



The pragmatic role of meta-discourse markers in the attainment of persuasion: A study of an Iranian newspaper advertisement headlines

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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed at investigating the persuasive role of metadiscourse markers in an Iranian newspaper advertisement headlines; say, *Hamshari*. To achieve the afore-mentioned purpose, the study adopted Fuertes-Olivera, et. al. (2001)'s framework of pragmatic elements of advertising which is, in turn, adapted based on Jakobsonian communication model of the advertising discourse, and Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001)'s framework suggesting different functions of metadiscourse in advertising English. The selected examples showed that while textual metadiscourse helps addressees to interpret headlines within the constraints of genre and epistemology, interpersonal metadiscourse provides a kind of balance between informing and persuading the addressees. Moreover, the findings indicated a variety of metadiscourse strategies used by the advertisers in order to persuade prospective customers, including person markers, hedges, emphatics, endophoric markers and evidents. Regarding pedagogical implications, the present study attempted to broaden the pragmatics of advertising discourse and to stress the important role of metadiscourse in EFL courses.

Indexing terms/Keywords

Metadiscourse; pragmatic; persuasion; advertisement; discourse; headlines.

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1. Introduction

Recently, researchers have shown an increased interest in the study of metadiscourse markers so that it has become one of the major concerns of English language teaching research. (Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Hyland, 1998, 1999, 2004, 2005; Jalilifar & Alipour, 2007; Steffensen & Cheng, 1996). Hyland (1998) defines metadiscourse as “aspects of a text which explicitly organize the discourse, engage the audience, and signal the writer’s attitude” (p. 438). According to Hyland (2005), metadiscourse refers to those aspects of the text writers employ to enhance readers’ understanding of messages and particular conventions in a given context.

Crismore, et al. (1998) contend that “metadiscourse helps to organize word(s) as a coherent text and conveys a writer’s personality, credibility, reader sensitivity and relationship to the message” (p. 1993). Therefore, metadiscourse is not independent of the rhetorical context in which it occurs. Rather, it is considered to be an integral part of the context in which it is used. To be more precise, the study of metadiscourse involves paying attention to the specific norms, conventions and cultural expectations of the particular setting in which it occurs.

Various taxonomies of metadiscourse have been suggested by different authors (Enkvist, 1975;

Vande Kopple, 1985; Beauvais, 1989; Crismore, 1989; Nash, 1992; Mauranen, 1993; Hyland, 1998). However, Hyland (1999) defines textual metadiscourse as the one which is used to “organize propositional information in such a way that will be coherent for a particular audience and appropriate for a given purpose. Devices in this category represent the audience’s presence in the text in terms of the writer’s assessment of its processing difficulties, intertextual requirements and need for interpretative guidance” (p. 7).

In addition, Hyland (1999) states that “Interpersonal metadiscourse allows writers to express a perspective towards their propositional information and their readers. It is essentially an evaluative form of discourse and expresses the writer’s individually defined, but disciplinary circumscribed, *persona*. Metadiscourse therefore relates to the level of personality, or *tenor*, of the discourse and influences such matters as the author’s intimacy and remoteness, expression of attitude, commitment to propositions and degree of reader involvement” (p. 7).

In this vein, the present study adopts Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001)’s framework suggesting different functions of metadiscourse in advertising English. Hyland (1999) contends that in this model “endophoric markers refer to other parts of the text, while evidential markers indicate the source of textual materials” (p. 7).

Given that body text, similar to any running text, is different from headlines, and subheads, which are examples of ‘block language’, here we investigate headlines rather than body text. This is because of the fact that by analyzing body text, conclusions similar to those found about metadiscourse markers will be found. Additionally, the headline is considered to be of prime importance in every print advertisement.

Lowery (2002) suggests that the headline may cause success or failure in the promotion of a product or service. So, as it is the opening line of an advertisement, attempts are made by the authors to make it more lasting and impressing. According to Ogilvy (as cited in Salmon, 2000), “On the average, five times as many people read the headlines as read the body copy. It follows that, unless your headline sells your product, you have wasted 90 percent of your money. (p.1)”

Over the last decade, there has been an increased interest in the study of linguistic and discoursal features of print advertising. A variety of studies have been conducted regarding advertising language. (Leech, 1966; Williamson, 1978; Dyer, 1982; Vestergaard and Schroder, 1985; Jhally, 1987; Kress, 1987; Leiss et al., 1988; Cook, 1992; Goldman, 1992; Myers, 1994; Campos Pardilos, 1994; Forceville, 1996; Rush, 1998; Peiia Perez, 1999; Velasco Sacristan, 1999).

In order to ensure rhetorical objectives, an orientation towards the readers seem to be necessary in print advertising. Basically, the genre of advertising aims to promote some product and/or service to the general public. Actually, advertisements are comprised of verbal and iconic elements which are employed to affect the addressee.

According to Myers (1994), one could distinguish three different periods in advertising. The characteristic feature of the early period in the 1980s was to get the customer’s attention. The second period extended from 1920s to 1960s, and was characterized by associating social meanings and images with the brands and products. Finally, the last period, which runs from 1960s to present, has enjoyed humor, play, ironies, juxtaposition, and parodies.

Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001) hold that “in these periods, copywriters had to organize their ads into meaningful patterns for their audience” (p. 1294). So, the sense of audience seems to be critical for the copywriters, since they have to manipulate information so as to persuade the audiences. . Hatim (1990) suggests that “In text-typological terms, the advertisement seems to be better represented as a continuum of text functions fluctuating between ‘informing’ and ‘manipulating’” (p.117).

Additionally, Connor (1996) proposes that newspaper discourse can be considered as “one of the most adequate examples of persuasive writing in all countries, setting standards for written persuasion” (p. 143). Successful advertising persuades the prospective customers to buy by using a variety of strategies, including verbal and non-verbal metaphors (Forceville, 1996; Velasco Sacristan, 1999), and equating ads to informal conversation (Myers, 1994). Besides, to persuade, writers need to construct a textual persona by developing an appropriate attitude towards their readers. In the creation of this textual persona, metadiscourse is of prime importance.

Furthermore, Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001) contend that the idea of ‘participation’ necessitates the presence of participant-oriented functions. As Halliday (1994) states, function has different senses in the technical discourse of linguistics. Firstly, it is considered to be a ‘key signature’ which is a characteristic feature of a particular text. Secondly, it



might be a principle used to technicalize specific categories in the description of grammar. Last, it might be a feature of the linguistic system. Here, we are concerned with the language in use.

However, so far, very few studies have been conducted concerning the discourse of advertising in relation to linguistics. Therefore, the present study is an attempt to investigate the role of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the attainment of persuasion in an Iranian newspaper advertisement headlines.

To achieve the aforementioned purpose, this study adopts (Fuentes-Olivera, Velasco-Sacristan, Arribas-Btío, & Samaniego-Ferntidez, 2001)'s framework which is adapted based on Jakobsonian communication model of the advertising discourse.

1.1. Research Questions

Therefore, the present study is an attempt to answer the following research question:

1. What is the role of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the attainment of persuasion in an Iranian newspaper advertisement headlines?

2. Literature Review

Over the past few decades, there has been a dramatic interest in the studies concerning the discourse of advertisements, so that the literature abounds with these studies (Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Dor, 2003; Fuentes-Olivera, et. al., 2001; Le, 2004; Mardh's, 1980; Rush, 1998; Simpson, 2001; Straumann, 1935; Velasco Sacristan, 2006, 2009).

In an early study, Rush (1998) attempted to provide a formal description of two unusual features of the noun phrase in English print advertising: its ability to operate as an independent clause in all areas of an ad — headline, subhead, signature line and text — and its complex premodifying structures in Canadian and American newspapers and magazines, which were mainly published between 1993–1996.

The results of the study indicated that premodification in the noun phrase is achieved through the abundant use of comparative and superlative adjectives and colourful compounds, and by the tendency to place the product (or trade) name in first or early position in lengthy designations. The results also suggested that this last feature disrupts the traditional word-order of premodifying adjectives in the noun phrase.

In a similar vein, Fuentes-Olivera, et. al. (2001) examined samples of advertisement from a typical women's magazine; say, *Cosmopolitan*, under the assumption that advertising English should be represented as a continuum of text functions fluctuating between 'informing' and 'manipulating' in accordance with the idea that advertising is an example of covert communication. The findings of the study showed that both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse help copywriters to convey a persuasive message under an informative mask.

Likewise, Simpson (2001) investigated certain pragmatic features of advertising discourse, elaborating upon a binary distinction between reason (cognitive) and tickle (communicative) types of advertising discourse which was proposed initially by Bernstein (1974). Drawing on a range of work in pragmatics and in systemic-functional linguistics, he developed a theoretical model which accounted for this particular communicative-cognitive dimension of advertising discourse.

In an empirical study conducted in the news-desk of one daily newspaper, Dor (2003) suggested an explanatory functional characterization of newspaper headlines, conducted within Sperber and Wilson's (1986) *relevance* theory. The results proposed that the set of intuitive professional imperatives, shared by news-editors and copy-editors can naturally be reduced to the notion of relevance optimization. What's more, the results account for an understanding of the readers in order to construct a successful headline —their state-of-knowledge, their beliefs and expectations and their cognitive styles—no less than an understanding of the story.

Le (2004) investigated how the elite newspaper, *Le Monde*, constructs active participation within its editorials' argumentation to establish its authority. He found that active participation is revealed through the analysis of three metadiscursive categories, evidentials, person markers and relational markers, in connection with the editorials' argumentative structure. The findings also revealed that the role of context in the use of evidentials, person markers and relational markers in editorials should be underlined; the question of a theoretical framework for media audience could be raised; and the role of world guardian of "Truth, Justice, Reason and Universality" that is apparent in *Le Monde's* polyphonic discourse might be critically questioned.

In a recent study, Dafouz-Milne (2008) explored the role of metadiscourse markers in the construction and attainment of persuasion in two elite newspapers, the British *The Times* and the Spanish *El País*. A corpus of 40 opinion columns, 20 written in English and 20 in Spanish, were selected for the purpose of the study. Findings of the study revealed that both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers were present in English and Spanish newspaper columns, but that there were variations as to the distribution and composition of such markers, specifically in the case of certain textual categories (i.e. logical markers and code glosses). The results, in addition, suggested that a balanced number of both textual and interpersonal markers was necessary to render the text persuasive and reader-oriented.

In sum, though a variety of studies have been done to investigate the discourse of advertisements in EFL contexts, very few studies have been conducted concerning the role of metadiscourse markers in advertisements in the EFL contexts. So, the present study attempts to investigate the persuasive role of metadiscourse markers in advertisement headlines in an Iranian newspaper.

3. Method

3.1. Materials

The materials consisted of 125 advertisement headlines from *Hamshahri* newspaper which is considered to be one of the most widely read newspapers in Iran.

3.2. Data Collection

The initial data consisted of a total of 100 advertisement headlines collected from the online archives of *Hamshahri*, from which only 38 were selected randomly for the purpose of the study. The data collection was conducted in April 2014 and the advertisements were published in the period between 2013 and 2014.

3.4. Design

To achieve the aforementioned purpose, this study adopts Fuertes-Olivera, et. al. (2001)'s framework of pragmatic elements of advertising which is, in turn, adapted based on Jakobsonian communication model of the advertising discourse. This model supposes a high degree of correspondence between the participants of an ideal communication model and those in the genre of advertising (fig. 1).

Fig. 1. Pragmatic elements of advertising communication



As fig. 1 presents, there is a relationship between the functions of language and advertising pragmatics. As Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001) suggest, "To highlight a particular function of language, linguistic prominence should be given to the corresponding pragmatic element" (p.1293). This strategy appears to be of prime importance in advertising, since according to Tanaka (1994), this genre is an instance of covert communication which is defined as a "case of communication where the intention of the speaker is to alter the cognitive environment of the hearer, i.e. to make a set of assumptions more manifest to her, without making this intention mutually manifest" (p. 41). Therefore, the responsibility for implications of socially loaded topics such as sex, gender, taboos might be bypassed by employing covert communication strategies. Furthermore, the present study adopts Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001)'s framework suggesting different functions of metadiscourse in advertising English. presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Functions of metadiscourse in advertising English (headlines and/or slogans)

Category Function	
Textual metadiscourse	
Endophoric markers	Interrelate pictures with words
Evidentials	Establish intertextuality
Interpersonal metadiscourse	
Person markers	Explicit reference to advertisers
Hedges	Make indirect reference to the qualities of the products
Emphatics	Mitigate the consumers' moral dilemma
Examples	
I/we/my/	
can't/maybe/sort of/just	
wonderfully/enchanting	

As Table 1 reveals, different functions of metadiscourse in advertising English. Hyland (1999) contends that “endophoric markers refer to other parts of the text, while evidential markers indicate the source of textual materials” (p. 7).

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Interpersonal metadiscourse in headlines

Hyland (1998) holds that interpersonal metadiscourse directs readers' attention towards the writer's stance to both the propositional content and the readers themselves, hence establishing a writer-reader relationship. Halliday (1994) suggests that the interpersonal function of language allows users to communicate with each other. Therefore, metadiscourse is considered to be interactive, evaluative, and expressive of a writer's *persona*, characterized by vocatives, mood options, and modality.

Interpersonal function, also determines the type of relationship the writer wants to establish with the reader either choosing a style with a strong or remote persona. Nonetheless, in advertising, the addressers and addressees do not interact in a real communicative situation, so it appears that in order to code this relationship, copywriters make use of person markers, hedges, and emphatics. Consequently, the authors try to make a balance between informing and persuading in order to prevent addressees from distrusting them.

4.1.1. Person markers

Generally speaking, person markers highlight the author's presence in a text, judged by the frequency of pronouns and possessives. According to Hyland (1994), “person markers reflect the importance of degree of presence of the author in contributing to variability in tenor of a text” (p.444). Ads usually give the impression that they are addressing a customer personally, by means of pronouns.

Personal pronouns usually make the advertisements more human. The text would be more attractive, pleasant, and meaningful to the reader by identifying specific people and groups. In the discourse of advertising, ‘you’ marks either a one-to-one relationship (specific you in the text) or general assumptions (empty, general you). Moreover, the pronoun ‘you’ enables the author involve the readers and makes them responsible for what they are reading. Furthermore, Shared knowledge between the author and the reader is marked by the use of ‘He’, ‘she’, ‘it’, and ‘they’.

The pronouns ‘I’ and ‘we’ might also be employed to include or exclude the addressee. In the metadiscourse taxonomy proposed in **Table 1**, the pronouns ‘I’ and ‘we’ (and the corresponding my, mine, us, our, me, ours) are used to relate the product/service to the company. As a result, one can say that copywriters rely on a variety of strategies. For instance, these personal pronouns might establish a sense of solidarity with the prospective consumer, by portraying advertisers themselves as members of the target group. In other words, they may help copywriters to personalize the advertisers themselves. The examples of this solidarity building strategy are as follows:

1. æz etemadê shoma sepasgozarim. (We are grateful for your trust).
2. Mæhsolate xod ra tablo konid. (Make your products famous)
3. Negarane rezoomêh xod nabashid. (Don't worry about your resume').
4. Beh ideh hayeh xod jan dahid. (Give life to your ideas).
5. Ma barayeh agahiyeh shoma hazineh mikonim. (We spend money to aware you).



6. Maxsose moshkel pæsandān. (Specially designed for choosy customers).
7. Xarid væ foroshe motmaene aparteman. (Buy and sell your apartment safely).
8. Ba moshahedeh nemone karhayeh ma tafavot ra ehsas konid. (Feel the difference, by viewing our samples).
9. Hadafe ma tæhæqoqe royaye shomast. (Our purpose is to make your dreams come true).
10. Saxteh Iran, Kare mæn, sarmayeh mæn, keshvareh mæn. (Made in Iran, my work, my fund, my country).

What's more, Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001) believe that personal pronouns may help prospective costumers associate the products with established cultural beliefs and customs, either by reinforcing these established stereotypes or breaking them.

Example (11) involves a woman and a restaurant, in line with gender stereotypes claiming that women are the best chefs. However, the afore-mentioned example also breaks the stereotype claiming that men are the best managers in Iran. Example (11) features the idea that the French technology, telephone, is the most advanced. Example (13) breaks the stereotype by claiming that having a good camera doesn't mean that you are a good photographer. The examples are as follows:

11. Behtarin resturan ba ghazahaye khanegi ba modiriate xanom. (The best restaurant for home-made food with female management).
12. Zerafat va technology pishrafte farance ba telephon haye edarie Alcatel. (Subtlety and advanced French technology with Alcatel telephones).
13. Akkasi faqat dashtaneh dorbinah xob nist. (Photography is not just about having a good camera).

4.1.2. Hedges

The literature abounds with the studies concerning the role of hedges in spoken and written discourse (Crismore and Vande Kopple, 1997; Crompton, 1997, 1998; Hyland, 1998; Markkanen and Schroeder, 1997; Salager-Meyer, 1994). According to Fraser (2010), hedging appears to be a rhetorical strategy that attenuates either the full semantic value of a particular expression, as in 'He's sort of nice', or the full force of a speech act, as in 'I must ask you to stop doing that'. So, as a rhetorical strategy, hedging signals the author's lack of commitment either to the category membership of an expression in the utterance or to the illocutionary force of the utterance.

Hedging seems to be an intentional action of the speaker to affect the interpretation of the utterance by choosing a linguistic device over the propositional content of the message, either by modifying the content of the utterance or its illocutionary force. Therefore, hedges are linguistic devices – items such as possible, perhaps, and just– which highlight the author's reluctance to present or evaluate the content categorically.

In advertising English, authors take advantage of hedges in order to refer to the qualities of the goods indirectly. Hence, authors prefer to employ hedges in the discourse of advertisements in an indirect fashion. Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001) propose that "hedges are indicative of the degree of tentativeness, possibility and/or politeness copywriters use in their messages" (p. 1299).

Social conventions usually causes authors to rely on hedges as a way of being indirect, rather than straightforward.

Furthermore, hedging is context-dependent, that is hedges are dependent upon the communicative context or co-text. Clemen (1997) contends that linguistic items are not inherently hedges, but can be considered as hedges depending upon the context of situation. As Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001) argue, in advertising English, hedges are used to accomplish a variety of functions: First, hedges help authors to persuade the prospective customers, to reinforce the truth value of the content, and to say what the product is or does by relating it to shared knowledge. Some instances of this kind of hedging in advertisements are presented below:

14. Faqat barayeh shik poshan. (Just for chic and stylish people).
15. Vizayeh chin faqat 3 roze kari. (Visa for China just in 3 working days).
16. Hæta ægær kashte mo dashtid be markaze ma sær bezænid. (Even though you had hair transplant operation, come to our beauty clinic).
17. Aya emkane yadgirie zæbane englisi be ræveshe poya vojod daræd? (Is it possible to learn English more dynamically?)
18. Hæргеz sæfær nækonid, mægær ba 20 gæst. (Just travel with 20gasht travel agency).

Second, hedges might cast some doubt on the truth value of advertisement headlines. The following example is representative of this kind of hedging:

19. Jævan tær hæstid, momken æst æz mæhsolate zibayie ma estefade kærde bashid. (You are younger, you may use our beauty products).



In the above-mentioned example, 'may' helps the potential consumers make appropriate sense of the messages based on the context, rather than relying on the surface, literal meaning of the utterances. As a result, 'you are younger' is interpreted as 'although you are not young, our products are of such quality that they help you look younger'.

Third, hedges are employed by the authors to assure customers that they do not want to limit their freedom to choose. Brown and Levinson (1987) suggest that "Negative politeness is essentially avoidance-based, and realizations of negative politeness strategies consist in assurances that the speaker recognizes and respects the addressee's freedom of action" (p. 75). Myers (1989) proposes that "in scientific articles, modals are commonly used to achieve negative politeness, especially in conditional sentences" (p. 13). However, Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001) contend that "in advertisement headlines, modals typically mix epistemic possibility and necessity" (p. 1301).

Epistemic modality is concerned with the author's evaluation of the degree of confidence in, or belief of the knowledge underlying a proposition. Expressions of epistemic modality mark the necessity/possibility of an underlying propositional content. On the one hand, epistemic possibility is associated with what we know about the world, usually used in situations of uncertainty. So, using epistemic possibility authors indicate that that they do not know that the proposition is false.

On the other hand, epistemic necessity concerns with the 'must' of certainty. In other words, epistemic necessity is used to indicate that authors, based on the knowledge they have, cannot accept possibilities regarding the untruth of the proposition. Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001) believe that "by means of epistemic necessity authors imply that their message is true and should be considered so on the basis of their expert knowledge" (p. 1301). The following examples show this use of hedging:

20. Forsæt ra æz dæst nædæhid. (You can't miss this opportunity).

21. (Behtærin restorane hendi dær Tehran. (You can't imagine a better Indian restaurant in Tehran).

22. Ba qeimæt hayeh bavær nækærdæni. (You can't believe the prices).

4.1.3. Emphatics

Emphatics help the reader understand the degree of writer's claims and force of writer's certainty and the force of propositional content in expressions such as in fact, definitely, it is obvious, of course, pure, and incredible. As Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001) contend, "the potential consumers should be given 'information' to overcome the kind of moral dilemma they face when confronted with the possibility of acquiring something they do not really need" (p. 1301).

So, in order to mitigate the effect of this burden, authors take advantage of adjectives, adverbs, or phrases which have an intensifying effect on proposition they modify. So, by highlighting the characteristic features of the goods as certain and necessary, they persuade prospective customers to buy their products.

23. Bi shak ma ærzantærinim. (Undoubtedly, it is the cheapest).

24. Dizain foqladeh. (Incredible design).

25. Mojeze dær amozesh (Miracle in teaching).

26. In yek vaqeiæte mæhz æst. (This is a pure fact).

5.2. Textual metadiscourse in headlines

Hyland (1998) defines textual metadiscourse as devices which help readers recover the author's intentions by establishing appropriate interpretations of propositional meanings. Therefore, textual metadiscourse consist of devices which form a coherent text by relating individual propositions both to each other and to other texts. Though Hyland (1998) referred to logical connectives, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, and glosses involved in textual metadiscourse, not all of these features are found in advertising English, since this genre restricts rhetorical choices, which are, in turn, restricted by the existing value and belief systems in the author's community.

In recent years, more advertisements have taken the audience position into consideration.

Myers (1994) states that a crucial change occurred in the history of advertising, when the advertisers took into consideration not only the product's virtues, but also offering possible new positions to the customer. Authors usually achieve this purpose, by using various strategies, including: endophoric markers and evidentials.

5.2.1. Endophoric markers

Endophoric markers can be defined as expressions that refer to other parts of the text. These markers help make additional ideational material more understandable to the reader. So, endophoric markers promote the addressee's understanding of the author's argumentative intentions. As a consequence, readers might be directed towards the author's preferred interpretation of the utterances.

In advertising English; however, endophoric markers are used in pictures to texts relationships, in which the audience is considered to be passive. But, Myers (1994) argues that pictures involve the audiences in creating messages, implying that the picture to text relationship is that of persuasion, rather than illustration. Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001) claim that "this relationship is a metadiscourse strategy which offers metatextual information at the most abstract level" (p.



1303). In the following examples, authors associate the information with cultural values or celebrities in order to persuade potential consumers to buy the products.

27. Banke pasargad, Sepordeyeh hamie time melie fotbale iran. (Psaragad bank, deposit to support Iranian national football team). (The picture of Iran's national team).

28. Por moxatæb tærin mæjæleh sæfær væ Iranshenasi. (The most widely read magazine of travel and Iranian studies). (The picture of Ferdowsi).

5.2.2. Evidentials

Evidentials refer to the source of information from other texts, rather than in the text itself. In academic English, evidentials are used to provide support for authors' arguments, hence promoting stronger and more plausible argumentative propositions. In advertising, evidentials establish intertextuality in order to persuade potential consumers. To achieve this purpose, advertisers must rely on famous texts, because this relationship is not worded. Headlines take advantage of different strategies to indicate intertextuality: First, they might include patterns of a regular kind, just like the lines of a poem:

29. Dær amæde milioni, særamyeh ændæk.

30. Yadgiryeh asan. (Easy to learn).

31. Foroshe asan. (Easy sale).

Second, headlines might follow the way in which leaflets and brochures provide instructions:

32. Tæg ha ya hæman sensorhayeh lebas bærayeh mohafezæte lebas æz serqæt dær foroshgah ha estefade mishævæd. (Tags or clothes' sensors are used for clothes' protection against stealing in the stores).

33. Bish æz 50% æz zibayie shoma be modele mohayetan bæstegi daræd. Mohayeh fer shoma ra zibatær mikonæd. (over 50% of your beauty depends on your hairstyle. Curly hairstyle makes you look better).

34. Jelogiri æz mæzærate kampioter ba einæk haye mæxsose kampioter. (Prevention of computer disadvantages by using special computer glasses).

What's more, headlines might look like ceremonies in which someone or something is introduced:

35. Rezhim hayeh kaheshe væzne Dr. Ræfiqi. (Dr. Rafiqi's diets of weight loss).

36. Einæke aftabie PORSCHE DESIGN. (PORSCHE DESIGN's glasses).

37. Xaride kæfsh æz klarke lændæn. (Buy shoes from London Clark).

38. Sinke doqoloyeh axavan. (Axavan twin sinks).

6. Conclusions

The present study was an attempt to investigate the role of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the attainment of persuasion in an Iranian newspaper advertisement headlines; say, *Hamshahri*. The results indicated that interpersonal metadiscourse might establish solidarity between the advertisers and the prospective consumers, is context dependent, and is linked to the established cultural beliefs and values.

The results; moreover, suggested that textual metadiscourse makes additional ideational material more understandable to the reader, works within the constraints of genre, forms coherent texts, and establishes intertextuality. The findings of the study also proposed that while textual metadiscourse helps addressees to interpret headlines within the constraints of genre and epistemology, interpersonal metadiscourse provides a kind of balance between informing and persuading the addressees.

The results also showed that print advertising as a type of covert communication approach enables the speaker to transform the cognitive environment of the addressee, by intentionally manifesting a set of assumptions more than the others. As a result, it seems that in print advertising, taking the role of the addressee into consideration is of prime importance, since cognitive transmission relies on the addressee's ability/failure to infer the author's argumentative intentions.

Moreover, the findings indicated a variety of metadiscourse strategies used by the advertisers in order to persuade prospective customers, including person markers, hedges, emphatics, endophoric markers and evidents. Regarding pedagogical implications, the present study attempted to broaden the pragmatics of advertising discourse and to indicate the important role of metadiscourse in an EFL context.

To be more precise, teachers should study more about metadiscourse and the way it is used in a variety of contexts, and in turn, they should help students not only how to recognize, but also use metadiscourse. So, metadiscourse markers should be employed in EFL classes, because they are considered to be characteristic features of a variety of texts, including advertisement discourse.



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