةُ الْمَوْتِ وَ نَبْلُوکُمْ بِالشّرّ وَ الْخَیْرِ فِتْنَةً وَ إِلَیْنَا تُرْجَعُونَ	Al-Anbia, 35
Maleki	And also at the end	هر کسی طعم مرگ را میچشد با اتفاق های	

Translator	Equivalent	Extracts	Reference
		خوب و بد امتحان تان می‌کنیم و آخر کار هم فقط به سوی ما برتان می گرداند.	
7		وَ مَا جَعَلْنَا لِبَشَرٍ مِنْ قَبْلِکَ الْخُلْدَ أَفَإِنْ مِتّ فَهُمُ الْخَالِدُونَ	Al-Anbia, 34
Maleki	So far	تا به حال به هیچ بشری عمر جاودان ندادیم، اگر از دنیا بروی آیا بت پرست‌هایی که در آرزوی مرگ نشسته‌اند جاودان می‌مانند؟	
8		وَ تَاللّهِ لَأَکِیدَنّ أَصْنَامَکُمْ بَعْدَ أَنْ تُوَلّوا مُدْبِرِینَ	Al-Anbia, 57
Maleki	Then	بعد با خودش گفت به خدا در غیاب و غفلت شما نقشه ای برای بت های تان اجرا خواهم کرد	
9		وَ عَلّمَ آدَمَ الْأَسْمَاءَ کُلّهَا ثُمّ عَرَضَهُمْ عَلَی الْمَلَائِکَةِ فَقَالَ أَنْبِئُونِی بِأَسْمَاءِ هَؤُلَاءِ إِنْ کُنْتُمْ صَادِقِینَ	Al-Baghareh, 31
Maleki	After	پس از آفرینش آدم خدا تمام حقایق غیبی عالم را به او یاد داد بعد آنها را به فرشتگان نشان داد	
10		وَ قَالَ لَهُمْ نَبِیّهُمْ إِنّ آیَةَ مُلْکِهِ أَنْ یَأْتِیَکُمُ التّابُوتُ فِیهِ سَکِینَةٌ مِنْ رَبّکُمْ	Al-Baghareh, 248
Maleki	Then	آن وقت پیامبرشان به آن‌ها مژده داد نشانه خدایی بودن فرماندهی طالوت صندوق عهدی است که پیش شما می آید تا دلگرمی و آرامشی از طرف خدا باشد	
11		وَ قَضَیْنَا إِلَیْهِ ذَلِکَ الْأَمْرَ أَنّ دَابِرَ هَؤُلَاءِ مَقْطُوعٌ مُصْبِحِینَ	Al-Hejr, 66
Maleki	Finally	بالاخره به لوط آن خبر تکان دهنده را رساندیم وقت‌سحر همه آنها ریشه کن میشوند.	

Discussion

Different types and combinations of Persian DMs (77 types) were applied in rendering the Quranic EDM *wa* into Persian language. They included four different groups of DMs expressing discursive relations of elaboration, contrast, inference, and temporality between units of discourse. This result demonstrates logical, pragmatic, and social adjustment, flexibility, dynamism, and creativity in the construction of discourse. As a result, these discourse-monitoring components are not translated literally. How can this innovative approach in rendering this Quranic DM be interpreted and substantiated? What are the justifications for this pragmatic creativity and enhancement?

This researcher's assumption in the introduction was that, translators generally appeal to some sort of adjustment and development in the encoding of information in translation. The adaptation and creation are stemmed from the structural, contextual, cultural, and social dynamics of human communication. The translators are supposed to approach the encoding of information based on the requirements of different languages, cultures, and discourses to provide their addressees with a culturally, pragmatically, and rhetorically coherent and understandable text. The examination of strategies applied by these Iranian translators proves that this assumption about their methodologies is substantiated.

There are different lines of justifications for these various categories of innovations and adjustments. This creative approach to the construction of discourse in translation is reported by different researchers. The first line of explanation deals with the role of natural language use in the encoding of information in the communicative process of translation. Frank-Job (2006) and Frisson (2009) discovered that translators appealed to the natural use of language in translation. As a result, new inferences, interpretations, and functions were generated for DMs on the basis of flexible conditions of various social contexts in human communication. In line with this finding, Furko (2014) and Mohammadi (2021) reported that translators assumed a context-sensitive procedure in discourse construction in the translation of DMs and translated DMs communicatively on the basis of the context and situation. That is, no literal rendering was substantiated in the analysis of the Persian parallel corpora.

Another line of justification focuses on speakers' and writers' manipulative approaches to the use of language in social settings. Some researchers (Aijmir, 2002; Egg & Redeker, 2008; Frisson & Pickering, 2001) conclude that communicators utilize and make sense of DMs differently in the construction of discourse. That is, DMs are context-dependent, are manipulated dynamically by interlocutors, and as a result, undertake widespread categories of senses, uses, and functions. Then these diverse realizations in decoding and encoding of DMs become more predominant in rendering and, DMs are generally replaced with numerous types and combinations of DMs in the translation process (Crible et al. 2018). Another group of researchers (Egg & Redeker, 2008) resort to underspecification theory- a theory in discourse - to justify modifications of DMs in rendering. In underspecification theory, the difference between the meaning and the pragmatic functions of linguistic components in contexts of use is analyzed and explored. Therefore, these substitutions, adaptations, and modifications are viewed as the different manifestations, demonstrations, and indexes of underspecification in translation (Frisson & Pickering, 2001; Mohammadi, 2021).

Mohammadi (2021) analyzed the interpretation of DMs in Persian and English parallel corpora and reported different types of adaptations and changes in translation. This researcher concluded that as translators attempt to construct a more comprehensible discourse for their audience, these adaptations can be justified on the basis of Grice's (1975) cooperative principles. This researcher maintains that translators try to encode the information on the basis of the requirements of different languages, cultures, and discourses. Hence, they try to facilitate the process of comprehension of text by their target audience.

Another source for justification and explanation for these changes in DMs translation can be based on the theory of pragmatic enrichment. It is the process whereby words, statements, and expressions adopt new meanings and functions that are different from their literal and semantic content, or are added to their literal and semantic meanings. These words, statements, and expressions as the components of an utterance are enriched by the contextual variables such as different places, times, and people involved in discourse constructed by the utterances in real-life situations such as writing, speaking, and translation (Cummins & Rohde, 2015).

Conclusion

What translators are expected to achieve is the adaptation of their approaches, lines of practical work, and equivalents to various syntactic, lexical, and semantic elements in other discourses and cultures. The creativity, innovation, flexibility, and dynamic approach observed in the translation of this EDM revealed that translation is a creative process in the construction of discourse in the context of the natural use of language in society through the employment of different pragmatic theories in human communication in other walks of life such as translation, interpretation, and interlocution. The theoretical perspectives applied in rendering this Quranic EDM into Persian include underspecification, cooperative principles, and pragmatic enrichment; that is, these modifications, amendments, and adjustments that bring about pragmatically enriched relationships between discourse units in the process of translation are based on the application of these theoretical perspectives within the framework of the natural use of language. The present research analyzed the translation of the most recurrent, complicated, and ambiguous EDM *wa* in the Quranic texts into Persian. Other comparative investigations need to be conducted on the translation of this DM into different African, American, and Asian languages. The findings of these investigations will shed light on various educational, research, and scientific components of curriculum planning and development through introducing new programs and courses in these pragmatic and discourse-oriented areas, rethinking material development procedures, and modifying translation quality assessment system. Generally, translators approach the use of language creatively, professionally, innovatively, and provide new synonyms, functions, and usages for the words, phrases, and expressions (Haug, 2014). Their results and findings and the analysis of the translators' professional language use are not put into practice in relevant fields, for instance, translation quality assessment, material development, and lexicography. For that reason, these findings would provide solutions to the problems and answers to the questions in the above areas.

References

Afrouz, M., & Mollanazar, H. (2017). Strategies opted for in translating twelve categories of Quranic terms. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *14*(55), 14-30.

Aijmir, K. (2002). *English discourse particles. Evidence from a corpus.* Johan Benjamins

Ashrafi, A., & Seyedalangi, E. (2010). Polysemic words in English translations of the Qur'an: A comparative study of translation by Saffarzadeh, Pickthall, Shakir and Arberry. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *13*(49), 63-79.

Cartoni, L & Zuferry, S. (2013). Annotating the meaning of discourse connectives by looking at their translation: The translation spotting, *Dialogue and Discourse, 4*(8), 65-86. DOI:10.5087/dad.2013.204

Chesterman, A. (2016). *Memes of translation.* John Benjamins.

Cummins, C. & Rohde, H. (2015). Evoking context with contrastive stress: Effects on pragmatic enrichment, *Frontiers in Psychology, 6*(7), 22-43. DOI: org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01779

Crible, L., Abuczki, A., Burksaitiene, N., Furko, P., & Nedoluzhko, A. (2019). Functions and translations of discourse markers in TED talks: A parallel corpus study of under specification in five languages. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *4*(142), 139-155. DOI:10.1016/j.pragma.2019.01.012

Egg, M., & Redeker, G. (2008). Underspecified discourse representation. In A. Benz, & P. Kühnlein (Eds.), *Constraints in Discourse* (pp. 117 - 138). (Pragmatics and Beyond New Series; No. 172). John Benjamins Publishers. https://www.researchgate.net/publication.

Eghbaly, A. (2010). A study of the Persian translations of metaphors in the Quranic chapters. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *13*(49), 7-25.

Eriss, A., & Hashemi, M. R. (2018). The impact of gender-based ideological perspective of translators on translations of the Holy Qur'an. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *15*(59).

Faghih Malek Marzban, N. (2008). The functions of conjunctions. *Humanities Scientific Research Quarterly, 4*(6), 145-168.

Frank-Job, B. (2006). A dynamic-interactional approach to discourse markers. In K. Fischer (Ed), *Approaches to discourse particles* (pp. 359-375). Elsevier.

Frisson, S. & Pickering, M. (2001). Obtaining a figurative interpretation of a word: Support for under specification. *Metaphor and Symbol*, *16*(4), 149–171. DOI:org/10.1080/10926488.2001.9678893

Frisson, S. (2009). Semantic under specification in language processing. *Language and Linguistics Compass, 3*(1), 111–127. DOI: org/10.1111/j.1749-818X.2008.00104.x

Furko, P. (2014). Perspectives on the translation of discourse markers. *Acta Universitatis Sapientiae, Philologica, 6*(2), 181–196. DOI: 10.1515/ausp-2015-0013

Glanzberg, M. (2018). The coherence theory. https://www.oxfordhandbooks.

Grice, H. P. (1975) Logic and conversation. In P. Cole and J. Morgan (Eds), *Studies in Syntax and Semantics III: Speech Acts*, pp. 183-98. Academic Press.

Hoek, J., & Zufferey, S. (2015). Factors influencing the implication of discourse relations across languages. Conference: Proceedings 11th Joint ACL - ISO Workshop on Interoperable Semantic Annotation. At: London. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/269105580

Hoek, J., Zufferey, S., Evers-Vermeul, J., & Sanders, T. (2017). Cognitive complexity and the linguistic marking of coherence relations: A parallel corpus study. *Journal of Pragmatics, 121*, 113-131. DOI: org/10.1016/j.pragma.2017.10.010

Haugh, S. (2014). Corpus-based studies in contrastive linguistics. *Oslo Studies in Language, 6*(1), 43-52. DOI: org/10.1075/bct.43

Hyland, K. (2005). Metadiscourse: *Exploring interaction in writing*. Continuum.

Kafash Roodi, P., Akbari, O., & Ghonsooli, B. (2010). Collocation errors in translations of the Holy Qur'an. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *13*(49), 51-65.

Karimnia, A., & Gharekhani, R. (2016). A polygenetic investigation of explicitation in English and Persian translations of the Holy Qur'an. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *14*(54), 26-41.

Maleki, A. (2017). *The Quran*, translation. Setareh Sabz.

Manafi Anari, S. (2003). Accuracy, clarity and naturalness in translation of religious texts. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *2*(5), 13-24.

Manafi Anari, S., & Ramezanpour Sobhani, M. (2017). Foregrounding and backgrounding in the Holy Qur'ān and its English translations. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *14*(56), 41-55.

Mansouri, M. (2015). A study of the translation of passive voice in Persian translations of the Holy Qur'an. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *12*(47), 14-28.

Mohammadi, A. M., & Dehghan, R. (2020). An analysis of discourse markers in translation criticism: Introducing a discourse monitoring model in the Iranian context. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *18*(69), 7–24.

Mohammadi, A. M. (2021). An analysis of the under specifications of "AND" in parallel corpora. *Journal of Foreign Language Research*, *11* (1), 67-80. DOI: 10.22059/JFLR.2021.321993.828

Mohammadi, Z., & Valavi, S. (2018). Word-selection methods in the translation of elliptical and excessive metonymy in the Holy Quran verses. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *15*(60), 34-47.

Mosaffa Jahromi, A. (2010). Ideological conflict and translating metaphors in the Holy Qur'an: cognitive view. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *13*(49), 25-41.

Movahhedian, M., & Yazdani, M. (2020). Extended metaphor in the glorious Qur'an through translation: A case study. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *18*(69), 43-60.

Nejadansari, D., &. Mohammadi, A. M. (2014). The frequencies and functions of discourse markers in the Iranian University EFL classroom discourse. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, *4*(2), 1-18. DOI: 10.5861/ijrsll.2014.840

Poshtdar, A. M. (2008). Strategies adopted in translating Quranic single words. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *6*(22), 31-46.

Poshtdar, A. M. (2010). Versified translation of the Qur'an in Mathnavi, *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *13*(49), 42-55.

Safavi, M. R. (2008). *The Quran*, translation. Abnoos.

Seliger, H., & Shohamy, E. (1989). *Second language research*. OUP.

Schiffrin, D. (2006). Discourse marker research and theory: revisiting and. In K. Fischer (Ed), *Approaches to discourse particles* (pp. 315-339). Elsevier.

Taghipour Bazargani, D. (2010). A comparative study on two translations of the Holy Quran: A critical discourse analysis approach. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *13*(49), 18-33.

Tayyebi, A. (2010). Translation problem and problem solving in translations of the glorious Quran: A cognitive psychology approach. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *13*(49), 34-49.

Urgelles-Coll, M. (2010). *The syntax and semantics of discourse markers*. Continuum.

Vaezi, M., Rasuli Ravandi, M. R., & Moseli, M. (2018). Translation analysis of emphasis devices of Qasr by negative (Lā) and exception (Illā) in some English translations of the Holy Qur'ān: A case study of Shakir, al-Hilālī-Muhsin Khān, and Irving translations. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *15*(60), 21-38.

Valavi, S., & Hassani, M. (2016). Translation of some types of singular metonymies in the last ten units of the Qur'an: A case study of the translations done by Elahi Ghomshei, Makarem, Moezzi, and Fouladvand. *Translation Studies Quarterly*, *13*(52), 19-33.

Yang, S. (2011). Investigating discourse markers in educational settings: A literature review. *ARECLS, 8*(7), 95-108.

Zufferey, S. (2017). Discourse connectives across languages: Their explicit or implicit translation. *Languages in Contrast, 16*(2), 264-279. DOI: org/10.1075/lic.16.2.05zuf

Journal of Language Horizons

Scientific Quarterly Journal of Language Horizons, *Alzahra University*
Volume 7, Issue 4, Winter 2024
Research Article
pp. 119-148

Motivational Dynamics in Foreign Language Learning: Motivated Learning Behavior, Proficiency, and Gender

Majid Ghorbani[*1]
Shokouh Rashvand Semiyari[2]

Received: 06/06/2022 Accepted: 09/08/2022

Abstract

Motivational development can no longer be considered as the stable phenomenon as it was considered in the past. It is now an element of individual difference which is constantly influenced by contextual factors. This study applied a dynamic system perspective and drew upon Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self-System to examine both male and female Iranian EFL learners' motivational and behavioral variability over time with different levels of proficiency. To this end, 590 beginner to upper intermediate male and female students completed the Motivational Factors Questionnaire at one-month intervals during the semester. The results indicated that the students' motivation could possibly be explored under dynamic systems' principles. The findings demonstrated how students' motivation changed over time and how it could be predicted in a moderately stable manner. The outcomes also showed that students' motivational and behavioral developments were mediated by their proficiency levels and gender. Implications and directions for further research were also stated.

Keywords: dynamic systems, ideal L2 self, L2 learning experience, motivated learning behavior, Motivation, ought-to L2 Self,

* Corresponding author
[1] Department of English Language Teaching, Islamic Azad University (East Tehran Branch), Tehran, Iran; M.Ghorbani@iauet.ac.ir
[2] Department of English Language Teaching, Islamic Azad University (East Tehran Branch), Tehran, Iran; Sh.Rashvand@iauet.ac.ir

DOI: 10.22051/lghor.2022.40658.1701

Introduction

Dynamic view toward language learning stating cause-effect relationships can no longer justify all the complex patterns in second/foreign language development. This does not denote that systems are always in their unpredictable states but rather it is possible to recognize the fixed stages and frequent structures of the system's variations, implying that predictability is no longer significant. Individual differences (IDs) including motivation, personality traits, aptitude, and attitudes deal with variations in the process of language development (Dörnyei, 2005; Roberts & Meyer, 2012). Some scholars have focused on the investigation of different ways individual differences interrelate with each other and with the external environment dynamically (Dörnyei, 2010).

Motivation is treated as the driving force that enables individuals to proceed against learning. Without motivation, even learners with the highest degree of language aptitude cannot achieve their goals. The motivation construct might compensate for existing shortcomings in learners' capabilities (Dörnyei et al., 2015). Different L2 motivational theories were presented over the past decades. Undoubtedly, the most influential one refers to Dörnyei's (2005) theory of L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) that has been examined in the current study. Learners' intended effort is an important construct that could predict other outcomes such as educational achievements and motivation. It relates to students' efforts to acquire a foreign or second language (Wen, 2011). The relationship between different levels of proficiency and motivation considering the role of gender has been also stipulated in different research studies.

With regard to individual differences, a dynamic perspective focuses on a shift from fixed and rigid status to dynamic and multi-componential materials. de Bot (2015) states the motivational patterns differ over various time spans. To examine such issues empirically and investigate whether the outcomes are consistent with dynamic oriented approach, this study applied a dynamic perspective to examine Iranian EFL students' motivational variability/stability over time at varying proficiency. It should be noted that learners' motivation (including ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience) and their motivated learning behavior (i.e., intended effort) were considered as the foci of the study, while their proficiency level and gender were treated as the moderating variables.

Review of the Related Literature

Dynamic Systems Theory (DST)

Dynamic System Theory has been devised to explain the behavior of the system by taking interactions between various components into account (Rind, 1999). In DST, the behavior of the system cannot be understood by analyzing the constituents alone rather the internal and external resources are to be considered as well. As confirmed by Ushioda (2009), dynamic system theory views learners as real persons having the authority to make changes in environment rather than being theoretical abstractions. Causal relationships between variables have no place in DST as it takes a holistic view towards variability to explain "how the interaction of the parts lead to the new behavior" (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, P. 231).

Larsen–Freeman (1997) believed DST is characterized as "dynamic, complex, nonlinear, chaotic, unpredictable, sensitive to initial conditions, open, self-organizing, feedback sensitive, and adaptive" (p. 142). To perceive some of the basic features of dynamic system theory, three key features of system dynamics including *change*, *context, and attractor state* were addressed in this paper. *Change* refers to the constant variations to the system state (i.e., variables under investigation at a particular span of time). Such changes are usually nonlinear as confirmed by Spoelman and Verspoor (2010). It emphasizes the fact that changes in output cannot be predicted proportionate to changes in the received input. A closely related concept introduced by Waninge et al. (2014) is the butterfly effect denoting that sometimes a great amount of input has little or no influence, while in other cases, little increase in input might give rise to a considerable amount of changes in the system. It could be concluded that the observed changes are not predictable and cannot be attributed to a definite reason. *Context* is an inseparable part of any system that helps understand the behavior and outcome of the system (Ushioda, 2015). Context encompasses the background factors prior to any interactions. Therefore, it can either confine or broaden the outcomes. Radford (2008) maintained that not only did outcomes and changes emerge within the context; they might be also adapted by contextual factors. As Dörnyei (2009) suggested, the mutual impact of individuals and environment help us understand the progression of a dynamic system. *Attractor state* deals with the certain level a system is intended to reach and settle down through self-organization (Papi & Hiver, 2020). Any dynamic system needs to reach to the preferred states (attractor state) during the progression. In fact, learners settle down in their motivational levels over time (Hiver, 2015). Attractor states allow us to perceive how predictability and stability occur as the outcomes of complexity (Hiver, 2015). The nature of stability enables the results of the progression to become visible or tangible (Mercer, 2011).

L2 Motivational Self-System and Dynamic Systems Theory

Motivational Self-System model drew on self-theory or possible selves introduced by Markus and Nurius (1986). As Dörnyei (2005, p. 102) maintains, possible selves represent "individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming". The theory offers a broad construct consisting of three dimensions: *the ideal L2 self*; that is associated with the favorable self-image one seeks to get in the future, *the ought-to L2 self*; which reveals the attributes that individuals think they ought to have to meet their objectives and keep away from undesirable outcomes, and *L2 Learning Experience (L2LE)*; that focuses on the individuals' experience, learning atmosphere, the influence of the instructor and/or peers, etc. Learners are constantly engaged in forward movement in the process of learning suggesting they are making progress consistent with the principles of self-discrepancy theory (Higgin, 1987). Learners' motivation would potentially change in the course of time, however the progression of motivational development sounds to be specific to each individual (Papi & Hiver, 2020). In spite of these individual differences, scholars have recently taken interest in realizing the shared patterns of motivational development among different learners which are perceptible at a group level (e.g., Zheng et al., 2020; Peng, Jager, et al., 2022). Dörnyei (2005) emphasized that "possible L2 selves are "phenomenologically constructed" (p.86). Such construction process is dependent upon individuals' varying capabilities to create lucid intellectual visions (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013) and their social challenges. As the learners find themselves in different circumstances, the capability to build a possible self is probable to change. This occurs due to contextual features and individuals' differences. Lee and Ju (2021) examined motivational fluctuations of learners in South Korea. They investigated how competence beliefs influenced motivational development in the course of time and presented a holistic view of the development of multidimensional motivation. In view of above, the trajectories of learners' L2 motivation as the focal point of the study were investigated in the present research.

Learners' Intended-Effort: Challenges and Problems

Motivated learning behavior is often assessed through intended effort, however; it suffers from two major problems. The first refers to the biased regulatory focus of the measure. Regulatory Focus Theory (Higgins, 1997) delineates two points: eagerness and vigilance strategies. L2 learners possessing the predominant promotion-focused inclination draw on an "*eagerness*" strategy to increase gains and reduce non-gains by making the most of every opportunity that may lead to positive outcomes. While L2 learners having the predominant prevention-focused inclination take a "*vigilance*" strategy to decrease losses and increase non-losses by keeping away from choices that may bring about negative consequences. The second problem of intended effort measures is their mostly hypothetical nature and, thereby, possible inapplicability to the current time. While some of the items of this measure referred to the actual motivated behavior (e.g., "I am working hard at learning English," Ryan, 2009), some other items assess time and energy L2 learners expend on language development (e.g., "I would like to spend lots of time studying English," Taguchi et al., 2009), which may not essentially be similar to the language behavior in reality (Sheppar et al., 1988).

These two problems have been partly accounted for the emergence of ought to and ideal L2 self as weak or strong predictors of motivated behavior (respectively) in most studies. Accordingly, in the present study, attempts have been made to avoid the aforementioned problems by using an improved measure of respondents' intended effort without any regulatory focus issues. Moreover, to address such gap in literature in line with Papi and Hiver's (2020) recommendations, the variable of intended effort has been used in the study to explain various motivational patterns in the ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience in both male/female Iranian EFL participants.

Proficiency Levels and Gender as the Moderating Variables

As already stated, several studies have been carried out on the links between varying proficiency and the motivation construct to-date. Gardner (1985) demonstrated that learners having the integrative motivation are in higher proficiency levels comparing to those who have instrumental motivation. Tsuchiya (2006) examined motivational variances between low and high proficient learners. High proficient learners were reported to have external demotivating elements like classes, teachers, negative group attitudes, and obligatory essence of studying English while the low proficient learners were reported to have both internal and external factors like decreased self-confidence. Cho (2013) found that highly proficient learners had high degrees of motivation and less proficient learners were found to be less motivated. She found a positive correlation between the students' varying proficiency and the motivation so as the former predicted the latter.

The impact of gender on learners' motivation has been addressed in different studies as well. Previous studies highlight the great differences between the males/females' motivation. In majority of cases, female outperformed the males as reported by You et al. (2016) among others. Female students focused on interpersonal communication and had higher sense of empathy with others. They tried to imagine themselves in future L2 situations and thus could increase their motivation (Henry & Cliffordson, 2013). Yashima, et al., (2017) found a relatively big difference between men and women's motivation. Furthermore, several studies investigated the role of learners' gender from Dörnyei's (2009) Motivational Self System perspective. The findings on ideal L2 self provided contradictory evidence (Dörnyei, 2009). In the research examining the Japanese learners of English (Ryan, 2009) and Swedish L3 learners of German, French, and Spanish (Henry & Cliffordson, 2013), females were reported to have more vigorous views of themselves as successful learners than their male counterparts. Sylven and Thompson (2015); however, found no evidence of gender differences. They highlighted that language and context were more influential. There have been few studies examining distinctions between the ought-to L2 self and L2LE with respect to gender due to the construct validity and/or the operationalization problem as confirmed by Csizer and Kormos (2009). In this study, the proficiency level of participants as well as the gender were considered as the moderating variables accounting for their L2 motivational ups and downs during a semester of instruction.

Research Questions

As confirmed by Dörnyei et al., (2014), the issue of motivational dynamics needs further development. It is still questioned how motivation shall be treated and analyzed from a dynamic perspective. To address such gap empirically and determine how students' motivation might vary within a four-month-interval, the current research intended to inquire into the motivational fluctuations of Iranian EFL university students- as the main variables of the study- during an academic term with regard to their intended effort, gender, and proficiency levels. Based on Dörnyei's (2005) Motivational Self-System, the current study attempted to address the raised research questions:

RQ1. Is there any variability in participants' motivational construct during a semester of instruction at increasing L2 proficiency in male and female participants?

RQ2. Is there any variability in participants' motivated learning behavior (i.e., intended effort)

during a semester of instruction at increasing L2 proficiency in male and female participants?

RQ3. What is the interrelationship between motivational and behavioral trajectories that emerge out of male and female participants during a semester of instruction at increasing L2 proficiency?

Methodology

Participants

The sample consisted of 590 Iranian university students (251 female and 339 male students) with different majors, who were studying English for specific purpose (ESP) at IAU East Tehran Branch. Their age range was between 18 and 29 years old (their mean age was 23.54 (SD= 2.23)). Students' levels of language proficiency were different and ranged from beginner to upper intermediate as selected by an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) and administered by the researchers in the beginning of the study. Participants filled in the Motivation Factors Questionnaire. All the participants were requested to sign an ethics consent form. Table 1 outlines demographic characteristics of the participants:

Table 1

Demographic background of the participants

No. of Students	590	
Gender	Males (339)	Females (251)
Beginner	70	65
Post Beginner	95	62
Lower intermediate	85	52
Intermediate	50	37
Upper intermediate	39	35
Proficiency Level	Beginner to upper-intermediate	
Native Language	Persian	
Major	ESP (Different Fields of Study)	
University	IAU	
Academic Year	2018-2019	

Instruments

To meet the purposes of the research, the researchers used the following research instrumentations:

Oxford Placement Test (OPT). To determine the students’ levels of language proficiency, an OPT (version 1) was administered in the beginning of the study. This test is often used by researchers as the language proficiency test in which participants' scores are ranked according to the test norms from beginners to upper intermediate levels. The OPT consists of two parts with 60 items in the form of multiple-choice questions and cloze tests. The first part consists of 40 questions measuring learners' grammar knowledge and the second part consists of 20 questions assessing learners' vocabulary knowledge. The allocated time for this test was 60 minutes.

The Motivation Questionnaire. The **Motivational** Factors Questionnaire by Ryan (2009) along with some items of Taguchi, Magid, and Papi’s (2009) questionnaire (see the appendix) were administered to participants, 30 items of questionnaire including items measuring the motivated behavior (i.e., learners’ intended effort) and L2 Motivational Self System (i.e., ought-to L2 self, ideal L2 self, and L2LE), as the focus of the study, were analyzed. Parallel with Piniel and Csizer (2013), the researchers administered one questionnaire gaining advantage from its different parts to collect data on the motivational and behavioral components. A further practical consideration was to derive significant data and the need to administer a comprehensive survey that could "elicit maximum participation" (Ryan, 2009, P. 135). The questionnaire consisted of items in question and statement type measured by six-point Likert scales. The former items ranged from 'not at all' to 'very much', and the latter ranged from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' with 1 showing not at all/strongly disagree and 6 showing very much/strongly agree. The questionnaire went through multiple stages of translation (into Persian), back translation (to English), and piloting. Two EFL experts examined the consistency and accuracy of the translated copies, then it was administered to 55 students who were studying in the same university as the participants and were similar to them. Table 2 represents the main variables of the study, their reliability coefficients, and standard deviations.

Table 2

Cronbach's alpha measures and descriptive for the variables used

Variables	M	SD	α
Ideal L2 self	3.68	1.26	0.93
Ought to L2 Self	3.79	0.79	0.84
L2 Learning Experience	3.78	1.15	0.91
Intended effort	3.25	1.06	0.90

Procedure

The progression of students' motivational changes was estimated during the academic semester with one-month intervals. The students had adequate time to get familiar with instructor's personality and attitudes, classroom atmosphere, etc. during this time span. In fact, the questionnaire was once administered at the outset of the term, once at the end of it and twice with one month interval after the first and before the last administrations. The respondents were asked to answer the items unhurriedly at their convenience. They were also allowed to ask for clarifications when necessary. After this step, the data were entered into SPSS, then average scores were computed and subsequently line graphs and related tables were drawn by to investigate the type and degree of change in participants' motivation and intended effort.

Data Analysis

The use of line graphs and tables enabled the researchers to depict the temporal variation and/or stability of the variables of the study. Learners' gender, proficiency levels, and motivated learning behaviors (i.e., intended effort) were also included in the analyses to systematically investigate their moderating effects on the main variables.

Results

Change and Variability in Participants' L2 Learning Experience (L2LE)

The findings demonstrate a considerable degree of variation in participants' motivation. Figure 1 summarizes the progression of participants' motivation with the subcomponent of L2 learning experience over a term (i.e., four months) with the data collected at one-month intervals. The key patterns observed show a steady decrease from a higher level (in the first month) to a moderately lower level (in the second month) followed by an increase (in the third month) and another decrease at the end of the semester. Such progression remains the same for varying proficiency from beginner to intermediate students. Regarding upper-intermediate students, the trend was different. It showed a steady decrease from a higher level to a moderately lower level followed by a decrease and then another decrease at the end of the term.

The fluctuations of beginner male students' L2 learning experience were more than their female counterparts. However, the post beginner male and female students showed similar variations. As far as lower intermediate and intermediate students were concerned, the female students indicated more variation comparing to that of their male peers. The upper intermediate male and female students' L2 learning experience fluctuations were close to each other. In essence, the progression of intergroup L2LE (i.e., students with different proficiency level) showed more variations comparing to that of intragroup. As displayed in Table 3, intergroup variations for example at the first row were statistically significant (2.36_a, 3.76_b, 4.26_c, 5.17_d, 5.34_d) while most of within group variations were not significant in spite of the meaningful trend and fluctuation observed in the progression. The initial

L2 learning experience of all the students was high in the beginning of the semester and even after the decline, it still increased and then at the end of the semester it decreased again and reached to a lower level. As was illustrated in Table 3, as the level of students' proficiency increased, their L2 learning experience increased as well.

Table 3

Mean score of learners' L2 learning experience (L2LE) based on gender & proficiency levels

			Beginner Mean	Post Beginner Mean	Lower Intermediate Mean	Intermediate Mean	Upper Intermediate Mean
Gender	Female	L2LE 1	2.36_a	3.76_b	4.26_c	5.17_d	5.34_d
		L2LE 2	2.08_a	3.03_b	3.73_c	4.44_d	4.80_d
		L2LE 3	2.20_a	3.23_b	3.84_c	4.61_d	4.71_d
		L2LE 4	2.15_a	3.05_b	3.69_c	4.42_d	4.50_d
	Male	L2LE 1	3.15_a	3.43_a	4.14_b	4.98_c	5.19_c
		L2LE 2	2.24_a	2.75_b	3.82_c	4.58_d	4.75_d
		L2LE 3	2.52_a	2.93_b	3.88_c	4.65_d	4.65_d
		L2LE 4	2.31_a	2.76_b	3.80_c	4.53_d	4.47_d

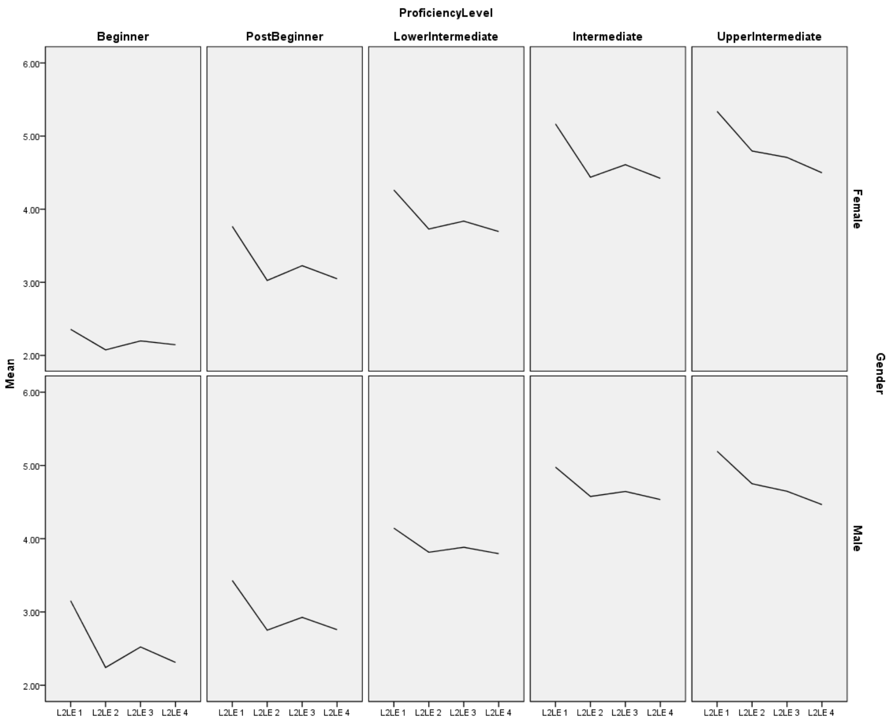
Note1: Values in the same row and subtable not sharing the same subscript are significantly different at p< .05 in the two-sided test of equality for column means. Cells with no subscript are not included in the test. Tests assume equal variances.

Note 2: Tests are adjusted for all pairwise comparisons within a row of each innermost subtable

using the Bonferroni correction.

Figure 1

The progression of participants' L2 learning experience (L2LE) during a semester



Change and Variability in Participants' Ideal L2 self

Figure 2 illustrates variation in students' ideal L2 self during a semester. The key patterns observed indicate a steady decrease from a relatively higher level to a moderately lower level and then a moderate increase and finally a slight decline. However, the beginner female students' trajectory did not follow the general pattern in any case. Despite the minor fluctuations (see Figure 2), the beginner female students showed low degree of ideal L2 self till the end of the semester. However, the line graphs of post beginner and upper intermediate male and female students were quite close to each other and showed the similar trend. The fluctuations in the lower intermediate and intermediate female students' ideal L2 self are slightly more than their male counterparts.

It is noteworthy that intergroup motivation (ideal L2 self) showed more variations comparing to that of intragroup. As illustrated in Table 4, intergroup variations for example at the first row were statistically significant ($1.77_a \rightarrow 3.61_b \rightarrow 4.29_c \rightarrow 5.06_d \rightarrow 5.49_d$) while most of within group variations were not significant in spite of the meaningful trend and fluctuation observed in the progression. As indicated in Table 4, as the level of participants' proficiency increased, their ideal L2 self increased as well.

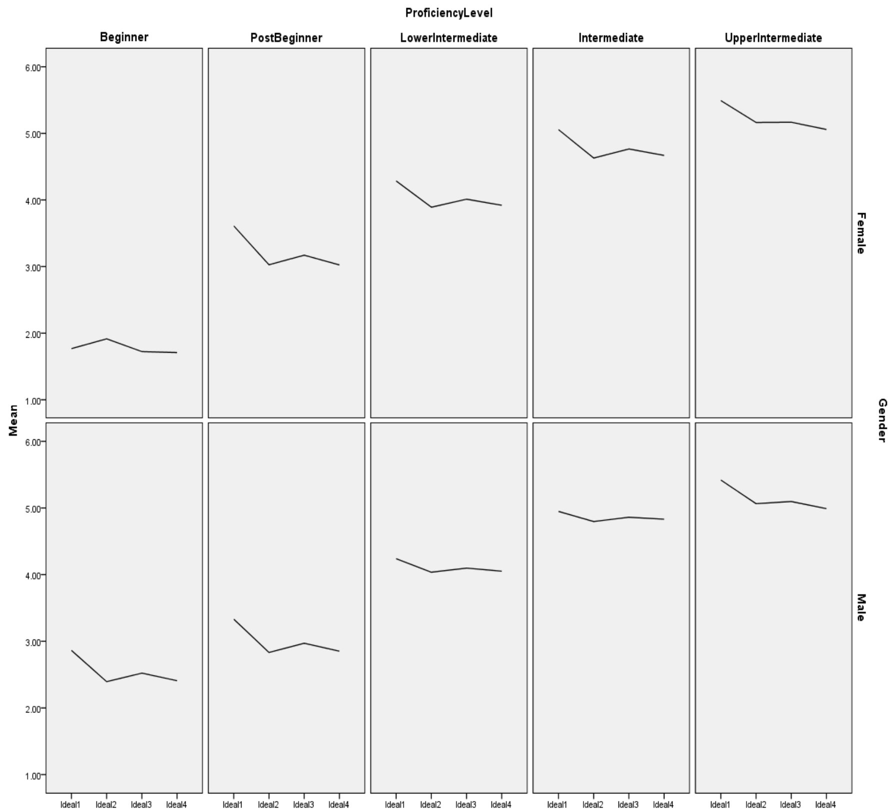
Table 4

Mean score of learners' ideal L2 self based on gender & proficiency levels

			Beginner Mean	Post Beginner Mean	Lower Intermediate Mean	Intermediate Mean	Upper Intermediate Mean
Gender	Female	Ideal1	1.77_a	3.61_b	4.29_c	5.06_d	5.49_d
		Ideal2	1.91_a	3.03_b	3.89_c	4.63_d	5.16_d
		Ideal3	1.72_a	3.17_b	4.01_c	4.77_d	5.17_d
		Ideal4	1.71_a	3.02_b	3.92_c	4.67_d	5.06_d
	Male	Ideal1	2.86_a	3.33_b	4.24_c	4.95_d	5.42_d
		Ideal2	2.39_a	2.83_b	4.04_c	4.80_d	5.06_d
		Ideal3	2.52_a	2.97_b	4.10_c	4.86_d	5.10_d
		Ideal4	2.41_a	2.85_b	4.05_c	4.83_d	4.99_d

Figure 2

The progression of participants' ideal L2 self during a semester



Change and Variability in Participants' Ought-To L2 self

The analyses revealed noticeable degree of variability in students' ought-to L2 self. Figure 3 represents the trajectory of students' ought-to L2 self in comparison with their male/female peers at each proficiency level. The pattern of female beginner students' motivation showed a considerable decrease from a relatively higher level to a moderately lower level and then a modest increase and finally a very small decline at the end of the term. The trajectory of male beginner students decreased in the second month and then increased fairly in the third month and remained unchanged till the end of the term.

The trajectory of post beginner female students displayed that the students' ought-to L2 self decreased in the first month and actually increased in the second month and then there was a negligible decline at the end of the semester. The progression of post beginner male students indicated a slight decrease followed by a gradual increase and another small increase at the end of the semester.

The progression of students' ought-to L2 self in lower intermediate female students showed a small decrease in the first month followed by a moderate increase in the second month and a slight decline at the end of the semester. However, such progression is quite different for low intermediate male students. They were rather motivated in the first month and then there was a modest increase in the second month and another slight increase at the end of the semester.

The trajectory in intermediate female students displayed a decrease from a relatively higher level to a moderately lower level in the first month with an increase in the second month and a small final increase at the end of the semester. The motivational development of intermediate male students remained the same within the first month with a small increase at the second month and a very slight increase at the end of the semester.

The motivational development of the upper intermediate female students displayed a significant decrease from a relatively higher level to a moderately lower level with a small increase followed with a small final decline. The upper intermediate male students showed a small decrease in the first month followed by a small increase in the second month and another modest increase at the end of the semester.

It sounds that intergroup motivation (ought-to L2 self) showed more variations comparing to that of intragroup. As illustrated in Table 5, intergroup variations for example at the first row were statistically significant ($2.53_a \rightarrow 3.54_b \rightarrow 3.88_b \rightarrow 4.47_c \rightarrow 5.11_d$) while most of within group variations were not significant in spite of the meaningful trend and fluctuation observed in the progression. As demonstrated in Table 5, it can be inferred that as the level of students' proficiency increased, their ought-to L2 self increased as well.

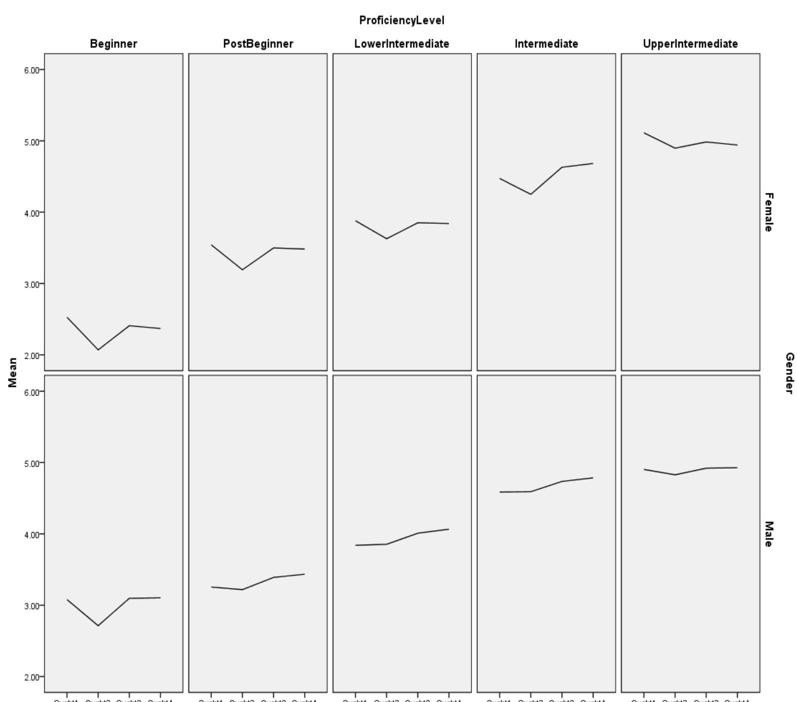
Table 5

Mean score of learners' ought-to L2 self based on gender & proficiency levels

			Beginner	Post Beginner	Lower Intermediate	Intermediate	Upper Intermediate
			Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Gender	Female	Ought1	2.53_a	3.54_b	3.88_b	4.47_c	5.11_d
		Ought2	2.07_a	3.19_b	3.63_c	4.25_d	4.90_e
		Ought3	2.41_a	3.50_b	3.85_c	4.63_d	4.98_d
		Ought4	2.37_a	3.48_b	3.84_c	4.68_d	4.94_d
	Male	Ought1	3.08_a	3.25_a	3.84_b	4.59_c	4.90_c
		Ought2	2.71_a	3.22_b	3.85_c	4.59_d	4.83_d
		Ought3	3.10_a	3.39_a	4.01_b	4.74_c	4.92_c
		Ought4	3.10_a	3.43_a	4.07_b	4.79_c	4.93_c

Figure 3

The progression of participants' ought-to L2 self during a semester



Change and Variability in Participants' Motivated Learning Behavior (Intended Effort)

As figure 4 displayed, the female beginner students' intended effort showed a steady decrease and then a moderate increase and finally a small decrease at the end of the semester. The trajectory of male beginner students showed the similar pattern with more considerable decrease at the first month and a relatively big increase at the second month and finally a negligible decrease at the end of the term.

The female post beginner students' intended effort decreased in the first month considerably and increased in the second month moderately and then increased slightly till the end of the semester. The trajectory was quite the same in post beginner male students till the second month and then remained unchanged till the end of the term.

The progression of students' intended effort in lower intermediate female students showed a large decrease in the first month followed by a moderate increase in the second month and a small increase at the end of the semester. The progression is quite the same for lower intermediate male students.

The trajectory in intermediate female students displayed a large decrease from a relatively higher level to a moderately lower level in the first month with a big increase in the second month and then no change till the end of the semester. The intermediate male students indicated the same pattern till the end of the second month and then followed by a slight decline at the end of the semester. The upper intermediate female students' intended effort displayed a big decrease from a relatively higher level to a lower level with a large increase followed with a negligible decrease at the end of the semester. The progression is the same in upper intermediate male students all over the semester.

It can be assumed that students' intended effort showed more variation between different proficiency groups comparing to that of within group variations. As represented in Table 6, intergroup variations for example at the first row were statistically significant ($1.91_a \rightarrow 3.54_b \rightarrow 3.91_c \rightarrow 4.82_d \rightarrow 5.46_e$) while most of within group variations (excluding upper intermediate male students' variations) were not significant in spite of the meaningful trend and fluctuation observed in the progression. As demonstrated in Table 6, it can be figured out that as the level of students' proficiency increased, their intended efforts increased as well.

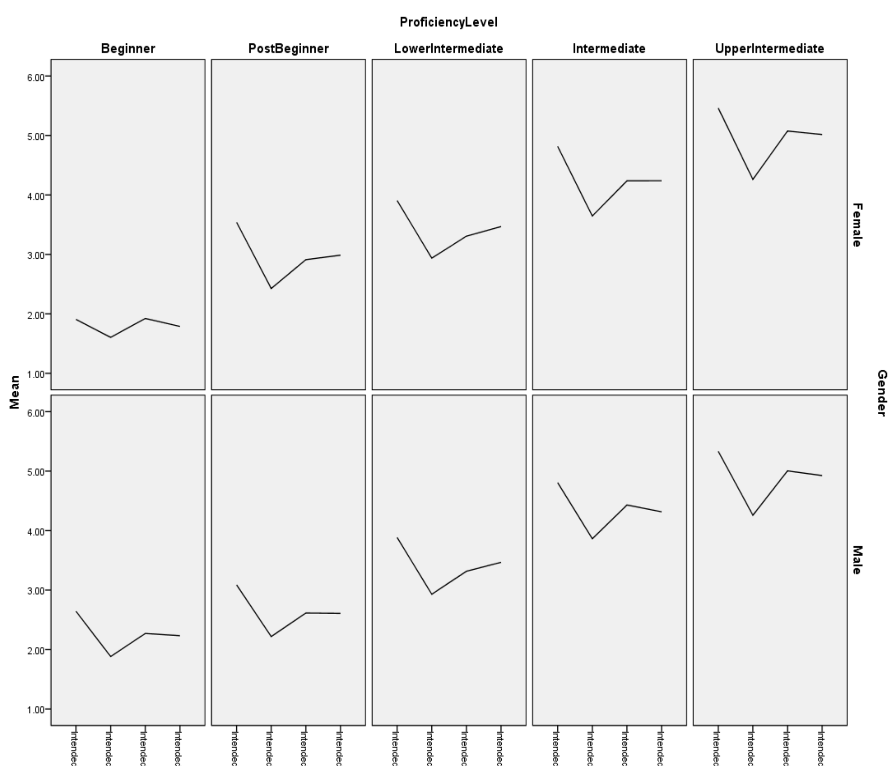
Table 6

Mean score of learners' intended effort based on gender & proficiency levels

			Beginner	Post Beginner	Lower Intermediate	Intermediate	Upper Intermediate
			Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Gender	Female	Intended1	1.91_a	3.54_b	3.91_c	4.82_d	5.46_e
		Intended2	1.60_a	2.43_b	2.94_c	3.65_d	4.26_e
		Intended3	1.92_a	2.91_b	3.31_c	4.24_d	5.07_e
		Intended4	1.79_a	2.99_b	3.47_c	4.24_d	5.01_e
	Male	Intended1	2.64_a	3.09_b	3.89_c	4.81_d	5.34_d
		Intended2	1.88_a	2.22_b	2.93_c	3.86_d	4.26_d
		Intended3	2.27_a	2.61_b	3.32_c	4.43_d	5.00_e
		Intended4	2.23_a	2.61_b	3.47_c	4.32_d	4.93_e

Figure 4

The progression of participants' intended effort during a semester



Interrelationships between Participants' Motivational and Behavioral Trajectories

The research question 3 inquired whether any interrelationships exist between participants' motivational and behavioral trajectories during a semester of instruction at increasing L2 proficiency. The analyses revealed several meaningful interrelationships between measures of L2 motivational constructs and participants' motivated learning behavior. Figures 5 and 6 visually show interrelationships at monthly intervals between L2 motivation and motivated learning behavior. Lines are color–coded to differentiate between the variables of the study. As can be visibly discerned in the diagrams, the following interrelationships emerged; 1) there is a positive relationship between ideal L2 self and motivated learning behavior in almost all proficiency levels. Nevertheless, such relationship is reverse for beginner female students, 2) there is a positive relationship between ought-to L2 self and motivated learning behavior except for intermediate male and upper intermediate students (both male and female). The trajectories of these students' intended effort is somehow considerable, while their ought-to L2 self's progression is quite smooth and remains unchanged till the end of the semester, 3) there is a positive relationship between L2 learning experience and motivated learning behavior at the beginning of the semester. However, such relationship turns negative at the fourth month. The pattern is somehow different for upper intermediate male and female students; there is a positive relationship in the first month, while the relationship turns over from that point. In other words, L2 learning experience possessing a decreasing progression and its trajectories are somehow negligible whereas the ebbs and flows of participants' motivated learning behavior are both different and considerable till the end of the semester.

Regarding the cases when there is a violation in the common emerged trend between students with varying proficiency, it is noteworthy to mention the initial condition is quite influential and contributes to the trajectory of the system. For example, when the trend of ideal L2 self and motivated learning behavior is inverse for the beginner female students, it could be explained by the initial motivational level with which the students entered the classroom. Indeed, the events prior to an instructional semester may have impacted the learners' initial motivation, and therefore the emerged behavior during the semester. Further, the warm up activities introduced by the teacher, specific strategies used to keep students' attention, and the character of the teacher herself all may have been influential for the beginner female students. Regarding the intermediate and upper intermediate students who did not follow the trend, it should be stated that since "the ought-to L2 self is external to the students and deals with duties and obligations imposed by friends, parents, and other authoritative figures, it does not lend itself to the emerged motivational pattern" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 32). It seems the upper level students would care more about their own ideals and aspirations rather than their friends/family's. Lastly, we should keep in mind even in cases where some powerful regulating forces are at play, it might not have a good influence on all the students in a similar way confirming the principle of non-linearity of DST. As Waninge et al., (2014) highlight "the most motivated students may lose their interest after half an hour and therefore would be in need of a motivational boost, while a student who generally seems to be unmotivated can suddenly become engaged in a new task" (p.719). Therefore, different factors may assist shape students' overall L2 motivation during the semester.

Figure 5

The interrelationships between participants' motivational and behavioral trajectories

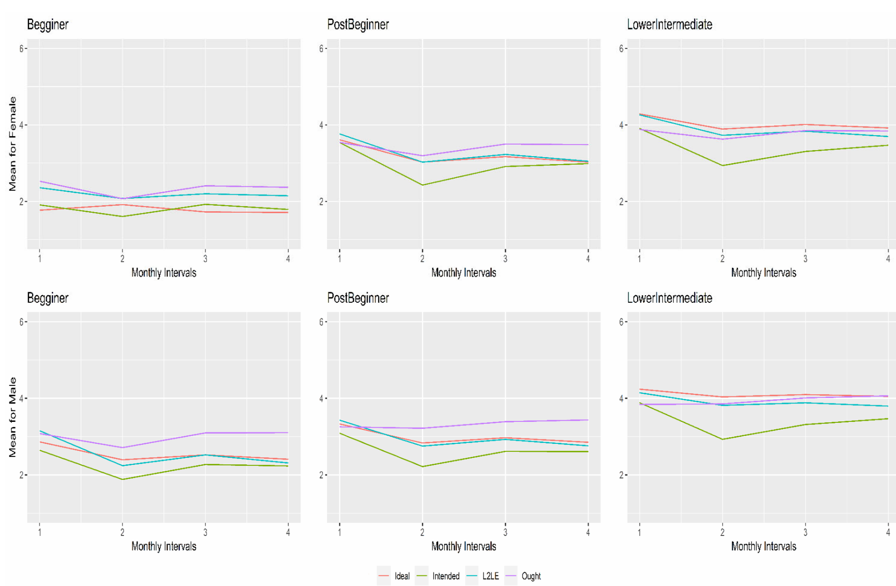
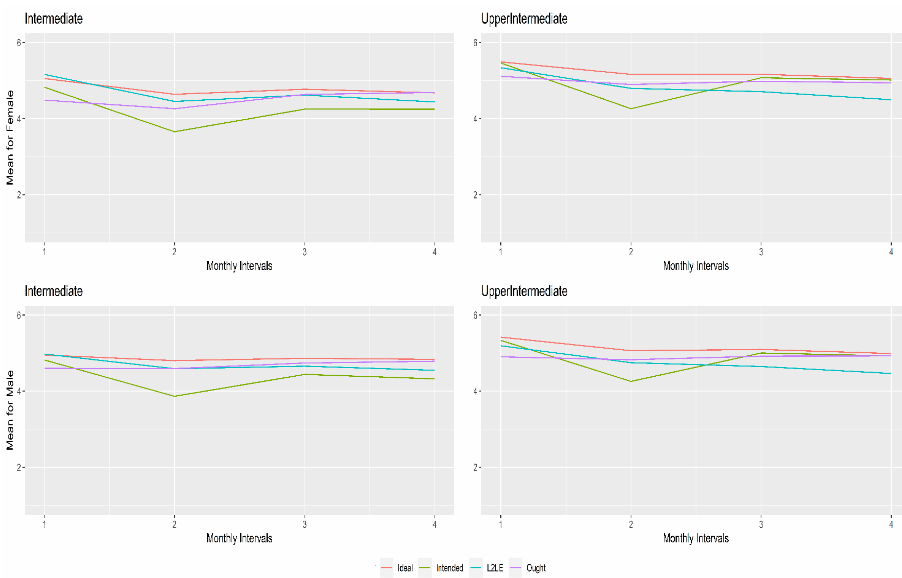


Figure 6

The interrelationships between participants' motivational and behavioral trajectories



Discussion

The present study attempted to explore the dynamic patterns of changes and their outcomes on male and female students' motivation and behavior at different proficiency levels over a semester. In addition to data on L2 Motivational Self-System (i.e., ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2LE toward L2 leaning), students' motivated learning behavior (intended effort) was also obtained from Ryan's (2009) Motivational Factors Questionnaire. These data were analyzed to recognize the students' motivational trajectories as the main point of the research at each proficiency level. As findings revealed, there was a noticeable degree of variability in students' motivation and behavior. As far as the first main variable (i.e., L2 learning experience) is concerned, the results reveal when the level of male and female students' L2LE decreases in most of the levels (three levels out of five) of language proficiency, their intended effort decrease as well in the first month. As the level of students' L2LE increases, their intended effort also increases in the second month. While the level of students' L2LE decreases, their level of intended effort decreases in the third month as well. These findings confirm the fact that there is a direct relationship between male and female students' L2 learning experience and their intended effort. The outcomes that L2 learning experience and intended effort are positively correlated are in conformity with the results of previous studies (e.g., Dörnyei et al., 2006; Lamb, 2012; MacIntyre & Serroul, 2015).

Regarding the second main variable (i.e., ideal L2 self), the data indicate that when the level of male and female students' ideal L2 self decreases in most of the levels (three levels out of five) of language proficiency, intended effort decrease as well in the first month. As the level of students' ideal L2 self increases, their intended effort also goes up in the second month. While the level of students' ideal L2 self descends, their intended effort falls down in the third month as well. These findings show a direct link between male and female students' ideal L2 self and their intended effort. The outcomes that students' ideal L2 self and intended effort are directly related to each other are in line with the results of some previous research (e.g., Dörnyei et al., 2006; Lamb, 2012; MacIntyre & Serroul, 2015). With respect to the third main variable (i.e., ought-to L2 self), the findings showed no significant correlations between this variable and students' intended effort in either way (positive or negative).

The findings indicated that the motivation and behavior subsystems underlying the L2 development function hand in hand forming part of the learner's internal system (van Geert, 1995). Moreover, "fluctuating relationships among subsystems show that the correlation between cause and effect can be negligible at one point in time, or in one particular context, but substantial at others" (Ellis & Larsen–Freeman, 2006, p. 563). The findings are consistent with common belief in L2 motivation research that ideal L2 self is usually treated as the primary source of motivation in learning process (Al– Hoorie, 2018; Hiver & Al–Hoorie, 2019). Nevertheless, the outcomes run counter to the Papi and Teimouri's (2012) findings, who found ought-to L2 self as the robust component accounting for students' behavior.

Further, the analysis of the line graphs along with the tables revealed the fact that variations were not always random or unpredictable. In fact, three main features of dynamic system including change, stability, and context put forward by Waninge et al., (2014) helped demonstrate the position of the system at one-month intervals. In sum, in line with DST perspective, the self can be viewed as a multifaceted concept consisting of cognitive and affective features. Its stability and changeability can be conceptualized by means of dynamic system theory. As findings revealed, the dynamic development concerns the way internal and external attributes interact with each other giving rise to emergent changes.

Conclusions

The goal of the current research was to examine how motivation and motivated learning behavior as the most salient variables of the study might change and interact with respect to moderating role of gender and proficiency level. To the end, the researchers evaluated the motivational and behavioral development of students at one month intervals during an academic semester. The results proved the learners' motivational and behavioral patterns were exposed to fluctuations over the semester of instruction. Moreover, it was found that variation was not uniform throughout the term implying that motivation and behavior changed in different ways. The analyses of line graphs indicated noticeable variations among the motivational components. In essence, where the L2 learning experience and ought-to L2 self were exposed to variations, the ideal L2 self and motivated learning behavior remained stable or showed negligible changes for highly proficient learners (i.e., intermediate and upper intermediate students). It highlights that the advanced learners might possess a strong, internalized view of themselves in the future, however this perception could not totally protect them from external pressures, assumptions and negative outcomes. Furthermore, in many of the proficiency levels studied, the trajectory of students did not match with any of the other students' trends in different proficiency levels. It was best demonstrated by the case that the female beginner students indicated a steady increase in their motivation whereas their male peers experienced a decrease in their motivation. The findings also showed the cases when all the students reacted in a similar manner.

Apart from the contextual factors that influence students' motivational trajectories, there are some other factors that are hard to identify including students' moods in the class, their peace of minds, their general interest to the subject matter, etc. Identifying all those factors can be a useful means for instructors to promote and keep students' motivation all throughout the semester. Teachers are recommended to give enough attention to classroom activities and do their best to draw every student's attention in the beginning of the term before starting to teach the instructional materials. It seems that dynamic system theory provides a helpful tool for inspecting the classroom events thoroughly. It is noteworthy that students' motivational development is not a stable trait: even the students with highest degree of motivation may lose their enthusiasm to the class activities and learning materials by an inappropriate reaction of the teachers for example.

The researchers of the study took one month intervals into account. Shorter time span is suggested for future studies. The scope of the study was limited to the data obtained solely from the motivational questionnaire. Other methods of data collection and/or different types of participants are suggested for future studies to assure the validity of the research. Examining classroom interactions between teacher and learners and/or learners and peers is also recommended as they might influence the students' motivation to some degree.

The findings of the study would make significant contributions to the literature with respect to dynamics of L2 Motivational Self-System. By providing a holistic view of learners' internal factors, this study would enable us to recognize interactive operation of some components that function as integrated part of wholes and can be treated as influential attractors (Dörnyei, 2010). This can help understand novel patterns of emergent language behavior (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). The study makes us recast our appreciation about cause and effect relationships and question our conceptions about the end state. Presumably, the main contribution of the study is that it emphasizes the research without the assumptions of an ultimate and definite answer.

References

Al-Hoorie, A. H. (2018). The L2 motivational self system: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *8*(4), 721-754. https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2018.8.4.2

Cho, Y. G. (2013). L2 Learning Motivation and Its Relationship to Proficiency: A Causal Analysis of University Students' EIL Discourses. *English Teaching, 68*(1), 37-68. https://doi.org/ 10.15858/engtea.68.1.201303.37

Csizér, K. & Kormos, J. (2009). Attitudes, selves and motivated learning behaviour: A comparative analysis of structural models for Hungarian secondary and university learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self.* Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-006

de Bot, K. (2015). Rates of change: Time scales in second language development. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 29–37). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783092574-006

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second Language acquisition*. Lawrence Erlbaum. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410613349

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). Individual differences: Interplay of learner characteristics and learning environment. *Language Learning*, *59*(1), 230–248. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467- 9922.2009.00542.x

Dörnyei, Z. (2010). The relationship between language aptitude and language learning motivation: Individual differences from a Dynamic Systems perspective. In E. Macaro (Ed.), *Continuum companion to second language acquisition* (pp. 247–267). Continuum.

Dörnyei, Z. & Chan, L. (2013). Motivation and vision: An analysis of future L2 self images, sensory styles, and imagery capacity across two target languages. *Language Learning 63*(3), 437–462. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12005

Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K., & Németh, N. (2006). *Motivation, language attitudes and globalisation: A Hungarian perspective.* Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853598876

Dörnyei, Z., MacIntyre, P., & Henry, A. (2014). *Motivational dynamics.* Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783092574

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation.* Edward Arnold. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0083787

Dörnyei, Z., MacIntyre, P. D., & Henry, A. (2015). Introduction: Applying complex dynamic systems principles to empirical research on L2 motivation. In Z. Dörnyei, P.D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 1–10). UK: Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783092574-003

Ellis, N. C., & Larsen–Freeman, D. (2006). Language emergence: Implications for applied linguistics – Introduction to the special issue. *Applied Linguistics*, *27*(4), 558–589. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/aml028

Henry, A., & Cliffordson, C. (2013). Motivation, gender, and possible selves. *Language Learning, 63*(2), 271-295. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12009

Higgins, E.T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review, 94(3),* 319–340. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.94.3.319

Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist, 52*(12), 1280–130. https://doi.org/10.1037//0003-066x.52.12.1280

Higgins, E. T. (2014). *Beyond pleasure and pain: How motivation works*. Oxford University Press. https://global.oup.com/academic/product/beyond-pleasure-and-pain9780199765829?cc=us&lang=en&#

Hiver, P. (2015). Attractor states. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 20–28). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.2501.8722

Hiver, P. & Al-Hoorie, A.H. (2019). *Research methods for complexity theory in applied linguistics*. Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/HIVER5747

Lamb, M. (2012). A self-system perspective on young adolescents' motivation to learn English in urban and rural settings. *Language Learning, 62*(4), 997-1023. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467- 9922.2012.00719.x

Larsen–Freeman, D. (1997). Chaos/complexity science and second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 18*(2), 140–165. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/18.2.141

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Cameron, L. (2008). *Complex systems and applied linguistics*. Oxford University Press. http://elt.oup.com/catalogue/items/global/linguist...

Lee, Y. K., & Ju, U. (2021). Joint trajectories of extrinsic motivation and competence beliefs: A parallel-process growth mixture modeling approach. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 65*(4), 361-476. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2021.101944

MacIntyre, P. D., & Serroul, A. (2015). Motivation on a per-second timescale: Examining approach-avoidance motivation during L2 task performance. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 109-138). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783092574-013

Markus, H. R., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist, 41*(9), 954–969.

https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.41.9.954

Mercer, S. (2011). Language learner self-concept: Complexity, continuity and change. *System, 39*(3), 335–346. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.006

Papi, M. & Hiver, P. (2020). Language learning motivation as a complex dynamic system: A global perspective of truth, control, and value. *The Modern Language Journal, 104*(1), 209-232. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12624

Papi, M. & Teimouri, Y. (2012). Dynamics of selves and motivation: A cross-sectional study in the EFL context of Iran. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 22*(3), 287-309. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2012.00312.x

Peng, H., Jager, S., Thorne, S. L., & Lowie, W. (2020). A holistic person-centred approach to mobile-assisted language learning. In W. Lowie, M. Michel, A. Rousse-Malpat, M. Keijzer, & R. Steinkrauss (Eds.), *Usage-based dynamics in second language development* (pp. 87–106). Multilingual Matters Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2020.1868532

Radford, M. (2008). Prediction, control and the challenge to complexity. *Oxford Review of Education, 34*(5), 505–520. https://doi.org/10.1080/03054980701772636

Rind, D. (1999). Complexity and climate science. *Science, 284*(5411), 105-107. ttps://doi.org/ 10.1126/science.284.5411.105

Roberts, L., & Meyer, A., (2012). Individual differences in second language learning: Introduction. *Language Learning, 62*(S2), 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00703.x

Ryan, S. (2009). Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: The ideal L2 self and Japanese learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identities and the L2 self* (pp. 120– 143). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-007

Sheppard, B. H., Hartwick, J., & Warshaw, P. R. (1988). The theory of reasoned action: A meta-analysis of past research with recommendations for modifications and future research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 15*(3), 325-343. https://doi.org/10.1086/209170

Spoelman, M., & Verspoor, M. (2010). Dynamic patterns in development of accuracy and complexity: A longitudinal case study in the acquisition of Finnish. *Applied Linguistics, 31*(4), 532–553. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amq001

Sylvén, L.K., & Thompson, A.S. (2015). Language learning motivation and CLIL: is there a connection? *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education, 3(1), 28-50.* https://doi.org/10.1075/jicb.3.1.02syl

Taguchi, T., Magid, M., & Papi, M. (2009). The L2 motivational self system amongst

Chinese, Japanese and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), Motivation, language identity and the L2 self (pp. 66-97). Mulitlingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-005

Tsuchiya, M. (2006). Factors in demotivation of lower proficiency English learners at college. *The Kyushu Academy Society of English Language Education (KASELE), 34*(1), 87-96. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.07.036

Ushioda, E. (2009). A person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self and identity. In Z. Dörnyei, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 215– 228). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-012

Ushioda, E. (2015). Context and complex dynamic systems theory. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 47–54). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783092574-008

Van Geert, P. L. C. (1995). Growth dynamics in development. In R. F. Port & T. van Gelder (Eds.), *Mind as motion: Explorations in the dynamics of cognition* (pp. 313–338). Bradford Books/The MIT Press.

Waninge, F., Dörnyei, Z., & De Bot, K. (2014). Motivational dynamics in language learning: change, stability, and context. *The Modern Language Journal, 98*(3), 704-723. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2014.12118.x

Wen, X. (2011). Chinese language learning motivation: A comparative study of heritage and non-heritage learners. *Heritage Language Journal, 8*(3), 41-66. https://doi.org/10.46538/hlj.8.3.3

Yashima, T., Nishida, R., & Mizumoto, A. (2017). Influence of learner beliefs and gender on the motivating power of L2 selves. *Modern Language Journal, 101*(4), 691-711. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12430

You, C. J., Dörnyei, Z., & Csizer, K. (2016). Motivation, vision, and gender: A survey of learners of English in China. *Language Learning, 66*(1), 94-123. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12140

Zheng, Y., Lu, X., & Ren, W. (2020). Tracking the evolution of Chinese learners' multilingual motivation through a longitudinal Q methodology. *Modern Language Journal, 104*(4), 781–803. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12672

APPENDIX
ITEMS AND VARIABLES USED IN THE MFQ

Ideal L2 Self
The things I want to do in the future require me to speak English.
Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself being able to use English.
I often imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.
If my dreams come true, I will use English effectively in the future.
I can imagine speaking English with international friends.
When I think about my future, it is important that I use English.

Ought-to L2 self
I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.
I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.
Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.
My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.
I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.
Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my Peers/teachers/family/boss.
It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.
Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak
English.
Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a
knowledge of English.
If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down.

L2 Learning Experience
Do you like English?
Learning English is really great.

I really enjoy learning English.

I'm always looking forward to my English classes.

I find learning English really interesting.

Learning English is one of the most important aspects in my life.

Motivated Learning Behavior

I am working hard at learning English.

It is extremely important for me to learn English.

If an English course was offered in the future, I would like to take it.

When I hear an English song on the radio, I listen carefully and try to understand all the words.

I can honestly say that I am really doing my best to learn English.

If I could have access to English-speaking TV stations, I would try to watch them often.

I am the kind of person who makes great efforts to learn English.

If English were not taught in school, I would try to go to English classes somewhere else.

Journal of Language Horizons

LGHOR

Scientific Quarterly Journal of Language Horizons, ***Alzahra University***
Volume 7, Issue 4,Winter 2024
Research Article
pp. 149-176

The Effect of Dynamic Assessment Models on L2 Listening and Speaking Anxiety

Abbas Ali Zarei*[1]
Elham Shishegarha[2]

Received:02/01/2023 Accepted:05/03/2023

Abstract
Reducing anxiety in foreign language learning has long been a concern for many teachers. This study focused on exploring the effects of three dynamic assessment models on L2 speaking and listening anxiety. The participants were 120 pre-intermediate Iranian learners of English at a language institute in Qazvin, Iran. The learners were randomly assigned to four groups (three experimental groups and one control group). Before the treatment, the students' homogeneity was checked using Oxford Placement Test (OPT). Then, all the groups were given listening and speaking anxiety questionnaires as pretests. During 10 sessions, the first group received listening and speaking instruction using Buddof's Learning Potential Measurement Approach (LPM); the second group was treated with Guthke's Lerntest Approach; the third group was treated with Testing-the-Limits Approach. Lastly, the control group was taught conventionally in a teacher-fronted way. The same questionnaires were given to the participants in the twelfth session as posttests. Data were analyzed using two one-way analysis of covariance procedures. Significant differences were found among the groups' listening and speaking anxiety mean scores on the posttests after controlling for the initial differences. Those experimental groups that received testing-the-limits and Lerntest approaches had a lower level of listening and speaking anxiety on the posttest. It was

* Corresponding author
[1] Department of English, Imam Khomeini International University, Qazvin, Iran; *a.zarei@hum.ikiu.ac.ir*
[2] Department of English, Imam Khomeini International University, Qazvin, Iran; *elham.shishegar@yahoo.com*

DOI: 10.22051/lghor.2023.42482.1763

concluded that employing dynamic assessment models can decrease speaking and listening anxiety among EFL learners and enhance their productivity. The findings can have important implications for students, teachers and materials designers.
Keywords: anxiety, dynamic assessment, Learning Potential Measurement Approach, Lerntest Approach, Testing-the-Limits Approach

Introduction

Listening and speaking skills are usually neglected in Iranian public education, and teachers mostly spend their time on reading and writing skills. Due to learners' deficiency in listening and speaking skills, they usually feel anxious in classes involving oral activities (Zarei & Rezadoust, 2020). Anxiety is an affective factor that can hinder the learning process and demotivate learners. According to Horwitz (2001), there are three main types of anxiety, including state, trait, and situation-specific anxiety. Anxiety in a foreign language (FLA) is situation-specific anxiety (Aydin, 2008; Bailey et al., 1999). According to Abu-Rabia (2004), anxiety can have negative effects on all the four language skills. Although speaking is seen as the most anxiety-inducing skill, listening can also provoke high levels of anxiety, especially when it is incomprehensible (Young, 1992). Hence, second language teachers have always been seeking a way to help L2 learners deal with their listening and speaking anxiety.

One of the important variables that can potentially affect anxiety is assessment. Generally, classroom assessment can be classified into three categories: formative assessment (assessment for learning), summative assessment (assessment of learning), and self-assessment (assessment as learning) (Earl, 2006). Dynamic assessment (DA) is kind of assessment for learning. According to Hidri (2019), traditional assessments are used to assess the knowledge that a student has already acquired by experience while dynamic assessment determines the students' knowledge while they are being evaluated. Despite the fact that the concept of dynamic assessment has been around for more than 80 years (Poehner, 2008), it has not received much attention (Murphy & Maree, 2009), especially in Iranian language classes (Sanaeifard & Nafarzadeh Nafari, 2018).

There are two broad views regarding DA including interactionist versus interventionist (Lantolf & Poehner, 2011). Since there is a lack of standardization in the interactionist approach and also the fact that it is a time-consuming, human-based assessment (Thouësny, 2010), three types of interventionist models, *Guthke's Lerntest Approach*, *Budoff's Learning Potential Measurement Approach*, and C*arlson and Wiedl's Testing-the-Limits Approach*, along with the conventional type of treatment were used in the present study to see if, and to what extent, they can decrease the level of L2 learners' listening and speaking anxiety. More specifically, this study attempted to address the following two research questions:

1. Do models of dynamic assessment differently affect L2 listening anxiety?
2. Do models of dynamic assessment differently affect L2 speaking anxiety?

Literature Review

Foreign Language Learning Anxiety

Generally, learning a language is regarded as a complex process, and many language learners do not feel comfortable learning or communicating in a foreign language. Many EFL learners report that they are stressed out in the process of learning a foreign language. In a study by Worde (1998), more than one third of language learners believed that they experienced high levels of anxiety.

The main sources of language anxiety, as stated by Horwitz et al. (1986), include concerns over negative evaluation and communication, and the effect of the test. Young (1991) enumerated several sources of anxiety in language learning. He also mentioned that the reasons behind language anxiety include interpersonal and personal anxiety, beliefs in learning a language, beliefs in language teaching, interactions based on instructor and learner relationship, procedures of classes, and target language test. Meanwhile, Chang and Read (2006) pointed out that three factors contribute to foreign language anxiety, including lack of confidence in oral language, prerequisite listening courses, and fear of test difficulty. Regardless of the sources of anxiety, a frequent observation in language classes is that anxiety is more vividly noticed in oral activities that include listening and speaking (Zarei & Rezadoust, 2020).

Listening Anxiety

Given the important role of listening, the issue of listening anxiety has been emphasized in the literature. Young (1992) pointed out that listening can cause great anxiety, especially among EFL learners. Many language learners have difficulties with this skill for different reasons such as invisible word boundaries and reduced forms (Ito, 2008). Besides, some language learners are not able to monitor the speech rate, or have limited processing skill (Buck, 2001). In addition, some EFL learners do not have a wide range of vocabulary, or they lack knowledge of the accent and topics in the target language (Buck, 2001). The effects of listening anxiety on the success of pedagogical activities has always been stressed by language scholars (Kimura, 2017). Some related studies have indicated that listening anxiety among foreign language learners influences their listening performance (Kimura, 2017). Young (1992) noted that when learners have difficulty figuring out the target language, they become anxious, especially when the teacher asks some questions about a listening file.

Furthermore, Vogely (1998) tried to identify the sources of foreign language listening anxiety in L2 pedagogical settings and found that it is related to the nature of input and the strategies and techniques that teachers use for teaching listening. Besides, Kim (2000) noted that the nature of listening input, like pronunciation, intonation, speed, the level of vocabulary, and the length of the text, plays a key role in listening anxiety. In the same vein, when students fail to distinguish the oral form of a sentence part, it has negative effects on their listening. Similarly, Yan (2005) showed that listening anxiety has a negative effect not only on listening comprehension but also on other language skills of students.

Speaking Anxiety

The relevant literature suggests that to many learners, speaking in a foreign language can generate a huge level of anxiety (Phillips, 1992). Ortega (2014) found that foreign language speaking anxiety is manifested in different ways, such as the high temperature of body, blood pressure, and the absence of eye contact. There are some sources of foreign language anxiety consisting of cultural, psychological, and linguistic factors. With respect to the low level of linguistic abilities, Ellis (2015) points out that learners with a lack of linguistic knowledge have indicated a higher level of speaking anxiety.

Young (1992) listed six potential reasons for speaking anxiety including both interpersonal and personal factors like learners' beliefs on the language they intend to learn, the beliefs of teachers on the teaching process, interactions between teacher and learners, the procedures of the class and language tests. However, to date, those identified by Horwitz et al. (1986) have been regarded as the most influential. They listed three reasons for speaking anxiety including fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and communication apprehension.

Although it has been shown that speaking anxiety has a negative effect on L2 learners' performance (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1995), there are only a few studies on how to control and reduce this anxiety (e.g., Safdari & Fathi, 2020). Therefore, there is a need for more investigations. It is important for language teachers to find ways to reduce the anxiety of learners in order to enhance their performance. One potential way is the use of dynamic assessment.

Dynamic Assessment (DA)

Developments in the methods of language teaching have provided parallel expansion in language assessment. Lantolf and Poehner (2011) noted that it is crucial to make a connection between education and assessment, and that these are combined well in a novel assessment approach called dynamic assessment.

Heywood and Lidz (2007) stated that DA mainly looks for distinguishing the unique characteristics of people, their weaknesses as well as their strengths, and their particular learning style to find effective methods for enhancing the effectiveness of learning for each individual. Actually, DA is an expansion-based process that shows the current abilities of learners, assists them to overcome any performance problems, and finds out their potential (Shrestha & Coffin, 2012).

The theory behind DA is the sociocultural theory (SCT). According to Murphy (2008), the founder of DA is Vygotsky, and the theory expands his common concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). According to this theory, learning can be defined as a process that happens in social contexts that are shaped by human intelligence. This process can affect the lives of learners and is focused on social and cultural domains. Since learning happens in a social context and is, therefore, socially mediated, interaction plays a key role in it. Vygotsky highlighted the basic role of interaction in a social context in the cognitive expansion process (Kazemi et al., 2020). Given this theory, teaching is regarded as the process of assisting learners to expand their mental functions as well. Besides, according to this theory, teaching is seen as the process of working collaboratively with learners in such a way to develop their mental functions (Roebuck, 2001). In other words, assistance from more capable partners in interactions enable learners to improve their cognitive abilities and perform mental functions that they would not be able to perform without such assistance.

In DA, assessment and instruction come together and their combination occurs when intervention takes place within the evaluation process; its objective is to find out the abilities of learners and to guide them to higher levels of performance (Tabatabaee, et al., 2018). According to SCT, the fact that individuals respond to mediation that is geared to their ability level indicates that their cognitive functions have not completely expanded and that they need such assistance. Besides, suitable mediation permits individuals to control their performance independently, and this, in turn, leads to further expansion (Poehner, 2007).

The issue of mediation plays a critical role in the ZPD (Lantolf & Becket, 2009). Lantolf and Poehner (2011) pointed out that in DA, a particular type of mediated assistance is presented for learners. Thus, what causes an assessment to become static or dynamic is not the tool; it is whether the assessment of the course includes mediation or not (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005).

Generally, Lantolf and Poehner (2011) suggested two schools of thought concerning DA, referred to as interventionist and interactionist; both of them are regarded as a type of mediation. In interactionist DA, assistance will improve learning when the mediator and the learner are interacting and, thus, it is highly influenced by the learner's ZPD. However, interventionist DA is standardized and regarded as assistance according to the needs of learners to lead them to a pre-determined point quickly and effectively.

Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) introduced two popular approaches of 'cake' and 'sandwich' for interventionist DA. The sandwich format mostly employs pretest, mediation, and posttest design to signify the improvement of learners and compare the pre and post-test. In the cake format, when learners fail to reply, the teacher intervenes throughout the test and employs preselected clues or prompts.

Thus, the learner is assessed during the process of intervention (Ahmadi Safa & Beheshti, 2018).

Furthermore, Poehner (2008) identifies interventionist models of DA as Lerntest Approach (Guthke's model), Learning Potential Measurement Approach (Budoff's model), Graduated Prompt Approach of Brown, and Testing-the-Limits Approach of Carlson and Wiedl. Because the interventionist and interactionist models of DA have already been compared in the literature in terms of their effectiveness on listening (Ahmadi Safa, & Beheshti, 2018) and speaking anxiety (Zarei & Rahmaty, 2021) and even other areas such as writing (Thouësny, 2010) and reading (Naeini, 2015), this study did not aim to compare the two general models. Instead, it focused on the different interventionist models, which are claimed to be standardized and lead learners to pre-specified objectives more effectively. For practicality reasons, from among the different interventionist models, the Learning Potential Measurement, the Lerntest, and the Testing-the-Limits models were employed.

Learning Potential Measurement. According to Poehner (2008), Budoff (1987) claimed that the possible effects of learners' background on their performance in tests can be stronger if learners are made familiar with the provided test and the strategies they need for problem solving in this process. In this respect, Budoff employed the sandwich format, a type of DA that borrowed most of its features from the classical 'pretest, treatment, post-test' research design. Such an approach made a crucial contribution to the claim of DA that cognitive abilities are dynamic since participants in Budoff's work reacted differently to mediation. Budoff classified learners based on their scores on the pretest and the posttest and showed that learners respond differently to instruction (Poehner, 2008).

Lerntest. Guthke and his associates extended the work of Budoff and designed a DA model referred to as the Lerntest (Poehner, 2008). Guthke (1982) stated that there is not one ZPD that is for general intelligence, but several ZPDs in different domains. His model moved the procedures of DA beyond the intelligence domain testing to consist of content areas like language. Guthke incorporated mediation into the test itself, which is in contrast to the work of Budoff. In the earlier forms of the model, learners were given only one kind of assistance when they gave a wrong answer; they were encouraged to try again. If learners still could not give the right answer, the teacher provided it, so they moved on.

Later, Guthke developed five standardized hints. Pohner (2008) gives an example to show how LLT is conducted. According to Poehner, if a learner's initial response is not correct, the examiner provides some vague hints like "it's not correct, do you want to try it one more time". If s/he fails again, the examiner suggests a somewhat more explicit clue. And if the learner's attempt is still unsuccessful, the examiner presents a still more explicit clue. If it fails again, a rather explicit clue is offered. In the end, if this attempt also fails, the examiner presents the right pattern and elaborates why it is right. Then, the learner moves on to the next item of the text.

According to Guthke (1982), the list of standard points can be employed throughout different tests to run dynamic assessment. Such approaches employ tests in which dynamic assessment is the main focus; therefore, mediation between students and teachers is generally essential in such activities.

Testing-the-Limits. This approach is regarded as an alternative approach to the Lerntest; it was developed by Carlos and Wiedl (1978). These researchers also used standardized prompts and requested that learners explain how they came to their response. However, this approach is an extension of LLT. Carlson and Wiedl (1978) asked learners to elaborate on their reasoning regardless of whether or not their responses were correct so that they could find out the thought processes of learners completely. They believed that it is critical first to know how learners come to the answer and then decide if their answer is right (Zarei & Khojasteh, 2020).

Generally, testing-the-limits approach is mainly based on the belief that intra-individual differences in information processing result from personality and intellectual factors. This approach is mainly different from dynamic assessment approaches because particular mediations are combined within the process of testing (Safdari & Fathi, 2020). Measures of testing-the-limits approach seem to be restricted to general measures of the cognitive-based ability. This DA approach does not need modifications in the general structures or content of traditional tests. Instead, changes are at the heart of the testing process.

Related Studies

Several studies have been carried out on various aspects of the variables of this study. Alemi (2015) studied the effect of DA on L2 writing self-assessment and self-accuracy. She asked learners to write on seven topics. Data were collected through a pretest phase of DA when the students wrote a paragraph and evaluated their composition and filled out a questionnaire. In the final session, they wrote a paragraph again as the posttest and scored them according to the feedback they received. It was discovered that using DA led learners to a more accurate self-assessment. Moreover, engaging learners in assessment enhanced their autonomy.

In another study, Naeini (2015) compared the possible effects of Mediated Learning Experience and Graduated Prompt on L2 reading comprehension. The findings suggested that learners progressed gradually throughout the sessions of assessment, and DA assisted them to improve their reading comprehension.

Moreover, Abdolrezapour and Ghanbari (2021) examined the effect of employing self-regulated DA on enhancing self-regulation as well as listening comprehension. The members of the experimental group showed better scores in listening comprehension; their self-regulation also improved. In a similar study, Tabatabaee, et al. (2018) found that cumulative dynamic assessment had a significant effect on EFL learners' writing accuracy.

Ahmadi Safa and Beheshti (2018) investigated the effects of interventionist and interactionist DA on L2 listening comprehension. They found that interactionist dynamic assessment was more effective on developing listening comprehension. In the same vein, Safdari and Fathi (2020) examined the effect of DA on EFL learners' speaking fluency and accuracy. They concluded that DA had a significant positive effect on speaking accuracy, but it did not influence speaking fluency.

In their study, Kazemi and Tavassoli (2020) compared the effect of DA versus diagnostic testing on L2 speaking ability. They concluded that both dynamic and diagnostic assessments had a significant effect on EFL learners' speaking ability. Similar results were reported by Ahmadpour and Asadollahfam (2018). In addition, Wang (2015) reported the effectiveness of DA on listening skills.

Estaji (2019) investigated the short and long-term effect of DA approaches on the anxiety and oral performance of EFL learners. The findings suggested that both groups made progress in their speaking; they had better scores and lower anxiety. Similarly, Zarei and Rezadoust (2020) investigated the effects of scaffolded and unscaffoled feedback on EFL learners' speaking self-efficacy and anxiety. They concluded that using both feedback types could decrease speaking anxiety and improve speaking self-efficacy in a foreign language. Meanwhile, Sohrabi and Ahmadi Safa (2020) reported that group dynamic assessment had a positive effect on learners' oral skill, and it reduced their anxiety.

Köroğlu (2019) examined the role of interventionist DA in speaking skills with a focus on ELT teachers. The findings showed that employing interventionist dynamic assessment positively influenced the participants speaking ability. In another study, Zarei and Khojaste (2020) compared the effect of three DA approaches including Group Dynamic Assessment, Intensive Mediated Learning Experience (MLE) and Learning Potential measurement on learning the lexical collocations of English. The findings indicated that MLE was more effective than both of the other models on the comprehension and production of lexical collocations.

Furthermore, Zarei and Rahmaty (2021) investigated the effects of interactionist versus interventionist DA models on L2 learners' willingness to communicate (WTC), foreign language anxiety (FLA) and perfectionism. They concluded that dynamic assessment reduces learners' FLA and reduces WTC and perfectionism. Besides, Woodrow (2006) found a negative relationship between L2 learners' speaking anxiety and speaking skill. The learners reported that interacting with native speakers was their main source of anxiety.

In their study, Capan and Karaca (2013) examined the relationship between education level, gender, and reading and listening anxiety. They concluded that the reason for these two skills (listening and reading) lies in the ambiguity in classroom objectives and that this ambiguity should be avoided in activities so that learners understand what they are supposed to do and for what reason.

Although there is no shortage of evidence on the effectiveness of DA models on improving language skills, few studies have checked their role in reducing anxiety. Even less research has been carried out on the comparativeness of effects of DA models on EFL learners' listening and speaking anxiety. Therefore, the goal of this study is to examine the effects of three kinds of DA on learners' L2 speaking and listening anxiety.

Method

Participants

The participants were 120 pre-intermediate Iranian English language learners (including members of both genders) with the age range of 18 to 35 selected through convenience sampling based on availability. They were in intact classes; therefore, Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was used ensure the homogeneity of the participants. They were all Persian speakers who had never lived or stayed longer than a 2-week period in any foreign country. They had the experience of studying English for almost six years.

Instrumentation

To accomplish the purpose of this study, the following instruments were used:

Oxford Placement Test (OPT). The OPT includes 60 items in a multiple-choice format. According to the scoring method and the criteria based on which to determine the level of proficiency of test takers, the students of this study were at pre-intermediate level, whose OPT score ranged between 30 and 39. The test has already been used extensively as a reliable instrument. Nevertheless, its reliability was re-estimated in the context of this study, and the index of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) turned out to be .90.

Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS*).* This instrument, which was designed by Kim (2000), includes 33 items; each item is on a five-point Likert type scale that ranges from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). The possible range of scores is from 33 to 165. High scores on this questionnaire indicate high levels of listening anxiety. Cronbach's alpha was used to estimate the internal consistency reliability index of this questionnaire in the new context of the present study, and it turned out to be .88.

Foreign Language Classroom Speaking Scale (FLCSS*).* Horwitz et al's., (1986) (FLCSS) consists of 12 items on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). The scores could possibly range from 12 to 60. The higher the score, the higher the level of speaking anxiety. The internal consistency of this scale in the context of this study was assessed to be .85.

Procedure

The participants were selected from among the pre-intermediate students of Kish-e-mehr language institute in Qazvin. They selection was done through convenience sampling that was largely on the basis of availability. Four intact classes of learners were selected, each with 30 students.

Both questionnaires were administered to the learners in the first session. Then, treatment was given for ten sessions. Three groups were treated by three models of dynamic assessment as experimental groups. The first group was randomly selected to be treated with Budoff's LPM Approach which included pretest, treatment, and posttest. Learners were taught strategies of problem-solving through a standardized procedure. In fact, learners were grouped on the basis of the differences that they showed in their scores on the pretest and posttest. There were three categories: 'high scorers', who performed well on the pretest; 'gainers', who performed well after receiving the treatment; and 'nongainers', who did not perform well on the either the pretest or the posttest. The second group was treated with Guthke's Lerntest Approach. In applying this approach, there were five standardized hints. When a leaner's initial attempt was not successful, s/he was given a vague clue. When the second attempt was also unsuccessful, s/he was provided with a more explicit hint. When the response was still incorrect, the examiner offered a still more explicit clue. When s/he still failed, a very explicit hint was offered, and finally, when the last attempt failed again, the tester provided the correct answer and explained the reason for the answer. The third group was treated with Testing-the-Limits Approach. Based on the principles of this approach, the examiner employed standardized hints (like in the previous treatment group) again and also asked the learners to explain the reason for their responses. The fourth group acted as the control group. In this group, the participants were not treated with any dynamic assessment model; instead, they were taught conventionally. Like the other three treatment groups, this process continued for ten sessions.

In the last session of the treatment period, in the twelfth session, the same listening and speaking anxiety questionnaires were administered again to all the learners in the four groups. Lastly, the scores of all the four groups on both the pre- and the post-test of listening and speaking anxiety were compared and analyzed to address the two research questions of the study.

Data Analysis

To answer the first research question probing the comparative effects of three models of dynamic assessment on L2 listening anxiety, one-way analysis of covariance (one-way ANCOVA) was used. The scores of the students on the pre-test were taken as the covariate in order to 'control' for the already existing differences among the groups. Another one-way ANCOVA was used to address the second question exploring the effect of different models of dynamic assessment on L2 speaking anxiety.

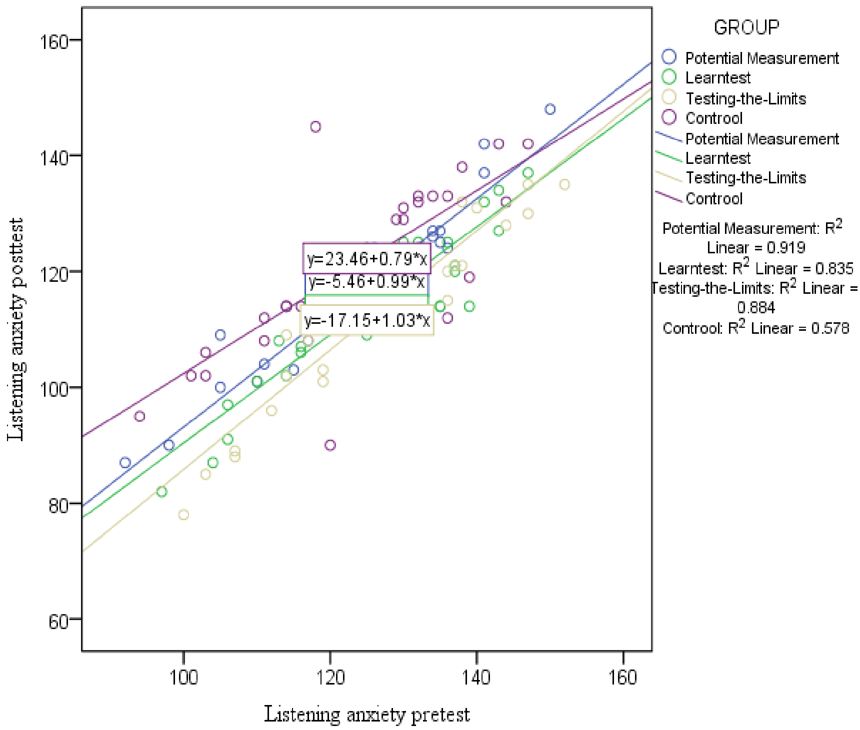
Results and Discussion

Research Question 1

The purpose of the first research question was to find out whether or not there were any meaningful differences among the models of dynamic assessment with regard to their effectiveness on listening anxiety after controlling for the initial differences. An ANCOVA was used to address this question. Before so doing, its assumptions were checked. The results of checking the assumption of the linearity of the relationship between the posttest of listening anxiety (the dependent variable) and the pretest of listening anxiety (the covariate) are displayed in Figure 1. As shown in the scatter plot, there are four straight lines in the scatterplot of the dependent variable as well as the covaiate scores of the four groups of the study. These straight lines indicate that the linearity assumption was not violated.

Figure 1

Scatter plot for listening anxiety scores



As it is evident from Table1, the significance level of the Levene's test (.19) was greater than (.05). This means that we can safely assume that the variances of scores in the listening anxiety questionnaire across the groups enjoys homogeneity.

Table 1

Levene's test of equality of error variances for listening anxiety

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.596	3	116	.194

Table 2 indicates that the interaction between the pretest of listening anxiety and the treatment ($F_{(3,\ 112)}$ = 1.46, p = .23) did not reach statistically significance level. This shows that the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was also met.

Table 2

Homogeneity test of regression slopes for listening anxiety

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	19481.19	7	2783.02	69.81	.00	.81
Intercept	.36	1	.36	.009	.92	.00
Group * Pretest	174.99	3	58.33	1.46	.22	.03
Error	4464.77	112	39.86			
Total	1643774.00	120				
Corrected Total	23945.96	119				

Table 3 summarizes the descriptive statistics for the listening anxiety scores. The mean score of listening anxiety in the potential measurement group (*M* = 123.77, *SD* = 13.23), Lerntest group (*M* = 125.40, *SD* = 12.91), testing-the-limits (*M* = 126.33, *SD* = 13.64), and control group (*M* = 123.70, *SD* = 13.56) are not far from one another on the pretest; however, when the posttest results are compared, the average of the testing-the-limits group (*M* = 112.97, *SD* = 14.94) is the lowest of all, followed by the Lerntest group (*M* = 114.10, *SD* = 13.37), the potential measurement group (*M* = 116.57, *SD* = 13.61), and the control group (*M* = 121.10, *SD* = 14.08).

Table 3

Descriptive statistics of listening anxiety scores

Group	N	Pre-test Mean	Post-test Mean
Potential measurement	30	123.77	116.57
Lerntest	30	125.40	114.10
Testing-the-limits	30	126.33	112.97
Control	30	123.70	121.10

Table 4 contains the result of ANCOVA. After considering the scores of the participants on the pretest of listening anxiety, the differences among the study groups were significant with respect to their scores on the listening anxiety posttest,

($F_{(3,\ 115)}$ = 16.20, p = .000, partial eta squared = .28). Besides, a strong relationship ($F_{(1,\ 115)}$ = 449.51, p < .005) was detected between the pre- and posttest scores of listening anxiety. This shows that the scores on listening anxiety on the pretest influenced the listening anxiety scores obtained on the posttest, with an effect size of .79.

Table 4

ANCOVA results for listening anxiety

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected Model	19306.200a	4	4826.550	119.630	.000	.806
Intercept	.238	1	.238	.006	.939	.000
Pretest	18135.966	1	18135.966	449.513	.000	.795
Group	1960.968	3	653.656	16.201	.000	.285
Error	4639.767	115	40.346			
Total	1643774.000	120				
Corrected Total	23945.967	119				

To further explore the possible differences among the average scores of the four groups on listening anxiety, pairwise comparisons were made (Table 5). Pairwise comparisons revealed a statistically meaningful difference in the listening anxiety mean scores between the control group and the three experimental groups. Moreover, a statistical difference was observed between the Lerntest and potential measurement groups, with the mean difference of 3.99 in favor of the potential measurement group. Likewise, pairwise comparisons yielded a significant difference with regard to the listening anxiety between the testing-the-limits and potential measurement groups, with the mean difference of almost 6.00 in favor of the potential measurement group. However, the difference between the testing-the-limits and the Lerntest groups was statistically insignificant.

Table 5

Pairwise comparisons for listening anxiety

(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Lerntest	Potential measurement	-3.993*	.015
Testing-the-limits	Potential measurement	-5.998*	.000
Testing-the-limits	Lerntest	-2.005	.224
Control	Potential measurement	4.596*	.006
Control	Lerntest	8.588*	.000
Control	Testing-the-limits	10.594*	.000

Research Question 2

The second question of this study was intended to find out whether or not there were any meaningful differences among the three models of DA with respect to their effectiveness on speaking anxiety. Another ANCOVA was utilized to answer this research question. To check whether or not there was a linear relationship between the speaking anxiety pretest and posttest, a scatter plot was drawn, which showed that the linearity assumption was met. The probability level of the Levene's test (Table 6) confirmed that the speaking anxiety scores enjoyed homogeneity in their variance.

Table 6

Levene's test results for speaking anxiety

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.115	3	116	.874

According to Table 7, the interaction between the grouping variable and the pretest of speaking anxiety (Group * Pretest) did not turn out to be statistically significant ($F_{(3, 112)} = 2.10$, $p > .05$) showing that there was no serious threat to the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes.

Table 7

Homogeneity test of regression slopes for speaking anxiety

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected Model	11030.476	7	1575.782	550.637	.000	.972
Intercept	1.675	1	1.675	.585	.446	.005
Group * Pretest	18.015	3	6.005	2.098	.104	.053
Error	320.516	112	2.862			
Total	205839.000	120				
Corrected Total	11350.992	119				

Having made sure that every assumption was met, the researchers went on to use the one-way ANCOVA. The speaking anxiety scores of the four groups are summarized in Table 8. It shows that the pretest average scores of speaking anxiety in the potential measurement group (M = 43.17, SD = 11.39), Lerntest group (M = 43.93, SD = 9.94), testing-the-limits (M = 44.03, SD = 9.28), and control group (M = 42.43, SD = 10.95) are rather close to one another; however, when it comes to the posttest, the average of the testing-the-limits group (M = 39.73, SD = 9.33) is the lowest of all, followed by the Lerntest group (M = 39.87, SD = 9.67), the potential measurement group (M = 40.40, SD = 10.44), with the control group coming last (M = 41.03, SD = 10.03).

Table 8

Descriptive statistics of speaking anxiety scores

Group	N	Pre-test Mean	Post-test Mean
Potential measurement	30	43.17	40.40
Lerntest	30	43.93	39.87
Testing-the-limits	30	44.03	39.73
Control	30	42.43	41.03

Table 9 summarizes the main ANCOVA results. It shows that, after controlling for the initial differences in speaking anxiety scores, there was still a meaningful difference among the four groups' speaking anxiety mean scores on their posttest, ($F_{(3, 115)}$ = 16.84, p < .005, partial eta squared = .30). In addition, the pre-intervention scores were a significant covariate of speaking anxiety scores on the posttest ($F_{(1, 115)}$ = 3730.27, p < .005) .

Table 9

ANCOVA results for speaking anxiety

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected Model	11012.461	4	2753.115	935.243	.000	.930
Intercept	.354	1	.354	.120	.729	.001
Pretest	10980.970	1	10980.970	3730.275	.000	.930
Group	148.756	3	49.585	16.844	.000	.305
Error	338.530	115	2.944			
Total	205839.000	120				
Corrected Total	11350.992	119				

Pairwise comparisons (Table 10) yielded a meaningful differences in the speaking anxiety meanscores between the control group and the three treatment groups. Furthermore, a significant difference could be seen between the Lerntest and potential measurement groups, in favor of the potential measurement group. Moreover, pairwise comparisons revealed a difference that reached statistical significance between the testing-the-limits and potential measurement groups in favor of the potential measurement group. However, there was only a negligible and statistically insignificant difference between the testing-the-limits and Lerntest groups.

Table 10

Pairwise comparisons for speaking anxiety

(I) GROUP	(J) GROUP	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Lerntest	Potential measurement	-1.255*	.437	.005
Testing-the-limits	Potential measurement	-1.505*	.437	.001
Testing-the-limits	Lerntest	-.251	.438	.568
Control	Potential measurement	1.298*	.438	.004
Control	Lerntest	2.554*	.438	.000
Control	Testing-the-limits	2.805*	.438	.000

Discussion

This study showed that the selected models of DA were differentially effective on L2 speaking anxiety. In fact, it was observed that the testing-the-limits model was the most effective model of all. These findings support those of Sohrabi and Ahmadi Safa (2020) in which they concluded that employing group dynamic assessment can enhance the oral productivity of EFL learners as well as reducing their speaking anxiety.

Also, the findings are compatible with those of Ahmadpour and Asadollahfam (2018) who found the effectiveness of DA on the oral performance of EFL learners. It can be argued that better oral performance may result in a lower level of speaking anxiety. Furthermore, this finding of the study confirm that of Estaji (2019) and Kazemi and Tavassoli (2020) who found that employing both immediate and delayed dynamic assessment approaches can reduce the speaking anxiety of EFL learners and improve their oral performance.

This study also found meaningful differences among the selected models of DA with regard to their effect on L2 listening anxiety. Such a finding is congruent with that of Abdolrezapour and Ghanbari (2021), Ahmadi Safa and Beheshti (2018), and Wang (2015) who concluded that employing self-regulated dynamic assessment can reinforce EFL learners' listening comprehension. Since better performance in one skill is normally associated with a lower level of anxiety in that skill (Sohrabi & Ahmadi Safa, 2020), it can be said that the results of their study were compatible with the findings of the current study. Besides, these findings correlate with those of

Zarei and Rahmaty (2021), who showed that both interactionist and interventionist dynamic assessment reduced foreign language anxiety of EFL learners.

Meanwhile, the finding that both the Lerntest and the Testing-the-limits models were more effective than the potential measurement model on reducing both speaking and listening anxiety may be accounted for by the fact that in the potential measurement model, which follows the sandwich format, there is only one stage of feedback, whereas in both of the former models, there are a series of staged feedback; specifically five stages of feedback in more recent versions of the models.

Another reason that could potentially explain the superiority of the Lerntest and the Testing-the-limits models over the potential measurement model in reducing speaking and listening anxiety is that in the potential measurement model of DA, mediation is almost completely focused on the learners' cognitive characteristics, assuming that learners with different cognitive characteristics respond differently to mediation. However, in the Lerntest model, and the Testing-the-limits model which is an extension of the Lerntest, the assumption is that learners do not have just a single cognitive ZPD; rather, they have a number of domain-specific ZPDs that need to be considered when giving mediation. In other words, in these models, learners are expected to be involved in learning in multidimensional ways. This means that in addition to the cognitive characteristics of learners, their emotional and social characteristics are also considered in the mediation phase. Since both listening and speaking anxiety are affective variables, it seems that theoretically the results of this study make sense.

One final reason accounting for the effectiveness of the Lerntest and the Testing-the-limits models in comparison to the potential measurement model in reducing speaking and listening anxiety may be that both of the mentioned models are more sensitive to individual differences among learners in responding to mediation. In other words, they offer more individualized and personalized mediation to learners. As a result, learners can benefit from the mediation more.

Conclusion

From the results of the present study, it is concluded that although all the three models of dynamic assessment can have more positive effect than conventional testing and instruction on reducing speaking and listening anxiety, each of these models appears to be more useful for specific purposes. Generally, employing such models in EFL pedagogical settings can reduce speaking and listening anxiety among EFL learners and enhance their productivity.

The potential measurement model focuses on the cognitive abilities of learners and makes a critical contribution to the claim of DA that cognitive abilities are dynamic. Lerntest assumes that each person can have multiple ZPDs in different domains, not just one ZPD for general intelligence. In Testing-the-limits, the teacher asks learners to explain how they got to their answer irrespective of whether their responses are correct or incorrect so that they can find out the thought processes of learners thoroughly. This model can present more information given leaners' abilities. It is employed to evaluate the limits of learners' abilities by integrating different procedures that causes higher levels of performance.

In sum, the focus of dynamic assessment is on the process of learning not its final product. That is why employing this assessment was successful in reducing the anxiety of students. According to the sociocultural theory, human learning can be seen as a type of mediated learning. It means that employing mediation assists the cognitive development of humans independent from other regulations. In other processes of regulation, there is no graduated prompt to move learners toward effective processing. Besides, in models and approaches in which teachers emphasize the final outcome of learners, students have high levels of stress and anxiety since they try to do their best to score well. The use of relevant DA models can be both effective in preventing the occurrence of such anxiety and helpful in reducing it when anxiety has already been generated.

Therefore, the results of this study can extend the literature on the effectiveness of DA models in reducing listening and speaking anxiety of EFL learners. The effectiveness of DA models can be explained with the assumption that while students at varying levels of language proficiency complete the same set of activities, each learner actually needs particular, and somehow individualized, feedback adjusted to their personal needs. As a result, it can be deduced that this feature of DA models stresses learners' needs. Thus, employing DA can be seen as a more ethical and equitable way of assessing learners (Shabani, 2018).

The findings of this study can also inform language teachers about how to treat learners to provide the best learning conditions by bringing the level of listening and speaking anxiety to a minimum. It is undeniable that oral activities in foreign language learning classes are anxiety-inducing. The knowledge of which model of DA can reduce listening and speaking anxiety can hugely facilitate teachers' job in listening and speaking classes. Moreover, materials developers can include materials in course books that encourage and guide both teachers and learners to engage in the right kind of activities, thus reducing the anxiety of the learners. Nevertheless, the limitations of this study including the number of participants and the duration of treatments, call for more studies in this area and a greater level of care to be exercised in generalizing these findings.

References

Abdolrezapour, P. & Ghanbari, S. (2021). Enhancing learning potential score in EFL listening comprehension and self-regulation through self-regulated dynamic assessment procedures. *Language Testing in Asia, 2*(10), 22-34. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-021-00126-5

Abu-Rabia, S. (2004). Teachers' role, learners' gender differences, and FL anxiety among seventh-grade students studying English as a FL, *Educational Psychology, 24*(5), 711-720. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1080/0144341042000263006

Ahmadi Safa, M. & Beheshti, S. (2018). Interactionist and interventionist group dynamic assessment (GDA) and EFL learners' listening comprehension development. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research, 6*(3), 37-56. https://doi.org/10.30466/ijltr.2018.120600

Ahmadpour, L. & Asadollahfam, H. (2018). The effects of dynamic assessment and gender on EFL learners' oral narrative task performance. *International Journal of Language Testing and Assessment, 1*(1), 12-24. https://doi.org/10.24815/ijolta.v1i1.9773

Alemi, M. (2015). The Impact of dynamic assessment on Iranian EFL students' writing self-assessment. *TELL, 9*(1), 145-169. https://doi.org/10.22132/tel.2015.53735

Aydin, S. (2008). An investigation on the language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation among Turkish EFL learners, *Asian EFL Journal*, *30*(1), 421-444.

Bailey, P., & Daley, C. E. (1999). Foreign language anxiety and learning style. *Foreign Language Annals*, *32*(1), 63-76.

Bailey, P., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Daley, C. E. (1999). Anxiety about foreign language students in French, Spanish, and German classes. *Psychological Reports*, *8*(2), 1007-1010.

Bekka, K.G. (2010). Dynamic assessment for learning potential: A shift in the focus and practice of evaluating Japanese oral proficiency. *Japanese Journal of Education, 2(1)*, 53-66.

Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge University Press.

Budoff, M. (1987). Learning potential as a supplementary testing procedure. In J. Hellmuth (ed.) *Learning disorders,* (Vol. 3). Special Child.

Capan, S. A., & Karaca, M. (2013). A comparative study of listening anxiety and reading anxiety. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 70*(5), 1360-1373. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.198

Carlson, J. S., & Wiedl, K. H. (1978). Use of testing-the-limits procedures in the assessment of intellectual capabilities in children with learning difficulties. *American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 82*(6), 559-564.

Chang, A., C. S., & Read, J. (2006). The effects of listening support on the listening performance of EFL learners. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*(5), 375–394. https://doi.org/10.2307/40264527

Earl, L. (2006). *Rethinking classroom assessment with purpose in mind*. Western Northern Canadian Protocol.

Ellis, R. (2015). *Understanding second language acquisition* (2nd Ed.). Oxford University Press.

Estaji, M. (2019). The Immediate and delayed effect of dynamic assessment approaches on EFL learners' oral narrative performance and anxiety. *Educational Assessment, 24*(2), 135-154. https://doi.org/10.1080/10627197.2019.1578169

Fatemipour, H., & Jafari, F. (2015). The Effect of dynamic-assessment on the development of passive vocabulary of intermediate EFL learners. *Journal of Educational and Management Studies, 5*(1), 41-51.

Guthke, J. (1982). The learning test concept and its application in practice. In C. S. Lidz, & J. Elliott (Eds.), *Dynamic assessment: Prevailing models and applications* (pp. 17-69). Elsevier.

Haywood H. C. & Lidz C. S. (2007). *Dynamic assessment in practice: Clinical and educational applications.* Cambridge University Press.

Hidri, S. (2019). Static vs. dynamic assessment of students' writing exams: a comparison of two assessment modes. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, *13*(4), 239-256. http://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2019.1606875

Horwitz, E. K. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *21*, 112-126. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190501000071

Horwitz, M. B., Horwitz, E. K. & Cope, J. A. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*(2), 125-132. https://doi.org/10.2307/327317

Ito, N. (2008). *Exploring the nature of language anxiety: Experiences of nonNative English speaking college students in the United States.* University of New Orleans, Theses and Dissertations. 821. https://scholarworks.uno.edu/td/821

Kazemi, N. & Tavassoli, K. (2020). The Comparative Effect of dynamic vs. diagnostic assessment on EFL learners' speaking ability. *Research in English Language Pedagogy, 3*(4), 45-59. https://doi.org/10.30486/relp.2019.1878561.1155

Kazemi, A., Bagheri, M., & Rassaei, E. (2020). Dynamic assessment in English classrooms: Fostering learners' reading comprehension and motivation. *Cogent Psychology*, *7*(1), 1-10. http://doi.org/10.1080/23311908.2020.1788912

Kim, J. H. (2000). *Foreign language listening anxiety: A study of Korean students learning English.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Texas.

Kimura, H. (2017). Foreign language listening anxiety: Its dimensionality and group differences. *JALT, 30*(2), 173-196. http://dx.doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ30.2-2

Köroğlu, Z. C. (2019). Interventionist dynamic assessment's effects on speaking skills testing: case of ELT teacher candidates. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies, 10*(3), 23-31. https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.10n.3p.23

Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. E. (2011). Dynamic assessment in the classroom: Vygotskian praxis for second language development. *Language Teaching Research, 15*(1), 11-33. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1362168810383328

Lantolf, J., & Beckett, T. (2009). Sociocultural theory and second language acquisition. *Language Teaching, 42*(4), 459-475. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444809990048

Lee, I. (2007). Assessment for learning: Integrating assessment, teaching, and learning in the ESL/EFL writing classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 64*(1), 199-213. http://dx.doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.64.1.199

MacIntyre, P. D. (1995). How does anxiety affect second language learning? A reply to Sparks and Ganschow. *The Modem Language Journal*, *79*(1), 90-99. https://doi.org/10.2307/329395

Murphy, R. (2008). Dynamic assessment precursors: Soviet ideology and Vygotsky. *The Irish Journal of Psychology, 29*(4), 193-233. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03033910.2008.10446285

Murphy, R. & Maree, D. J. F. (2009). Revisiting core issues in dynamic assessment. *South African Journal of Psychology*, *39*(4), 420-431. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/008124630903900404

Naeini, J. (2015). A Comparative study of the effects of two approaches of dynamic assessment on the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 3*(10), 33-43. http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.4n.2p.54

Ortega, L. (2014). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Routledge.

Pahlavani, P., & Maftoon, P. (2015). The impact of using computer-aided argument mapping (CAAM) on the improvement of Iranian EFL learners' writing self-regulation. *The Journal of Teaching Language Skills (JTLS)*, *7*(2), 127-156.

Phillips, E. M. (1992). The effects of language anxiety on students oral test performance and attitudes. *The Modern Language Journal, 76*(1), 14-26. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1992.tb02573.x

Poehner, M. E, & Lantolf, J. P. (2005). Dynamic assessment in the language classroom. *Language Teaching Research, 9*(3), 233–265.

https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168805lr166oa

Poehner, M. E. (2007). Beyond the test: L2 dynamic assessment and the transcendence of mediated learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 91*(3), 323–340. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00583.x

Poehner, M. E. (2008). *Dynamic assessment: A Vygotskian approach to understanding and promoting L2 development*. Springer

Roebuck, R. F. (2001). Teaching composition in the college level foreign language class: Insights and activities from sociocultural theory. *Foreign Language Annals, 34*(3), 206-215.

Safdari, M. & Fathi, J. (2020). Investigating the role of dynamic assessment on speaking accuracy and fluency of pre-intermediate EFL learners. *Cogent Education, 2*(3), 23-45. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2020.1818924

Sanaeifard, S. H. & Nafarzadeh Nafari, F. (2018). The effects of formative and dynamic assessments of reading comprehensions on intermediate EFL learners' test anxiety. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *8*(5), 533-540. http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0805.12

Shabani, K. (2018). Group dynamic assessment of L2 learners' writing abilities. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, *6*(1), 129-149. https://doi.org/10.30466/ijltr.2018.20494

Shrestha, P., & Coffin, C. (2012). Dynamic assessment, tutor mediation and academic writing development. *Assessing Writing, 17*(1), 55-70. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2011.11.003

Sohrabi, S., & Ahmadi Safa, M. (2020). Group dynamic assessment and EFL learners' oral production, motivation, and classroom anxiety. *English Teaching & Learning, 44(*2), 1-27. http://doi.org/10.1007/s42321-020-00054-2

Sternberg, R. J., & Grigorenko, E. L. (2002). *Dynamic testing: The nature and measurement of learning potential.* Cambridge University Press.

Tabatabaee, M., Alidoust, A., & Sarkeshikian, A. H. (2018). The effect of interventionist and cumulative group dynamic assessments on EFL learners' writing accuracy. *Applied Linguistics Research Journal, 2*(1), 1-13. http://dx.doi.org/10.14744/alrj.2018.36854

Thouësny, S. (2010). Assessing second language learners ' written texts: An interventionist and interactionist approaches to dynamic assessment. *Educational Studies, 4*(3), 3517-3522.

Veresov, N. N. (2017). ZBR and ZPD: Is there a difference? *Cultural-Historical Psychology, 13*(1), 23-36. http://doi.org/10.17759/chp.2017130102

Vogely, A. J. (1998). Listening comprehension anxiety: Students' reported sources and solutions. *Foreign Language Annals, 31*(1), 67–80. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1998.tb01333.x

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society*. Harvard University Press.

Young, D. J. (1991). An investigation of students' perspective on anxiety and speaking. *Foreign Language Annals, 23*(6), 539-553. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1990.tb00424.x

Young, D. J. (1992). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal, 75*(2), 426-439.

Wang, W (2015). Teaching English as an international language in China: investigating university teachers' and students' attitudes towards China English. *System, 53*, 60–72. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.06.008

Woodrow, L. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *RELC Journal, 37*(3), 308-328. *https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688206071315*

Worde, R. V. (1998). Students' perspectives on foreign language anxiety. *Language Learning, 44*, 283-305.

Zarei, A., & Khojasteh, A. (2020). Models of dynamic assessment affecting the learning of English lexical collocations. *Journal of Language Horizons*, *4*(2), 239-259. https://doi.org/10.22051/lghor.2020.29463.1229

Zarei, A., & Rahmaty, H. (2021). The effects of interactionist and interventionist dynamic assessment on EFL students' perfectionism, willingness to communicate, and foreign language anxiety. *International Journal of Language Testing*, *11*(2), 13-33.

Zarei, A. A. & Rezadoust, H. (2020). The effects of scaffolded and unscaffolded feedback on speaking anxiety and self-efficacy. *Journal of Modern Research in English Language Studies, 7*(4), 111-132. http://dx.doi.org/10.30479/jmrels.2020.13464.1655

Abstracts
in Persian

فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال هفتم، شمارهٔ ۴، زمستان ۱۴۰۲
مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۳۶-۷

بررسی موردی دوره آموزش معلمان توانش‌محور

الهه توکلی[۱]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۴۰۱/۰۵/۱۰   تاریخ تصویب: ۱۴۰۱/۱۲/۲۰

چکیده

بررسی موردی حاضر یک دوره آموزشی نوآورانه با شرکت ۱۴ دانشجو معلم ایرانی مقطع کارشناسی در رشته آموزش زبان انگلیسی را گزارش می‌کند. این دوره بر اساس نظریه آموزش معلمان مبتنی بر شایستگی ارزیابی تدریس دانشجو معلم‌ها به وسیلهٔ سه منبع (خود، گروه همتا و مدرس تربیت معلم) و بر اساس ابزار مشاهده معلم طراحی شد. هدف در درجه نخست این بود که ببینیم آیا بین این سه منبع در ارزیابی عملکرد دانشجو معلمان همخوانی وجود دارد و دوماً اینکه بدانیم نگرش شرکت‌کنندگان دوره نسبت به دوره و سه حالت ارزیابی چگونه است. همبستگی پیرسون نشان داد که ارزیابی گروه همسالان هم با مدرس تربیت معلم و هم با خود-ارزیابی تااندازه‌ای همخوانی دارد. یافته‌های به‌دست‌آمده از مصاحبه‌های نیمه ساختار یافته با دانش‌آموزمعلم‌ها نشان داد که آن‌ها بیشتر از خودارزیابی به ارزیابی گروهی و مدرس تربیت معلم رغبت نشان می‌دهند و این دوره سبب می‌شود که آن‌ها با تأمل بیشتری تدریس کنند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: ارزیابی گروهی، ارزیابی مدرس تربیت معلم، توانش، خودارزیابی

---

[۱] گروه زبان و ادبیات انگلیسی، دانشگاه ولدا، نروژ. elaheh.tavakoli@hivolda.no

مجله افق‌های زبان

فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال هفتم، شمارهٔ ۴، زمستان ۱۴۰۲
مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۶۲-۳۷

تجزیه و تحلیل فرا حرکت بلاغی نشانگرهای فراگفتمان تعاملی در چکیدهٔ مجله‌های داخلی و خارجی رشتهٔ تاریخ

مودت سعیدی[*1]
نیلوفر کرمی[2]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۴۰۱/۰۶/۲۳ تاریخ تصویب: ۱۴۰۲/۰۹/۲۰

چکیده

پژوهش حاضر به بررسی ساختار گونهٔ متنی چکیده مقاله‌های چاپ‌شده در مجله‌های داخلی و بین‌المللی در رشته تاریخ پرداخته‌است. در این راستا، پیکره‌ای مبتنی بر ۸۰ چکیده (۴۰ مقاله داخلی و ۴۰ مقاله بین‌المللی) از جنبهٔ حرکت‌های بلاغی تشکیل‌دهنده‌شان با در نظر گرفتن مدل پنج-حرکتی هایلند (۲۰۰۵) مورد بررسی و تحلیل گونه‌ای قرار گرفت. یافته‌های تحلیل گونهٔ متنی نشان داد حرکت‌های بلاغی بخش هدف و مقدمه در چکیده‌های داخلی و حرکت‌های بلاغی مقدمه، هدف و نتیجه در چکیده‌های بین‌المللی فراوانی بالایی داشتند. تجزیه و تحلیل نشانگرهای فراگفتمان تعاملی نشان داد که تقویت‌کننده‌ها رایج‌ترین مقوله در دو گروه چکیده‌ها بودند. با این وجود، ابزارهای ترغیبی بیشتر توسط نویسنده‌های داخلی مورد استفاده قرار می‌گرفت، در حالی‌که متون پژوهشگران بین‌المللی بیشتر مشتمل بر ارجاع به خود بودند. یافته‌ها نشان‌دهندهٔ ذهنیت آگاهانه و الگوهای مناسب تعامل برای ارائه گزارشی متقاعدکننده از هدف‌ها و یافته‌های پژوهش در رشتهٔ تاریخ بود. این یافته‌ها پیامدهای آموزشی برای دوره‌های مهارت نوشتاری با اهداف ویژه دارند که هدف آن مجهز ساختن اعضای تازه‌کار جامعهٔ گفتمانِ تاریخ با ابزارهای لازم برای پایبندی به قراردادهای عمومی و تعاملی است.

کلیدواژه‌ها: تحلیل ژانر، چکیده مقاله‌های پژوهشی، نشانه‌های فراگفتمانی تعاملی

---

* نویسندهٔ مسئول
[1] گروه زبان انگلیسی، دانشگاه تربیت دبیر شهید رجائی، تهران، ایران. m.saidi@sru.ac.ir
[2] آموزش زبان انگلیسی، گروه زبان انگلیسی، دانشگاه تربیت دبیر شهید رجائی، تهران، ایران. niloofarkarami@sru.ac.ir

فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال هفتم، شمارهٔ ۴، زمستان ۱۴۰۲
مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۸۵-۶۳

تحلیل نیازهای یادگیری زبان در مرحله‌های مختلف درس کارشناسی ترجمه شفاهی پیاپی

زهره قرائی*[1]
سعید کتابی[2]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۴۰۱/۰۴/۲۱ تاریخ تصویب: ۱۴۰۱/۱۲/۲۰

چکیده

این مقاله گزارشی مبسوط از تحلیل نیازهای زبان‌آموزان در مرحله‌های مختلف پیشبرد درس ترجمهٔ شفاهی پیاپی در مقطع کارشناسی ارائه می‌دهد. شرکت‌کنندگان این پژوهش ۳۲ دانشجوی مترجمی کارشناسی بودند. از دو پرسشنامه برای شناسایی کمبودها و خواسته‌ها در ابتدا و انتهای نیم‌سال تحصیلی و از یادداشت‌های تعمق‌محور زبان‌آموزان به‌عنوان ابزاری در دست‌یابی پیوسته به کمبودهایشان استفاده شد. در هر مرحله، پس از شناسایی کمبود و یا خواسته، تصمیم‌هایی در مورد تغییرات لازم در روند درس گرفته و اجرا شد، و تأثیر آن در دیدگاه زبان‌آموزان بررسی شد. کمبودهای پیوسته عمدتاً ضعف در درک مطلب شنیداری و یادداشت‌برداری در زبان دوم بود. بررسی کمبودها در انتهای نیم‌سال نشان داد که گرچه بیشتر زبان‌آموزان قبول داشتند که در یادداشت-برداری، درک مطلب شنیداری و ترجمهٔ شفاهی پیاپی پیشرفت کرده‌اند، تقریباً نیمی از آن‌ها احساس نمی‌کردند که اعتمادبه‌نفس لازم برای شرکت در فعالیت‌های کلاسی را داشته باشند. همچنین، تحلیل خواسته‌ها نشان داد درصد بالایی از زبان‌آموزان معتقدند مواد آموزشی و فعالیت‌های درنظرگرفته‌شده برای کلاس در پیشرفت آن‌ها مؤثر بوده‌است. با این حال، فعالیت‌هایی که لازمهٔ آن تعامل و مشارکت بود محبوبیت کمتری داشتند. یافته‌های بررسی کمبودها در انتهای نیم‌سال و این مشاهده هر دو نشان داد که لازم است در برنامهٔ درسی طراحی‌شده تغییراتی ایجاد کرد تا فضایی آرام برای تعاملات به وجود آید. اگرچه این بررسی در محیطی علمی انجام شد، اما با توجه به اینکه نمونه‌ای عملی از تحلیل نیازهایی که می‌تواند انجام شود مبسوط است، می‌تواند آموزه‌هایی برای مراکز آموزشی دیگر نیز داشته باشد. افزون بر این، ماهیت مشکلاتی که زبان‌آموزان گزارش دادند و اقدام‌هایی که در رویارویی با آن انجام شد می‌تواند در بافت‌های دیگر نیز کمابیش یکسان باشد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: تحلیل نیازها، ترجمهٔ شفاهی پیاپی، خواسته‌ها، کمبودها، یادداشت‌برداری

---

* نویسندهٔ مسئول

[1] گروه زبان انگلیسی، دانشگاه کاشان، کاشان، ایران. zgharaei@kashanu.ac.ir

[2] گروه زبان انگلیسی، دانشگاه اصفهان، اصفهان، ایران. ketabi@fgn.ui.ac.ir

فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال هفتم، شمارهٔ ۴، زمستان ۱۴۰۲
مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۱۱۸-۸۷

مدیریت گفتمان در ترجمه: تحلیلی بر ترجمهٔ گفتمان‌نمای تفصیلی قرآنی «و» در پیکره‌های موازی

علی محمد محمدی[۱]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۴۰۱/۰۵/۲۵ تاریخ تصویب:۱۴۰۱/۱۲/۲۰

چکیده
مدیریت گفتمان با به‌کارگیری گفتمان‌نماها در فرایند تعاملات انسانی انجام می‌گیرد. پژوهش حاضر به بررسی ترجمهٔ پرکاربردترین، پیچیده‌ترین و مبهم‌ترین گفتمان‌نمای قرآنی «و» به زبان فارسی پرداخت. دو نظریه انسجام در گفتمان و تحلیل معادل‌های ترجمه مبانی نظری این پژوهش را تشکیل دادند. دو ترجمه فارسی بر اساس نمونه گیری هدفمند انتخاب شدند. تحلیل پیکره‌های موازی در زبان فارسی نشان داد که ترجمهٔ این گفتمان‌نمای تفصیلی به‌شکلی خلاقانه و پویا با استفاده از چهار مقولهٔ گفتمان‌نماهای تقابلی، تفصیلی، توالی و استنباطی و ترکیب‌های مختلف آن‌ها انجام شده‌است. این رویکرد خلاق، انعطاف‌پذیر و پویا در تحلیل پیکره‌های موازی نشان داد که ترجمه یک پدیده پیچیده کاربردشناختی، فرهنگ-بنیان و گفتمان-محور است. ترجمه نظام آفرینش گفتمانی پویاست که با استفاده از رویکردهای نظری مختلف در تحلیل گفتمان و کاربردشناسی انجام می‌شود که در چارچوب آن مترجم به غنی‌سازی واژه‌ها و پاره‌گفته‌های بین زبان‌ها، فرهنگ‌ها و گفتمان‌ها اقدام می‌کند. به سبب اینکه این رویکردهای خلاق و انعطاف‌پذیر در حوزه‌های فرهنگ‌نگاری، برنامه‌ریزی آموزشی و دیگر حوزه‌های آموزش و پژوهش ترجمه استفاده نشده‌اند، به پژوهشگران، مدرسان و دیگر مسئولان پیشنهاد می‌شود تا به بازنگری رویکردهای خود بر اساس یافته‌های پژوهشی اقدام نموده و کاربردهای برآمده از داده‌های موازی را مورد تجدید نظر قرار دهند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: ترجمه، قرآن، گفتمان‌نمای تفصیلی، مدیریت گفتمان، گفتمان نمای تفصیلی قرانی «و».

[۱] گروه زبان و ادبیات انگلیسی، دانشکده ادبیات و زبان‌ها، دانشگاه اراک، اراک، ایران. a-mohammadi@araku.ac.ir

مجله افق‌های زبان
فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال هفتم، شمارهٔ ۴، زمستان ۱۴۰۲
مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۱۴۸-۱۱۹

تغییرات انگیزشی در یادگیری زبان انگلیسی به‌عنوان زبان خارجی: رفتار یادگیری انگیزشی، مهارت زبانی و جنسیت

مجید قربانی[*۱]
شکوه رشوند سمیاری[۲]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۶/۳/۱۴۰۱ تاریخ تصویب: ۱۸/۵/۱۴۰۱

چکیده

تغییرات انگیزشی با وجود آنچه در گذشته پنداشته می‌شد دیگر به‌عنوان یک پدیده ثابت مد نظر قرار نمی‌گیرد. این تغییرات اکنون به‌عنوان یکی از عناصر تفاوت فردی انگاشته شده‌است که پیوسته تحت تأثیر عوامل بافتی قرار می‌گیرد. پژوهش حاضر با استفاده از دیدگاه سیستم پویا و بر اساس نظریه خودانگیزشی زبان دوم دورنیه (۲۰۰۵) برای بررسی تغییرات رفتاری و انگیزشی زبان‌آموزان زن و مرد در سطوح مختلف مهارت زبانی بازه-زمانی را مد نظر قرار داده‌است. به این منظور تعداد ۵۹۰ نفر دانشجوی زن و مرد در سطح مبتدی تا متوسطه بالا پرسشنامه عاملی انگیزشی در بازه زمانی یک ماهه و در طول یک نیم‌سال تحصیلی را تکمیل نمودند. یافته‌ها نشان داد که انگیزش دانشجویان احتمالاً تحت اصول سیستم پویا قابل ارزیابی بوده‌است. ما همچنین دریافتیم که انگیزش دانشجویان چگونه در طول بازه زمانی تغییر کرده و چگونه می‌توان این تغییرات را به‌گونه‌ای نسبتاً ثابت پیش‌بینی نمود. افزون بر این، نشان داده شد که پیشرفت‌های رفتاری و انگیزشی تحت تأثیر سطوح مختلف مهارت زبانی و جنسیت دانشجویان قرار گرفته است. کاربردهای آموزشی و پیشنهادهایی برای پژوهش‌های آتی نیز ارائه گردید.

کلیدواژه‌ها: انگیزش، تجربه یادگیری زبان دوم، سیستم‌های پویا، خودِ آرمانی زبان دوم، خودِ بایسته زبان دوم، رفتار یادگیری انگیزشی

---

* نویسندهٔ مسئول
[۱] گروه زبان انگلیسی، دانشکده علوم انسانی، واحد تهران شرق، دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی، تهران، ایران.
M.Ghorbani@iauet.ac.ir
[۲] گروه زبان انگلیسی، دانشکده علوم انسانی، واحد تهران شرق، دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی، تهران، ایران.
Sh.Rashvand@iauet.ac.ir

مجله افق‌های زبان

فصلنامۀ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال هفتم، شمارۀ ۴، زمستان ۱۴۰۲
مقاله پژوهشی
صفحات ۱۷۶-۱۴۹

تاثیر مدل‌های ارزیابی پویا بر اضطراب شنیداری و گفتاری در زبان دوم

عباس‌علی زارعی[*۱]
الهام شیشه‌گرها[۲]

تاریخ دریافت: ۱۴۰۱/۱۰/۱۲ تاریخ تصویب: ۱۴۰۱/۱۲/۲۰

چکیده

کاستن از اضطراب در یادگیری زبان خارجی از دیرباز یکی از نگرانی‌های بسیاری از معلم‌ها بوده‌است. پژوهش کنونی به بررسی اثرات سه مدل ارزیابی پویا بر اضطراب شنیداری و گفتاری زبان خارجی متمرکز بود. شرکت‌کنندگان در پژوهش تعداد ۱۲۰ فراگیر زبان انگلیسی ایرانی سطح پیش‌میانی در آموزشگاه زبانی در قزوین، ایران بودند. زبان‌آموزان به‌طور تصادفی در چهار گروه (سه گروه آزمایشی و یک گروه کنترل) قرار گرفتند. پیش از آغاز آموزش، همگونی زبان‌آموزان به‌لحاظ سطح بسندگی با آزمون بسندگی آکسفورد کنترل شد. سپس پرسشنامه‌های اضطراب شنیداری و گفتاری به‌عنوان پیش‌آزمون به هر چهار گروه داده شد. آن‌گاه، به‌مدت ۱۰ جلسه، زبان‌آموزان گروه اول آموزش شنیدار و گفتار خود را با رویکرد سنجش قابلیت یادگیری بودلف دریافت نمودند؛ درحالی‌که گروه دوم با رویکرد گاتکس لرنست؛ گروه سوم با رویکرد آزمون-محدودیت‌ها مورد ارزیابی قرار گرفتند. درنهایت، گروه کنترل به‌صورت سنتی و معلم‌محور مورد آموزش قرار گرفت. در جلسه دوازدهم، همان پرسشنامه‌ها به‌عنوان پس‌آزمون به همه گروه‌ها داده شد. داده‌های به‌دست‌آمده با به‌کارگیری فرایند آماری تحلیل کوواریانس مورد پردازش قرار گرفت. پس از در نظر گرفتن تفاوت‌های اولیه، در اضطراب شنیداری و گفتاری گروه‌ها در پس‌آزمون مختلف تفاوت معناداری به دست آمد. بر اساس یافته‌ها، گروه‌هایی که بر اساس آزمون-محدودیت‌ها و لرنست مورد ارزیابی قرار گرفته بودند در پیش‌آزمون اضطراب شنیداری و گفتاری کمتری داشتند. چنین نتیجه‌گیری می شود که به‌کارگیری مدل‌های ارزیابی پویا می‌توانند اضطراب شنیداری و گفتاری زبان‌آموز را کاهش و تولید زبانی آن‌ها را افزایش دهند. این یافته‌ها می‌توانند کاربردهای مهمی برای زبان‌آموزان، معلم‌ها و طراحان مطالب درسی داشته باشد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: اضطراب، ارزیابی پویا، رویکرد آزمون-محدودیت، رویکرد لرنست، مدل‌های ارزیابی پویا

---

* نویسندۀ مسئول
[۱] گروه زبان انگلیسی، دانشگاه بین‌المللی امام خمینی، قزوین، ایران. a.zarei@hum.ikiu.ac.ir
[۲] گروه زبان انگلیسی، دانشگاه بین‌المللی امام خمینی، قزوین، ایران. elham.shishegar@yahoo.com

فصلنامهٔ علمی افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)
سال هفتم، شمارهٔ ۴، زمستان ۱۴۰۲

فهرست مطالب

۷-۳۶ **بررسی موردی دوره آموزش معلمان توانش‌محور**
الهه توکلی

۳۷-۶۲ **تجزیه و تحلیل فرا حرکت بلاغی نشانگرهای فراگفتمان تعاملی در چکیدهٔ مجله‌های داخلی و خارجی رشتهٔ تاریخ**
مودت سعیدی، نیلوفر کرمی

۶۳-۸۵ **تحلیل نیازهای یادگیری زبان در مرحله‌های مختلف درس کارشناسی ترجمه شفاهی پیاپی**
زهره قرائی، سعید کتابی

۸۷-۱۱۸ **مدیریت گفتمان در ترجمه: تحلیلی بر ترجمهٔ گفتمان نمای تفصیلی قرآنی «و» در پیکره‌های موازی**
علی‌محمد محمدی

۱۱۹-۱۴۸ **تغییرات انگیزشی در یادگیری زبان انگلیسی به‌عنوان زبان خارجی: رفتار یادگیری انگیزشی، مهارت زبانی و جنسیت**
مجید قربانی، شکوه رشوند سمیاری

۱۴۹-۱۷۶ **تاثیر مدل‌های ارزیابی پویا بر اضطراب شنیداری و گفتاری در زبان دوم**
عباس‌علی زارعی، الهام شیشه‌گرها

معاونت پژوهشی دانشگاه

فصلنامهٔ علمی

افق‌های زبان دانشگاه الزهرا(س)

سال هفتم، شماره چهارم، زمستان ۱۴۰۲ (پیاپی ۱۸)

صاحب امتیاز: **دانشگاه الزهرا**(س)

مدیر مسئول: **دکتر محسن شیرازی‌زاده**

سردبیر: **دکتر محمدرضا عنانی سراب**

ویراستار زبان انگلیسی: **دکتر ساره پورصدوقی**

ویراستاران زبان فارسی: **دکتر نرجس منفرد**

مدیر اجرایی: **نرگس جعفری**

آدرس: **تهران، ونک، دانشگاه الزهرا(س)، دانشکدهٔ ادبیات، کد پستی: ۱۹۹۳۸۹۱۱۷۶**

پست الکترونیکی: lghorizons@alzahra.acir

شاپا: ۲۵۸۸-۳۵۰x

شاپای الکترونیکی: ۵۶۳۴-۲۵۸۸

مجلهٔ افق های زبان با همکاری انجمن زبان شناسی ایران منتشر می‌شود.

LGHOR

انجمن زبان‌شناسی ایران