



An Investigation of the Online Farsi Translation of Metadiscourse Markers in American Presidential Debates

Davud Kuhi, (Corresponding Author),

*Assistant Professor of TEFL, Department of English,
Islamic Azad University, Maragheh Branch, Maragheh, Iran*
Email: davudkuhi@yahoo.com

Mahya Esmailzad,

MA in ELT, Nabi Akram University College, Tabriz, Iran
Email: mahya.tolouee45@yahoo.com

Shirin Rezaei,

*PhD Candidate of TEFL, Department of English,
Tabriz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran*
Email: shirinrezaee89@gmail.com

Abstract

The term metadiscourse rarely appears in translation studies despite the continuously growing body of research on discourse markers in different genres and through various perspectives. Translation as a product that needs to observe such markers for their communicative power and contribution to the overall coherence of a text within a context has not been satisfactorily studied. Motivated by such an ambition, this study focused on the third American presidential debate of 2016 and its two online translations by IRIB (The Islamic Republic of Iran Broadcasting) and BBC News (The British Broadcasting Corporation). This research aimed to investigate similarities and differences between the use of interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the American presidential debate and its two online translations. Overall, the findings revealed a statistically significant difference in the amount of metadiscourse items employed in English original text and its Persian translations. Translated texts into Persian employed fewer metadiscourse markers than the English text. The findings identified several pedagogical challenges that need to be addressed in translator training, including trainee translators' familiarity with the social and discursive practices of the academic community, and their awareness of rhetorical elements used in academic texts.

Keywords: Metadiscourse, Interactional Metadiscourse, Interactive Metadiscourse, Translation

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: Monday, January 20, 2020

Accepted: Thursday, May 14, 2020

Published: Tuesday, June 16, 2020

Available Online: Tuesday, June 9, 2020

DOI: 10.22049/jalda.2020.26749.1166

Online ISSN: 2383-2460; Print ISSN:2383-591x

Introduction

The term metadiscourse was coined by the structural linguist Zelig Harris (1959) for the first time and later has been further developed by writers like Vande Kopple (1985) and Crismore (1989). Building on their work, Hyland (2005, p. 25) argues that "metadiscourse is something that we do, a social act through which people carry on a discourse about their own discourse for particular rhetorical purposes." Metadiscourse is a widely used term in current discourse analysis, and is a relatively new approach that refers to the ways writers or speakers project themselves in their texts to interact with their receivers (Hyland, 2004). Metadiscourse also plays an important role in organizing the discourse, engaging the audience, and signaling the writer's or speaker's attitude.

More particularly, one of the most significant and revealing instances of institutional discourse features is the speakers' use of *metadiscourse* by means of which the speaker's multi-level messages are being conveyed concurrently with the ongoing discourse, namely "alongside", "above" and/or "beyond" the unfolding discourse (Ilie, 2003, p.79). By means of metadiscourse, speakers adjust their discourse to the situation, to their interlocutors and to their audiences, as well as to their own end-goals. By the specific use of such linguistic means, politicians can achieve their own political aims which are to shape people's thoughts and to convince them to act as they want.

In recent years, there seems to be a growing body of studies on the politicians' use of metadiscourse markers in televised speeches, interviews, press conferences, and debates (e.g. Bhatia, 2006; Chilton, 2004; Fetzer, 2008; Fraser, 2010; Tenorio, 2002). These studies have illustrated that political figures opt for linguistic strategies that lead to *vagueness* and *depersonalization* (Tenori, 2002), *evasion*, *positivity*, *influence*, and *power* (Bhatia, 2006), or act as a shield against adverse reactions emanating from lack of potential (Fraser, 2010). Compared to other campaigning genres, presidential debates offer the electorates "a somehow less contrived impression" (Benoit & Harthcock, 1999, p. 341); however, during a debate, candidates strive to portray themselves as powerful while they may couch their messages in a way that enables them to shrink responsibility. In doing so, presidential candidates rely on rhetorical methods like metadiscourse markers which help them make coherent and listener-friendly talks (Elhambakhsh & Jalalian, 2015). In an attempt to analyze televised presidential debates, Jalilifar and Alavi-Nia (2012) scrutinized the cross-linguistic use of hedges and boosters among Iranian and American presidential. They demonstrated that not only were the frequencies significantly different, but the functions these devices fulfilled were also varied cross-linguistically as the winners of both groups (Obama and Ahmadinejad) demonstrated diverse tendencies towards using hedges and boosters.

An intriguing question emerging from the existing literature is that how cross-linguistic and cross cultural differences might affect translation of such televised debates. In Hatim and Mason's (1997, p. 7) words, translation is "an act of communication" permanently dealing with at least two different languages along with a broad network of elements including cultural, historical, political, and ideological differences. Undoubtedly, in the era of communication and dialogue among civilizations, translation occupies a crucial role in transferring different ideas among different nations. Since Metadiscourse markers as important means of facilitating communication help candidates make coherent and listener-friendly talks, sort of problems arise when source texts which follow a different set of rhetorical conventions from comparable original target language texts are translated.

The term metadiscourse rarely appears in translation studies despite the continuously growing body of research on discourse markers in different genres and through various perspectives. Translation as a product that needs to observe such markers for their communicative power and contribution to the overall coherence of a text within a context has not been satisfactorily studied (Farghal & Kalakh, 2019; Nord, 2017). Motivated by such an ambition, the present study aims to reveal the frequency of metadiscourse markers in the third and final American presidential debate between Hillary Clinton and Donald Trump who were nominated for the 2016 presidential elections, and the frequency of the metadiscourse markers used in its online translations to Persian. One of these translations was broadcasted by IRIB (Islamic Republic of Iran Broadcasting) and the other by BBC (The British Broadcasting Corporation). This study, specifically, aims to reflect on the following question: What are the similarities and differences between the use of interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the American presidential debate and its two online translations by IRIB and BBC News?

Methodology

The dataset

The set of data comprises the third and the final presidential debate of the 2016 American Election between Hillary Clinton and Donald Trump which was held on Wednesday, October 19, 2016, and its simultaneous translations to Persian language by BBC news (the British Broadcasting Corporation) and IRIB (The Islamic Republic of Iran Broadcasting). The rationale for selecting these debates was that they were reported to be the most-watched and combative debates.

Model of Analysis

Hyland's (2005) interpersonal model of metadiscourse was employed to investigate the type and the frequency of metadiscourse markers. (The metadiscourse markers

are listed in the Appendix). Hyland distinguishes his definition from the ones in the earlier work on metadiscourse (e.g. Crismore, 1983; Vande Kopple, 1985) in important ways in that he attempts to avoid the textual/interpersonal dichotomy by asserting that all metadiscourse is interpersonal. This model consists of two dimensions: interactive and interactional.

Table 1. Hyland's (2005) Classification System of an Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse

Category	Function	Example
Interactive	Help to guide the reader through the text	Resources
Transitions		In addition; but; thus;
Frame markers	Express relations between main clauses	Finally; to conclude; my
Endophoric markers	Refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages	Noted above; see figure
Evidential	Refer to information in other parts of the text	According to X; Z states
Code glosses	Refer to information from other text	Namely, e.g.; such as
	Elaborate propositional meanings	
Interactional	Involve the reader in the text	Resources
Hedges	Withhold commitment and open dialogue	Might; perhaps; possible
Boosters		In fact; definitely; it is clear
Attitude markers	Emphasize certainly or close dialogue	
	Express writer's attitude to proposition	Unfortunately; I agree
Self-mentions	Explicit reference to author	I; we; my; me; our
Engagement markers	Explicitly build relationship with reader	Consider, note; you can see

Procedure

The debate and its translations were transcribed according to Jefferson's (1984) transcription notations, which underwent some modifications in light of the aims of this study. The transcripts were then studied carefully and analyzed using Hyland's interpersonal model of metadiscourse markers. In order to examine metadiscourse markers in translations, the Persian equivalents of these markers were considered using *the living English-Persian dictionary* (Bateni, 2006) (the Persian equivalents of metadiscourse markers are listed in the Appendix). Due to pragmatic, internal, and multifunctional nature of metadiscourse items, authors, working independently, coded a 10% sample to ensure reliability with 95% agreement. Cases of disagreement were discussed until a common decision was made. After reading and coding all the transcripts, the frequencies of metadiscourse items were calculated

(per 1000 words). Chi-square test was then used to determine statistical significances.

Results and Discussion

The following subsections present the results of the functional analysis of the given corpus. First, the result of the overall frequency of interpersonal metadiscourse is presented as a whole. Second, the categorical distribution of interpersonal metadiscourse markers is provided accompanying their tables and figures.

Overall distribution of interpersonal metadiscourse

As you notice, Figure 1 displays the overall distribution of metadiscourse markers per 1000 words in the original text, T1 (IRIB) and T2 (BBC News).

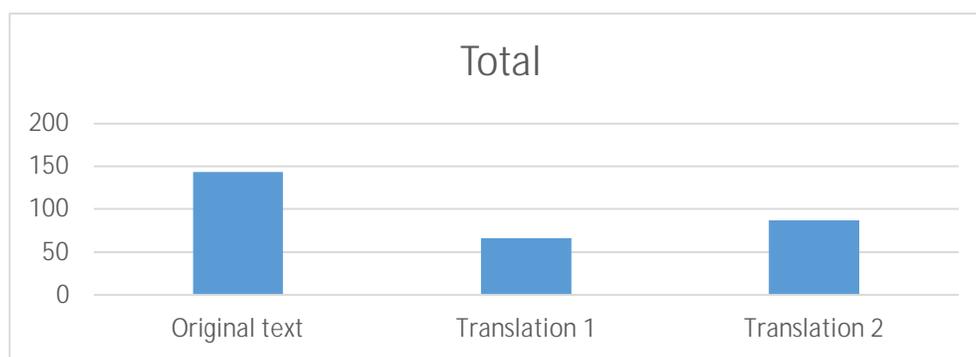


Figure 1. Overall Distribution of Metadiscourse per 1000 Words

A glimpse at Figure 1 reveals that there is a statistically significant difference in the amount of metadiscourse items employed in English original text and its Persian translation 1 ($\chi^2 = 32$, $p = 0.0$) and translation 2 ($\chi^2 = 16$, $p = 0.0$). Translated texts into Persian employed fewer metadiscourse markers than the English text. Moreover, although translation 2 (BBC News) has a higher proportion of metadiscourse markers than Translation 1 (IRIB), there is not a significant difference between these two translations regarding the occurrence of metadiscourse markers ($\chi^2 = 2.8$, $p = 0.09$).

Categorical distribution of interpersonal metadiscourse markers

As the Figure 2 shows, the original text also has a higher proportion of metadiscourse markers in each category and type than their Persian translations. This means that not all metadiscourse markers existing in the original text have been translated into Persian.

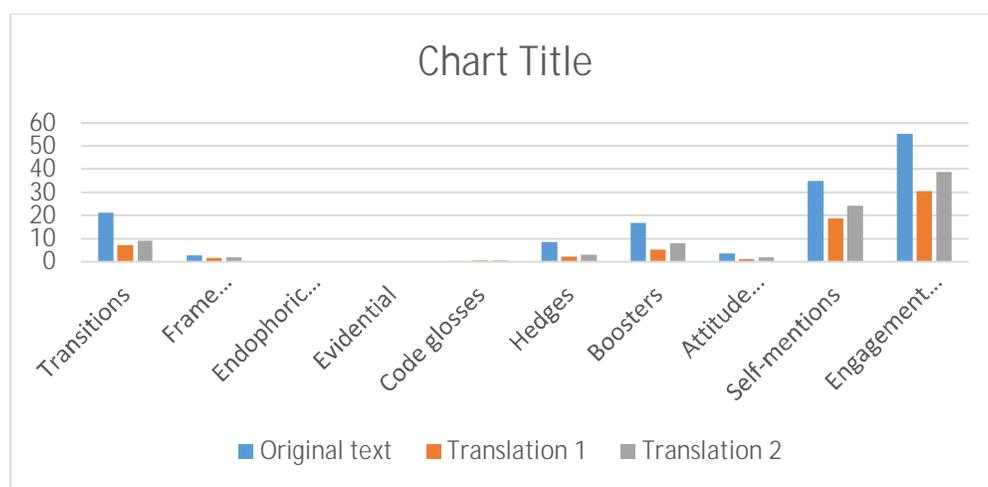


Figure 2. Categorical Distribution of Interpersonal Metadiscourse Markers

As you might notice in table 1, the total number of the two dimensions of metadiscourse markers employed in original text is higher than its Persian translations. This means that the distribution of different types of metadiscourse markers in English original text is not the same as their distribution in its Persian translations. As table 2 indicates, the use of interactive resources in original texts and its Persian translations is less than the use of interactional resources in this corpus. The high use of interactional metadiscourse in presidential debates may indicate the significance of involving audiences in an interactive, clear, and elaborated direction that interlocutors desire for a meaningfully accomplished discourse.

Table 2. Categorical Distribution of Interpersonal Metadiscourse per 1000 Words

Category	Original text	Translation 1	Translation 2
Interactive	24.2	8.9	11.2
Transitions	21.1	7.1	9.03
Frame markers	2.6	1.6	1.8
Endophoric markers	0	0	0
Evidential	0	0	0
Code glosses	0.04	0.4	0.40
Interactional	119.1	57.7	75.9
Hedges	8.6	2.2	3.05
Boosters	16.8	5.1	7.8
Attitude markers	3.5	1.08	2.03
Self-mentions	34.9	18.7	24.1
Engagement markers	55.2	30.5	38.8
Total	143.4	66.6	87.2

More noticeably, engagement markers, self-mentions, transitional markers, boosters, and hedges are the most frequently used metadiscourse elements in three texts.

Discussion and conclusion

This study focused on the third American presidential debate of 2016 and its two online translations by IRIB (The Islamic Republic of Iran Broadcasting) and BBC News (The British Broadcasting Corporation). This research aimed to investigate the frequency of metadiscourse markers used in the original text, the translation 1 (IRIB) and 2 (BBC News), and to compare the differences and similarities in the frequency of the use of metadiscourse markers. Overall, our findings showed that the original text had a higher proportion of metadiscourse markers in each category and type than their Persian translations. More noticeably, engagement markers, self-mentions, transitional markers, boosters, and hedges were the most frequently used metadiscourse elements in three texts respectively.

According to Hyland (2005, p. 54), engagement markers perform two main functions: "to address the receivers of a piece of discourse by acknowledging their presence and to involve them rhetorically through interaction that pulls them in when needed, anticipates their reaction, and leads them to a conclusion". With presidential debates targeting an electorate, this becomes an essential game-changing tool with which politicians enhance the *ethos* and manage the communicative channel, promoting their self-image or arguing against the other candidate to maintain communication with them and persuade them to vote in their favor. Politicians, in this way, "perform the appellative function that aims to attain a certain response from the audience by means of persuasion" (Nord, 2016, p. 9).

Self-mention markers are first-person pronouns in the form of subjective, objective, or possessive adjectives in propositions. It is the indication of the presence of speakers in texts. According to Hyland (2005), the presence or the absence of explicit author reference is generally a conscious choice by writers to adopt a particular stance and a contextually situated authorial identity. How often speakers get involved with their audiences is judged by the number of self-mentions present in texts. The greater use of self-mentions in presidential debate could perhaps be explained considering the social context in which the debates were embedded. Generally speaking, political challengers need to put extra effort into constructing a powerful *ethos* within discourse as a means to defeat the candidates of the incumbent party.

The transition markers express relationships between stretches of discourse and raise the level of explicitness by making explicit relations which are implicit in the source text. Conversely, omission lowers the level of explicitness leaving the causal

relationship implicit. Boosters are the indicators which allow speakers to emphasize certainty and closed choices. Moreover, boosters emphasize certainty and construct rapport by making involvement with the topic and solidarity with an audience, taking a joint position against other voices (Hyland, 1999). Boosters permit speakers to display their authorization fully in emphasizing their claim and reaching similar conclusions as their listeners.

Hedges are interactional markers that indicate the writer's withholding obligation to a proposition (Hyland, 2005). They usually show the speaker's lack of commitment or uncertainty toward the content of the text. Some excerpts are taken from different speeches. The speaker uses hedges to create positions of negotiation to express his viewpoints in alternative voices. According to Mai (2016), when speakers show uncertainty in their claim, it reveals that speakers are building up a humble and cautious face in achieving the credible appeal of the discourse.

As our findings showed, in both translations, the translators made a number of changes in these metadiscourse features. According to Chesterton (1997, pp. 88-115), changes made in translation are syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic strategies used by the translator in order to achieve "what they regard as the optimal translation". Syntactic strategies manipulate the clause and sentence structure of the text. "Semantic strategies change its meaning, by, for instance, changing emphasis" (Chesterton, 1997, p. 104). Pragmatic, which typically incorporate syntactic and semantic strategies, "manipulate the message itself, depending on the translator's knowledge of the prospective readership of the translations". These include explicitness changes, which affect the level of explicitness of the text (Chesterman, 1997, p. 108), "information changes, which add or omit information that cannot be inferred from the surrounding text" (Chesterman, 1997, p. 109), "interpersonal changes, which alter the relationship between the author and the reader" (Chesterman, 1997, p. 110), " illocutionary changes, which are changes in speech acts" (Chesterman, 1997, p. 110), and "visibility changes which are changes in the authorial presence in the text" (Chesterman, 1997, p. 112).

Based on our finding, it seems that, the main changes which the translators make in interpersonal metadiscourse are to reduce emphasis and alter the interpersonal relationship between the author and the target language reader. The changes in interpersonal markers in the two translations appear to be partly due to language differences and partly due to individual choices by translators. As Farghal and Kalakh (2019) state, by manipulating these markers, the translator would be unrightfully overtaking the role of demarcating the political distance between the candidates and the electorate. Accordingly, a successful political translation should observe essential markers that are heavily present in presidential debates like ideological polarization, emphasizing self-power, legitimizing or positive-presentation of the self, and delegitimizing or negative-presentation of the other. In

fact, it becomes the responsibility for translators to remain aware of the triadic nature of their job as mediators between speakers and their addressees. As they re-contextualize across languages, cultures, and discourse domains, an effort to interpret implicit meaning needs to be exerted since speech in politics is closely connected to culture, which is the container that embodies the practice of politics in a given society (Chilton & Schäffner, 2002).

It can be concluded that, in order to produce successful translations, trainee translators' awareness of the specific rhetorical devices used in academic texts needs to be raised. This can be achieved by encouraging them to carefully analyze source texts in terms of rhetorical features typical of academic discourse, such as hedging, citation, authorial presence, and so on, and discussing the function of these features in the text before they undertake the translation task. The findings of the study might have been influenced by a number of limitations. One problem was the small-scale nature of the research, i.e. the limited corpora of the study which only analyzed the frequency, differences, and similarities of metadiscourse markers used in the third American presidential debate and its two translations into Persian by IRIB and BBC news. So the conclusions could not be extended to other fields, translations or interpretations. Future studies can be carried out expanding the corpus size to see if the same results are obtained.

References

- Batani, M. R. (2006). *The living English-Persian dictionary*. Tehran: Farhang Moaser Publishers. (Pouya)
- Benoit, W. L., & Harthcock, A. (1999). Functions of the great debates: Acclaims, attacks, and defenses in the 1960 presidential debates. *Communication Monographs*, 66, 341–357.
- Bhatia, A. (2006). Critical discourse analysis of political press conferences. *Discourse & Society* 17(2), 173–203.
- Chesterman, A. (1997). *Memes of translation*. Amsterdam/ Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Chilton, P. (2004). *Analyzing political discourse: Theory and practice*. London: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.
- Chilton, P. A., & Schäffner, C. (2002). Introduction: Themes and principles in the analysis of political discourse. In *Politics as text and talk: Analytic approaches to political discourse*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Crismore, A. (1983). *Metadiscourse: What is it and how is it used in school and non-school social science texts*. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

- Elhambakhsh, S. E., & Jalalian, M. (2015). Critical discourse analysis of hedges and boosters in Iranian TV election debates of presidential candidates. *The Journal of Applied Linguistics and Applied Literature: Dynamics and Advances*, 3(1), 31-40.
- Farghal, M., & Kalakh, B. (2019). Engagement in translation: Interactional metadiscourse markers in American presidential debates. *Jordan Journal of Modern Languages and Literatures*, 12(1), 103-122
- Fetzer, A. (2008). And I think that is a very straightforward way of dealing with it: The communicative function of cognitive verbs in political discourse. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 27, 384-396.
- Fraser, B. (2010). Hedging in political discourse: The Bush 2007 press conferences. In U. Okulska & P. Cap (Eds.), *Perspectives in politics and discourse* (pp. 201-213). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Harris, Z. (1959). The transformational model of language structure. *Anthropological Linguistics*, 1(1), 27-29.
- Hatim, B., & Mason, I. (1997). *The translator as communicator*. London: Psychological Association.
- Hyland, K. (1999). Talking to students: Metadiscourse in introductory textbooks. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18(1), 3-26.
- Hyland, K. (2004). *Disciplinary discourses. Social interactions in academic writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.
- Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing*, London, New York: British Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data, Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data.
- Ilie, C. (2003). Discourse and metadiscourse in parliamentary debates. *Journal of Language and Politics* 2(1), 71-92.
- Jalilifar, A., & Alavi-Nia, M. (2012). We are surprised; wasn't Iran disgraced there? A functional analysis of hedges and boosters in televised Iranian and American presidential debates. *Discourse and Communication*, 6(2), 135-161.
- Jefferson, G. (1984). Transcription notation. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action: Studies in conversation analysis* (pp. ix-xvi). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mai, H. (2016). An intercultural analysis of meta-discourse markers as persuasive power in Chinese and American political speeches, *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 4(6), 207-219.

Nord, Ch. (2016). Meaning, sense, function – What is transferred? *Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 231, 3-10.

Nord, Ch. (2017). The phatic function in translation: Meta communication as a case in point, *The Study of Language and Translation*, 21, 171-184.

Tenorio, E. H. (2002). I want to be a prime minister, or what linguistic choice can do for campaigning politicians, *Language and Literature*, 11, 243–261.

Vande Kopple, W. (1985). Some exploratory discourse on metadiscourse, *College Composition and Communication*, 36, 82-93.

Appendix

Metadiscourse items investigated

Interactional resources

Attitude Markers

admittedly; agree; agrees; agreed; amazed; amazing; amazingly; appropriate; appropriately; astonished; astonishing; astonishingly; best; better; complex; comprehensive; conclusively; consistent; correctly; critical; curious; curiously; desirable; desirably; difficult; disappointed; disappointing; disappointingly; disagree; disagreed; disagrees; dramatic; dramatically; essential; essentially; even x; expected; expectedly; fortunate; fortunately; hopeful; hopefully; important; importantly; inappropriate; inappropriately; interesting; interestingly; key; main; major; meaningful; necessary; only; prefer; preferable; preferably; preferred; remarkable; remarkably; robust; shocked; shocking; shockingly; significant; striking; strikingly; surprised; surprising; surprisingly; unbelievable; unbelievably; understandable; understandably; unexpected; unexpectedly; unfortunate; unfortunately; unique; useful; unusual; unusually; usual; valuable

صادقانه؛ موافق؛ موافقم؛ توافق؛ شگفت زده؛ حیرت آور؛ شگفت آور؛ مناسب؛ شگفت زده شد؛ شگفت آور؛ بهترین؛ بهتر؛ پیچیده جامع؛ قطعاً؛ استوار؛ به درستی؛ بحرانی؛ کنجکاو؛ مطلوب؛ دشوار؛ نا امید؛ نا امید کننده؛ نا امید کننده؛ مخالف بودن؛ مخالفت کرد؛ مخالفم؛ نمایشی؛ به طور چشمگیری؛ ضروری است؛ اساساً؛ حتی X؛ انتظار می رود؛ انتظار می رود؛ خوش شانس؛ خوشبختانه؛ امیدوارم؛ خوشبختانه؛ مهم؛ مهمتر؛ نامناسب؛ جالب هست؛ جالب است؛ کلید؛ اصلی؛ عمده؛ معنی دار؛ لازم است؛ فقط؛ ترجیح می دهند؛ ترجیحاً؛ ارجح؛ قابل توجه؛ تنومند؛ بهت زده؛ تکان دهنده؛ قابل توجه؛ به شدت؛ غافلگیر شدن؛ شگفت آور؛ تعجب آور؛ باور نکردنی

Boosters

actually; always; believe; believed; believes; beyond doubt; certain; certainly; clear; clearly; conclude; conclusively; decidedly; definite; definitely; demonstrate; demonstrated; demonstrates; determine; doubtless; emphasize; establish;

established; evident; evidently; find; finds; found; in fact; hold; incontestable; incontestably; incontrovertible; incontrovertibly; indeed; indisputable; indisputably; know; known; must; never; no doubt; obvious; obviously; of course; primarily; prove; proved; proves; realize; realized; realizes; really; revealed; show; showed; shown; shows; sure; surely; think; thinks; thought; truly; true; undeniable; undeniably; underscore; undisputedly; undoubtedly; without doubt

در واقع؛ همیشه؛ ایمان داشتن؛ معتقد؛ معتقد است؛ فراتر از شک؛ مسلم؛ قطعی؛ قطعاً؛ روشن است؛ به وضوح؛ نتیجه گرفتن؛ قطعاً؛ قطعی؛ نشان دادن؛ نشان داده شده؛ نشان می‌دهد؛ تعیین کنید؛ بدون شک؛ تاکید کنید؛ تاسیس کردن؛ ایجاد؛ آشکار؛ از قرار معلوم؛ مشخصاً؛ پیدا کردن؛ می‌یابد؛ پیدا کرد؛ در حقیقت؛ نگه داشتن؛ غیر قابل انکار؛ بی‌تردید؛ بی‌قاعدہ؛ در واقع؛ بدون تردید؛ بدون شک؛ می‌دانم؛ شناخته شده؛ باید؛ هرگز؛ بدون شک؛ آشکار؛ بدیهی است؛ البته؛ در درجه اول؛ ثابت کردن؛ ثابت؛ ثابت می‌کند؛ تحقق یابد؛ متوجه شدم؛ متوجه می‌شود؛ واقعا؛ نشان داد؛ نشان می‌دهد؛ نشان داد؛ نشان داده شده؛ نشان می‌دهد؛ مطمئن؛ مسلماً؛ فکر؛ فکر می‌کند؛ براستی؛ درست است؛ غیر قابل انکار؛ بدون شک؛ برجسته کردن بدون شک؛ بی‌شک؛ بدون شک

Hedges

about; almost; apparent; apparently; appear; appeared; appears; approximately; argue; argued; argues; around; assume; assumption; assumed; broadly; certain amount; certain extent; certain level; claim; claimed; claims; common; could; couldn't; doubt; doubtful; essentially; estimate; estimated; fairly; feel; feels; felt; frequently; from my perspective; from our perspective; from this perspective; generally; guess; hypothesis; hypothesized; indicate; indicated; indicates; in general; in most cases; in most instances; in my opinion; in my view; in this view; in our opinion; in our judgment; in our view; largely; likely; mainly; may; maybe; might; mostly; notion; often; on the whole; ought; partly; perhaps; plausible; plausibly; possible; possibly; postulate; postulated; postulates; presumable; presumably; probable; probably; proposed; quite; rather x; relatively; roughly; seems; should; sometimes; somewhat; suggest; suggested; suggests; suppose; supposed; supposes; suspect; suspects; tend to; tended to; tends to; tentatively; to my knowledge; typical; typically; uncertain; uncertainly; unclear; unclearly; unlikely; usually; virtually; view; would; wouldn't

در حدود؛ تقریباً؛ آشکار؛ ظاهراً؛ به نظر می‌رسد؛ ظاهر شد؛ ظاهر می‌شود؛ تقریباً؛ جر و بحث؛ استدلال کرد؛ استدلال می‌کند؛ دور و بر؛ فرض؛ به طور گسترده؛ مقدار مشخص؛ تا حدودی؛ سطح مشخص؛ ادعا؛ ادعا کرد؛ ادعاها؛ مشترک؛ می‌تواند؛ نمی‌توانست؛ شک؛ مشکوک؛ اساساً؛ تخمین زدن؛ تخمین زده؛ منصفانه؛ احساس؛ احساس می‌کند؛ مکرراً؛ از دیدگاه من؛ از دیدگاه ما؛ از این دیدگاه؛ بطور کلی؛ حدس بزن؛ فرضیه؛ فرضیه؛ نشان می‌دهد؛ نشان داد؛ نشان می‌دهد؛ به طور کلی؛ در بیشتر موارد؛ در بیشتر موارد؛ به نظر من؛ در دید من؛ در این دیدگاه؛ به نظر ما؛ در قضاوت ما؛ به نظر ما؛ تا حد زیادی؛ احتمال دارد؛ به طور عمده؛ ممکن است؛ شاید؛ ممکن؛

اغلب؛ ایده؛ غالباً؛ در کل؛ باید؛ بخشی از؛ شاید؛ محتمل؛ قابل اعتماد؛ ممکن است؛ احتمالاً؛ فرضیه؛ فرضیه؛ پیش بینی‌ها؛ احتمالاً؛ احتمالاً؛ شاید؛ پیشنهاد شده؛ کاملاً؛ به جای X؛ به طور نسبی؛ تقریباً؛ به نظر می‌رسد؛ باید؛ گاه گاهی؛ تاحدی؛ پیشنهاد می‌دهد؛ پیشنهادی؛ حاکی از؛ فرض کنید؛ فرضیه؛ فرض کنید؛ مشکوک؛ مظنونین؛ تمایل دارند؛ تمایل داشت؛ تمایل دارد؛ آزمایشی؛ تا جایی که میدانم؛ معمول؛ معمولاً؛ نامعلوم؛ ناامید کننده؛ غیر واضح؛ نامشخص؛ بعید است؛ معمولاً؛ تقریباً؛ چشم‌انداز؛ آیا؛ نمی‌خواهم

Engagement markers

added; the reader; add; allow; analyse; apply ; arrange; assess; by the way; calculate; choose; classify; compare; connect; consider; consult; contrast; define; demonstrate; do not; develop ; employ; ensure; estimate; evaluate; find; follow; go; have to; imagine; incidentally; increase; input; insert; key; let's

اضافه کرد؛ خواننده؛ اضافه کردن؛ اجازه؛ تجزیه و تحلیل؛ اعمال؛ ترتیب؛ مطرح کردن؛ توسط روش؛ محاسبه؛ انتخاب؛ طبقه‌بندی؛ مقایسه؛ اتصال؛ در نظر؛ مشورت؛ مغایرت؛ تعریف؛ نشان دادن؛ به کار بردن؛ اطمینان؛ برآورد؛ ارزیابی؛ پیدا کردن؛ دنبال کردن؛ برو؛ باید؛ تصور کنید؛ به طور تصادفی؛ افزایش؛ ورودی؛ درج؛ کلید؛ بیابید

Interactive resources

Transition

but; therefore; in addition to these; the comparisons are; equally; comparable; on the other hand; although; while; still; leading to

اما؛ بنابراین؛ علاوه بر این؛ متشابه؛ به طور مساوی؛ در مقایسه؛ از طرف دیگر؛ گر چه؛ در حالیکه؛ هنوز؛ منجر به

Frame markers

Finally; first; first; last; last; second; third; third; start; start; in brief; in brief; in short; now; so far; conclusions; repetitions; summary focus; goal; inactivity; goal; seek; wish; wish

در نهایت؛ ابتدا؛ اول، آخر، دوم؛ بعد؛ سوم؛ شروع؛ به طور خلاصه؛ در حال حاضر؛ تا کنون؛ نتیجه‌گیری؛ تکرار؛ خلاصه؛ تمرکز؛ هدف؛ به دنبال؛ می‌خواهید؛ آرزو

Endophoric markers

X above; x below; x before; x later

X بالا؛ X زیر؛ X قبل؛ X بعد

Evidential

Quotes x; according to; cited

به نقل؛ از نقل قول؛ نقل قول

Code glosses

as a fact; called; defined as; for example; I mean; in fact; in other words; in particular; which means; that means; namely; indeed; known as; put another way; say; such as; that is

در حقیقت؛ نامیده شده؛ تعریف شده است؛ به عنوان مثال؛ منظورم؛ در واقع؛ به عبارت دیگر؛ از جمله؛ به این معنی؛
این به این معنی است؛ مانند گفت؛ در واقع؛ شناخته شده به عنوان؛ به طریق دیگری؛ مثلاً بگویند؛ از قبیل؛ یعنی

Authors' Biographies



Davud Kuhi holds a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics; he is an Assistant Professor at Islamic Azad University, Maragheh Branch. He has been teaching ESP and Discourse Analysis, and his main research interests include Academic Discourse and Genre Analysis.

Mahya Esmailzad holds an M.A. in English Language Teaching from Nabi Akram University College. Her current research covers Discourse Analysis and Genre Analysis.

Shirin Rezaei is a Ph.D. candidate in English Language Teaching at Islamic Azad University, Tabriz Branch. Her major area of research interest includes Discourse Analysis and Genre Analysis.
