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The Asian ESP Journal

The Asian ESP Journal

November 2007

Volume 3, Issue 2

Editors: Paul Robertson and John Adamson

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The Asian ESP Journal: Volume 3, Number 2

Published by the Asian ESP Journal Press

Asian ESP Journal Press
A Division of Time Taylor International Ltd
Trustnet Chambers
P.O. Box 3444
Road Town, Tortola
British Virgin Islands

<http://www.asian-esp-journal.com>
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linguisticsj@yahoo.com

Editors: Dr. Paul Robertson and Dr. John Adamson
Journal Production Editor: Marcus Otlowski

ISSN On-line 1833-3001
ISSN Print 1833-2994

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Table of Contents:

Foreword by Yong Chen 4-5

1. Ali Jahangard 6-23
- *Which Word Types (Technical or General) are more Difficult to Retain by the Iranian High School Learners?*

2. Gholam Reza Zarei and Sara Mansoori 24-40
- *Metadiscourse in Academic Prose:
A Contrastive Analysis of English and Persian Research Articles*

3. Farzaneh Khodabadeh 41-64
- *A Contrastive Analysis of Rhetorical Figures in English and Persian Advertisements*

4. Ruth Ming Har Wong..... 65-82
- *Motivation and Strategies to Learn English:
The Case of Pre-service Teachers of Chinese*

5. Carmella Lieske 83-97
- *Japanese Nursing College Students' Use of English Outside of the Classroom*

Foreword to November 2007, Volume 3 Issue 2

Foreword:

In the Autumn edition of 2007, we are pleased to publish five articles for our Asian ESP readers. These articles present a diversity of topics in relation to ESP, from analysis of metadiscourse element application in research articles, rhetorical study in advertisements, investigation into technical vocabulary retention to learners' learning motivation, strategies and outside classroom English application. Two articles discuss a comparison and contrast of English and local languages for specific purposes. They all reflect the authors' critical views on ESP research and pedagogy.

The first article by Ali Jahangard presents a study of learners' memory for the retention of technical and general vocabulary. The investigation results revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the learners' performance on the tasks of technical vocabulary retention and general vocabulary retention. Thus, author argues that ESP instruction could commence right from the beginning levels of language teaching, which could be cost and time effective for all the stake holders. However, the author also realized that the implementation of this idea needed further research.

The second paper from Gholam Reza Zarei, Isfahan University of Technology, Iran and Sara Mansoori, Islamic Najafabad Azad University, Iran, is based on a research which tried to find out "how English and Persian make use of metadiscourse elements and whether the two languages differed in using metadiscourse resources in academic texts". The study used a corpus of research articles in both languages and found both languages used interactive resources more than interactional resources. The article concludes "metadiscourse provides a link between texts and community cultures, defining the rhetorical context which is created to conform to the expectations of the audience for whom the text is written". Based on their findings from the research in two languages, the authors stated that "various discourse communities may need to opt for one or another rhetorical pattern in the case of having certain readership". Through a comparison and contrast of metadiscourse functions between two languages, the authors have scrutinized the social-cultural differences in academic presentation in two languages, which may have some implication in other settings.

Farzaneh Khodabadeh, in the third article, also conducts a contrastive analysis, in this case of rhetorical devices of advertisements in two languages, English and Persian. The data analysis was conducted to look at advertising headlines at rhetorical figures, which revealed more similarities than differences in application of rhetoric figures in two languages. In addition, the author studied the stylistic features of slogans across the two languages which revealed the preference of stylistic devices, such as rhyme, phrase and simple sentences, in advertisements application in both languages. The study helps to understand how a particular discourse is able to influence an audience. In addition, the comparison leads to a discussion of cultural and communication differences and similarities. The paper finally claims the research may have “pedagogical implications for teaching journalistic English, translation and increasing learners’ cultural awareness”.

The fourth article by Ruth Ming Har Wong focuses on a study of motivation and strategies of non-English major pre-service teachers. The author found from the study that the participants have both instrumental and integrative motivation to learn English because the achievement of high proficiency in English benefits future promotion and professional development. The findings indicate passive learning strategies by the learners and suggest an emphasis on authentic language use in the classroom, which might encourage learners to learn more positively. In the acquisition-poor language classroom environment, authentic materials may be a good aid to language learners.

The fifth article for this edition from Carmella Lieske reports on a pilot study of English use outside the classroom by nursing college students. The findings from the study illustrate that over three-quarters of the students enjoy speaking English, listening to music or watching movies in English. This article outlines the pedagogical implications of creating enjoyable learning activities to help learners discover the pleasure in learning and using English not only in class, but also outside. However, this study has not yet explored the definitive reasons for each student’s choice of English application, possibly opening avenues for new areas of research for our readers.

We hope you enjoy this edition of *Asian ESP Journal* and that it provides some new views on ESP research and pedagogy.

Yong Chen
Associate Editor
Asian ESP Journal

Which Word Types (Technical or General) are more Difficult to Retain by the Iranian High School Learners?

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Abstract

This study was carried out to investigate the learners' memory for the retention of technical and general vocabulary. The participants in this study were 33 Iranian language learners of an all-boy high school, aging between 16 and 18. They were all in their third year of studying Mathematics/Physics as their major field of study. They had been exposed to 264 hours of formal instruction in English as a foreign language at high schools in Iran. Two word lists of general vocabulary and technical vocabulary were used in two phases in the study. The results revealed that ($t = 1.314$, d.f. = 33, $\alpha = .05$, t -critical = 1.697) there was no statistically significant difference between the group's performance on the tasks of immediate technical vocabulary retention ($m = 34.41$) and immediate general vocabulary retention ($m = 35.91$). Likewise, no statistically significant results were found between the learners' delayed retention of technical and general vocabulary. The obtained t -value from the comparison of the two means was ($t = 437$, $\alpha = .05$, d.f. = 33). A detailed discussion of the results of the study is also included.

Key words: Vocabulary learning/teaching, Intentional vocabulary learning, EAP, ESP.

Introduction

According to McCarthy (1990), "No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way" (p. viii). Nation & Coady (1988,

p. 98), say that “vocabulary knowledge would seem to be the most clearly identifiable subcomponent of the ability to read”, and they quote Yap (1979, p.51) who concludes that “causal links probably do exist between vocabulary and comprehension and that vocabulary is likely to be the predominant causal factor”. Lewis (1993, p. 17) says that “vocabulary (or lexis) carries more of the meaning of a text than does the grammar”, and that “recent research suggests that using lexical items as pattern generators is more helpful than restricting that role to grammatical forms” (ibid., p. 5).

One of the distinguishing characteristics which make ESP distinct from other approaches to language pedagogy is its emphasis on the learner’s needs (Robison, 1991). In fact, what learners identify as their needs in language learning can be recognized as the final objectives in syllabus designing and implementation for the ESP practitioners. If we approach language teaching in high schools from the same perspective, we must answer the question of whether concerns for the learners’ needs should be taken into consideration in the processes of syllabus design and implementation or not. The answer to this question is obviously ‘yes’ in that, the same logic that entails different ESP materials for different groups of learners holds true for high schools as well. In Iranian high schools students are enrolled into three major fields of study, namely Literature and Human Sciences, Natural Sciences, and Mathematical/Physical Sciences, on the basis of the learners’ personal interests and the scores they have obtained in the previous grades of education. The educational programs for these major fields of study are designed so that the learners get prepared to continue their studies in the related fields in the universities in the future. The high school programs seem to be ‘preparatory’ in the sense that the final educational objectives have been planned to be achieved in the universities rather than the high schools. Consequently, language pedagogy, in line with general educational curriculum, should find its final goals achieved in the universities.

If we examine the text types the students study in different university fields of inquiry, we may find several genres. The texts that, e.g., a student of philosophy studies, is different in terms of (style, rhetorical organization, frequency of certain grammatical patterns, technical vocabulary, etc.) from the texts that a student of, e.g., civil engineering studies. Therefore, the students who study Mathematical/Physical Sciences at the high schools now will study different subject matters and texts from the student of Literature and the Humanities in the future at the universities. Thus, it appears fairly unjustifiable to teach the same books to the students from different fields of study with different needs. I recommend that materials which are compatible with their future communication needs be developed. In fact, for every one of the fields of study at high schools, separate books with relevant contents should be developed so that the high school students can get familiar with the related text types they will have to deal with in the near future at the at the university level. There are many

features that characterize the features of a specific text type. One of the features that distinguishes one text type from other text types might be the specialist vocabulary contained in them. “For many people vocabulary, particularly specialist vocabulary (or terminology), is a key element of ESP (Robinson, 1991, p. 27). Phillips (1985, 1989) argues for consideration of the subject-specific vocabulary of a text, since this is what develops the unique ‘aboutness’ of the text, that is, its unique message. However, it might be argued that if the general topic texts in the EFL materials at high schools are replaced with the specialist texts, language learning may be hindered by the more difficult technical words included in them. In this study I attempt to compare the learners’ retention of specialist and general vocabulary. The purpose is to see whether the word type variable has any significant effect on the performance of the subjects on word retention tests in the study.

Literature Review

Single words are conventionally learned in lists of paired words or ‘paired associates’. The lists contain a word from the target language, either a synonym in that target language or a translation in the mother tongue, and these are sometimes accompanied by a picture or some means of graphical representation. Relevant research (e.g. Kellogg & Howe, 1971) suggests that such procedures are usefully complementary. By such means, as Nation (1990) reports, large numbers of words are learned directly and, given sufficient repetition, retained. For example, research by Crothers & Suppes (1967) revealed that seven repetitions were sufficient for learners to master 108 new Russian-English word pairs and that 80 per cent of a further 216 word pairs were learned by most of the control group of learners after only *six repetitions* [emphasis is mine]. Based on this research I had the subjects repeat the words in the list 6 times in the experimentation phase of the study.

Intentional vocabulary learning can take place in a wide variety of instructional settings. A continuing debate among teachers and learners concerns the questions of (i) whether it is better to learn words in monolingual (i.e., new L2 item explained with familiar L2 item) or bilingual (i.e., new L2 item explained with L1 translation) lists, and (ii) whether it is better to present new words in context or in isolation (i.e., word list format). A classic study addressing the former issue is that by Oskarsson (1975), who presented adult Swedish learners of English with texts containing unfamiliar target words glossed either in English (monolingual glosses) or in Swedish (bilingual glosses). Students knew in advance that they would later be tested on their word knowledge. Retention over all groups and texts consistently favored the bilingual condition (with an average retention score of 18.6, over an average of 14.7 in the monolingual condition, out of a maximum of 35). Studies addressing the latter issue, context or no context (Grace, 1998; Lawson & Hogben, 1996; Mondria & Wit-de

Boer, 1991; Prince, 1996; Qian, 1996; Seibert, 1930), have obtained mixed results, probably due to the fact that, as Nation (1982) and Nagy (1997) have pointed out, context is a multifaceted construct. Tinkham (1993), Waring (1998), and Schneider, Healy, & Bourne (1998) investigated whether it is good practice, as dictated by most L2 teaching materials, to have learners study lists of semantically related items (such as words for clothes) or whether it is better to have students learn lists of unrelated words. In all three studies it was found that presenting words in semantic clusters interferes with learning (see also Royer, 1973).

The intentional learning paradigm, in which participants are instructed to learn verbal information in association with other verbal or non-verbal (e.g., pictorial) information, offers an ideal testing ground for theories of the organization of the mental lexicon, monolingual as well as bilingual. Research in this vast area, mainly conducted in the laboratories of psychology departments and published in psychology journals, is reviewed by, for instance, Kroll and De Groot (1997). Recently, Lotto & De Groot (1998) examined the roles of learning method (translation vs. picture), word frequency, and cognate status. During the learning phase of the experiment, 80 L2 words were presented in three rounds, with either their L1 translation or a picture. During the test, which measured productive L2 vocabulary knowledge, either the pictures or the L1 translations constituted the cues for recall of the L2 words. The results showed that the translation learning condition resulted in better recall performance than the picture condition, and cognates and high-frequency words were easier to learn than non-cognates and low-frequency words (see also Ellis & Beaton, 1993). Kroll, Michael, & Sankaranarayanan (1998) investigated L2 vocabulary learning under conditions differing in the allowance of L1 word mediation and concept mediation. The results show that, *even when semantic (pictorial) information is salient, learners are likely to rely on mediation via L1*. [emphasis is mine]. In contrast, the presence of novel perceptual information (pictures were presented in a non-canonical, upside-down format) appears to benefit vocabulary learning. On the basis of their results, the authors hypothesize that “adding a unique cue in memory during L2 learning later facilitates the ability to think conceptually in the second language, as long as the cue can be associated to an already familiar concept” (Kroll, Michael, & Sankaranarayanan, 1998, p. 390).

The results of vocabulary-learning experiments whose design includes immediate but no delayed post-tests often are met with skepticism from teachers as well as researchers. They question the validity and relevance for L2 instruction studies showing that, after a single incidental or intentional learning session, method A yields higher retention rates than method B. They tend to dismiss results of such studies unless delayed post-tests, administered after days, weeks, or even months, reveal that

method A remains superior to B (Hulstijn, 2003, p.371). To tackle such a problem in the present study, I included a delayed post test for both of the word types.

The research raises generally unanswered questions about word ‘difficulty’ and translation, *types* of repetition, whether the learning leads primarily to active or passive knowledge, length of retention, and so on; but it does serve to underline that quantities of initial vocabulary can be learned both efficiently and quickly and by methods such as rote rehearsal which are not always considered to be respectable.

Learning vocabulary effectively is closely bound up with a teacher’s understanding of, and a learner’s perception of, the *difficulties* of words. According to Carter (1998, p.195) the difficulty of a word may result, *inter alia*, from the relations it can be seen to contract with other words either in the native or target language whether it is learned productively or receptively; as well as from its polysemy, the associations it creates, its pronouncibility, whether it lends itself to keyword teaching techniques and, in the case of advanced learners, from the nature of the contexts in which it is encountered.

The kinds of interplay between these and other complex factors cannot be adequately explored here. Instead, there will be an emphasis on early learning and on the kinds of ‘language-internal’ difficulties resulting from the forms of words and how these might be best presented. The emphasis on word-form is given because much research has highlighted this as a significant factor in learnability. Consideration of form is discussed here because one important element in learning new words is the degree of effective formal linking learners can establish between a word in the target language and a cognate word in the mother tongue. Indeed, according to research by Craik & Lockhart (1972), oral repetition is not necessarily an effective way of assimilating new words; recalling the form of a word is found to be more productive. Research reported in Nation (1982, p. 18) suggests that similarities in sound, morphology or etymology can assist word memorization.

Vocabulary studies and, in particular, the teaching of vocabulary appear to have been somewhat neglected in ESP (see Laufer, 1989; Swales, 1983). In this study an attempt was made to investigate the learners’ vocabulary retention of technical and general vocabulary to see for which category of words they have a more effective memory.

Research Questions

1. Is the Mathematical/Physical Sciences group’s performance on the *immediate* retention test on physics terminology equal to their performance on the *immediate* retention test on general vocabulary?

2. Is the Mathematical/Physical Sciences group's performance on the *delayed* retention test on physics terminology equal to their performance on the *delayed* retention test on general vocabulary?
3. Is there any relationship between the subjects' performance on the technical vocabulary and the general vocabulary tests?

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were 33 Iranian language learners of an all-boy high school, aging between 16 and 18, in Karaj- a city in the province of Tehran. They were all in their third year studying Mathematics/Physics at high school. The materials that they studied mainly consisted of mathematics, physics, mechanics and geometry. All the learners had received roughly the same amount of formal instruction in English in the previous years of study at high school. They had received about 264 hours of formal classroom instruction in English as Foreign language, in 4 academic years, before they were assigned to the experiment.

Materials and Procedure

Two word lists of general vocabulary and technical vocabulary were used in two phases of the study. The technical word list was developed through the following procedure: an English Physics textbook whose content was almost parallel with the Physics textbooks the subjects study in second and third year was selected. About 80 words which were assumed by the researcher and other English teachers to be technical were extracted from the textbook. Then they were given to the subjects in the form of a vocabulary test and those word items for which 10 percent of the subjects provided the correct answer were omitted from the list. In other words, those words which were answered correctly only by 3 students out of 30 were omitted from the word lists. The remaining correct answers by the subjects, (i.e., 1 or 2 out of 30) were assumed to be due to guessing. Therefore, almost all words included in the word lists for the study could be assumed to be unknown to the subjects. Finally, 40 of the least correctly answered vocabulary items were chosen to construct the technical vocabulary list utilized in the study (See **Appendix A**).

In the technical vocabulary phase of the experiment, the researcher had the subject group repeat each one of the words six times with their corresponding equivalents which were given in Persian. The rationale for 6 repetitions was the research by Crothers & Suppes (1967). Then, the Immediate Technical Vocabulary Test in which the participants were required to write the Persian equivalents of the English words they had been exposed to in the repetition stage, was administered. It is worth

mentioning that I promised to consider the test results of the study as a part of the learners' mid-term evaluation report with the intention of motivating them to cooperate more seriously. In a separate session after a week, the Delayed Test of the Technical Vocabulary was administered to measure the subjects' delayed retention. This test was administered using the same procedure that I employed for the Immediate Technical Test. In addition, the participants were not aware that they would be tested on the same vocabulary the next week.

To carry out the second phase of the experiment some 80 general words were selected from the EFL materials taught in the third or fourth years of Iranian high schools. These 80 general vocabularies were given to the participants and they were asked to provide their equivalents in Persian. Those words for which 10 percent of the participants provided correct answers were deleted from the list. Then, 40 words from the remaining words were randomly selected by the researcher (See **Appendix B**). I conducted exactly the same procedures of training, immediate testing, and delayed testing of retention as I followed in phase 1 of the study with the technical words. As for the scoring, every correct response got a positive point for all of the four tests in the study.

Results

Concerning the first question, i.e., whether there is a difference between the participants' performance on the Immediate Retention Test of the Technical words and the Immediate Retention Test of General words, a paired group t-test was run to compare the obtained means. The results revealed that ($t = 1.314$, $d.f. = 33$, $\alpha = .05$, $t\text{-critical} = 1.697$) there was no statistically significant difference between the group's performance on the tasks of immediate technical vocabulary retention ($m = 34.41$) and immediate general vocabulary retention ($m = 35.91$) (See **Table 1**).

Table 1

Paired Samples Test comparing the means obtained from the group's performance on the technical and the general words retention tests.

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Immediate. Technical - Immediate. General	1.50000	6.65719	1.14170	-.82280	3.82280	1.314	33	.198
Pair 2	Delayed. Technical - Delayed. General	-.55882	7.45163	1.27794	-3.15882	2.04117	-.437	33	.665

Regarding the second question, i.e., whether there are any differences between the group's performance on the Delayed General vocabulary test and the Delayed Technical vocabulary test, the null hypothesis which predicts no significant difference was confirmed. The mean for the Delayed Technical test is 27.35 and the mean for the Delayed General test is 27.9. The obtained t-value from the comparison of the two means is ($t = 0.437$, $\alpha = .05$, $d.f. = 33$). The critical t-value to reject the null hypothesis is 2.042, thus, the null hypothesis, i.e., there is no difference between the group's performance on the Delayed test of Technical vocabulary and the Delayed test of General vocabulary was confirmed.

As far as the third question is concerned, the correlation coefficient between the group's performance on the Immediate General test and their corresponding performance on the Immediate Technical test was 0.49. A correlation coefficient of 0.55 was obtained between the group's performance on the Delayed General test and the Delayed Technical test. (See **Table 2**).

Table 2**Paired Samples Correlations**

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 Immediate. Technical & Immediate. General	34	.498	.003
Pair 2 Delayed. Technical & Delayed. General	34	.557	.001

Table 3**Descriptive Statistics**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Immediate. Technical	34	17.00	40.00	35.9118	5.10714
<i>Delayed. Technical</i>	34	15.00	40.00	27.3529	7.62326
Immediate. General	34	16.00	40.00	34.4118	7.51611
<i>Delayed. General</i>	34	14.00	40.00	27.9118	8.17004
Valid N (listwise)	34				

Discussion

There was no statistically significant difference between the group's ability to memorize the technical and the general vocabulary. In fact, memory efficiency for both types of vocabulary, (i.e., technical and general), was found to be equal. It seems that the pace of forgetting for both types of vocabulary is almost the same. The comparison of the Standard Deviations of the scores obtained from the Technical and the General tests indicates that the participants have performed more homogeneously in the General vocabulary tests than their corresponding counterparts in the technical vocabulary tests. The high standard deviation of scores obtained from the Delayed General test, (8), might be attributable to the pre-existing English language proficiency differences of the participants which has emerged as a function of the time factor in the study: those with lower English language proficiency might have forgotten some of the general words in the course of the one week's interval time.

The correlation coefficient between the scores obtained from the Immediate Technical and the Immediate General tests is 0.49. This probably means that the common variance between the two variables is 0.25. In other words, these two variables have only 25% of variance in common which appears not so much reliable in predicting the behavior of subjects in one variable from their behavior in the corresponding variable. One can conclude that 25% of the variance in the Technical word retention test is predictable from the participants' performance on the General vocabulary retention test.

The correlation between the Delayed pairs also demonstrates roughly the same magnitude of coefficient (0.55) revealing that there is a statistically significant relationship between the retention of General and Technical vocabulary and that this correlation is positively affected by the time interval between them.

Conclusion

Like any other social enterprise, EFL curriculum must be accountable in terms of the time, energy and the cost that it imposes on the stake holders. Cost-effectiveness might well be one of the touchstones against which language curriculum is appraised in today's economy-dominated world. LSP, ESP, and EAP are the possible trails that have the potential to lead us to the objectives of economy and accountability in language pedagogy. It seems to be against the economical prudence to teach a compendium of linguistic items to the learners for which no immediate or even distant future use is conceivable. In the Introduction section of the paper I argued that high school curriculum in Iran has been designed as a preparatory level to be completed at the university curriculum. The idea that comes to mind is why not to start LSP right from the beginning levels of language teaching. However, to implement this idea, we need to do research to answer many difficult questions such as, "Where and when to start LSP, at the beginner, intermediate, or advanced levels of language proficiency?", "What happens to the core general vocabulary of the language", "How will the learners react to the technical topic texts?; won't the text become tedious to the learners due to the repetitive content they are already familiar with?", "Will it enhance or hinder language learning?" and many other questions in this relation. The present research was aimed at answering one of those possible questions. The results of the present study can be interpreted as evidence to the contention that word type variable (generality vs. technicality) does not seem to play a significant role in the process of lexical retention.

Another indirect implication of the research finding pertains to the issue of semantic clustering. The technical words which were introduced to the learners in the study enjoyed a unifying theme, i.e., they were all from the semantic field of physics. However, the general words utilized in the study lacked such a unifying theme and were randomly selected and no semantic relations were conceivable among them. Nevertheless, it seems that the retention scores on the general and technical words are roughly equal in both of the delayed and immediate test conditions. One possible explanation might be that the configuration projected on the words presented to the learners is not necessarily the same as the patterns in which the learners represent the words in their mental lexicons. In other words, the way the learners organize the new words and relate them to the pre-existing semantic structures in their minds is probably of more importance than the organization projected on the words in the external world on the papers as far as lexical retention is concerned.

Further research is necessary to investigate whether the words which are memorized in the paired-associate lists can be put to actual use by the learners in reading comprehension activities or other forms of linguistic communication.

Moreover, the subjects who participated in the study and the technical lexica used in the experiment were limited to the field of Mathematics and Physics. Additional research is required to conduct the same study with other groups of subjects with different fields of specialty such as the Natural Sciences, Literature and the Humanities at Iranian High schools.

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Appendix A (The technical vocabulary lists used to instruct and test the participants' retention)

<i>The technical vocabularies in English</i>	<i>The equivalent translations in Farsi</i>
1. Acceleration	شتاب
2. Amplitude	دامنه
3. Angular	ای زاویه
4. Axis	محور
5. Charge	الکتریکی بار
6. Combustion	احتراق
7. Current	برق جریان
8. Differential	دیفرانسیل
9. Integral	انتگرال
10. Calculus	حساب
11. Distance	فاصله
12. Electric field	الکتریکی میدان
13. Electromagnetism	مغناطیس الکترو
14. elementary particles	بنیادی ذرات
15. Equation	معادله
16. Equilibrium	تعدادل
17. Fluid	سیال
18. Force of gravity	گرانش نیروی
19. Frequency	بسامد
20. Friction	اصطحکای

21. Inertia	لختی - اینرسی
22. law of gravitation	جاذبه قانون
23. Magnetic field	مقناطیسی میدان
24. Magnitude	اندازه - مقدار
25. Mass	جرم
26. Momentum	گشتاور
27. Denominator	کسر مخرج
28. Nuclei	هسته
29. Oscillation	نوسان
30. Perpendicular	قائم - عمود
31. proportionality constant	ثابت ضریب
32. Radius	شعاع
33. Resistance	مقاومت
34. Rotation	چرخش - دوران
35. Static friction	ایستا اصطحاک
36. Symmetry	تقارن
37. theory of relativity	نسبیت نظریه
38. Velocity	سرعت
39. Vibration	ارتعاش
40. Viscosity	ویسکوزیته - چسبندگی

Write the meaning of the below expressions in Persian. Time: 10 minutes.

Student's Name:

Class Number:

<i>The technical vocabularies in English</i>	<i>The equivalent translations in Farsi</i>
1. Acceleration	
2. Amplitude	
3. Angular	
4. Axis	
5. Charge	
6. Combustion	
7. Current	
8. Differential	
9. Integral	
10. Calculus	
11. Distance	
12. Electric field	
13. Electromagnetism	
14. elementary particles	
15. Equation	
16. Equilibrium	
17. Fluid	
18. Force of gravity	
19. Frequency	
20. Friction	
21. Inertia	
22. law of gravitation	
23. magnetic field	
24. Magnitude	
25. Mass	
26. Momentum	
27. Denominator	
28. Nuclei	
29. Oscillation	
30. Perpendicular	
31. proportionality constant	
32. Radius	
33. Resistance	
34. Rotation	
35. Static friction	
36. Symmetry	
37. theory of relativity	
38. Velocity	
39. Vibration	
40. Viscosity	

Appendix B (The general vocabulary lists used in the instruction and the testing of the participants' retention)

<i>The technical vocabularies in English</i>	<i>The equivalent translations in Farsi</i>
1. as soon as	که وقتی
2. ashamed of	از شرمنده
3. (be) on time	بودن وقت سر، بودن شناس وقت
4. Blind	بینانا
5. Clerk	منشی، کارمند
6. Dangerous	ناک خطر
7. Degree	تحصیلی مدرک و درجه
8. Discussion	مذاکره، بحث
9. Dislike	نداشتن ستدو
10. driving test	رانندگی امتحان
11. Educate	دادن آموزش
12. end (n)	هدف
13. Examine	کردن بررسی
14. Fact	واقعیت
15. Fashionable	رایج
16. Fill	کردن پر
17. Final	نهایی
18. Fit	مناسب
19. Flight	پرواز
20. Forbid	کردن ممنوع
21. Free	رایگان، آزاد
22. Goal	قصد، هدف
23. Government	دولت
24. Honest	امین، صادق
25. however	اما-اگرچه
26. in fact	واقع در
27. in other words	دیگر عبارتی به
28. insist on	بر ورزیدن اصرار
29. lie (v)	داشتن قرار
30. Means	ابزار، وسیله
31. Modern	پیشرفته، جدید
32. Nation	ملت
33. Passenger	مسافر
34. perfect (adj)	کامل
35. Possible	ممکن
36. Prepare	کردن آماده
37. Produce	کردن تولید
38. Rapidly	سریع
39. Realize	فهمیدن، بردن پی
40. ref use	کردن امتناع

Student's Name:

Class Number:

Write the equivalents of the following words and expressions in FARSI. (0.5 point each item). Time: 10 minutes.

1. as soon as	
2. ashamed of	
3. (be) on time	
4. blind	
5. clerk	
6. dangerous	
7. degree	
8. discussion	
9. dislike	
10. driving test	
11. educate	
12. end (n)	
13. examine	
14. fact	
15. fashionable	
16. fill	
17. final	
18. fit	
19. flight	
20. forbid	
21. free	
22. goal	
23. government	
24. honest	
25. however	
26. in fact	
27. in other words	
28. insist on	
29. lie (v)	
30. means	
31. modern	
32. nation	
33. passenger	
34. perfect (adj)	
35. possible	
36. prepare	
37. produce	
38. rapidly	
39. realize	
40. ref use	

Metadiscourse in Academic Prose: A Contrastive Analysis of English and Persian Research Articles

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Abstract

The present study was carried out to compare and contrast the use of metadiscourse elements in Persian and English research articles. The research tried to find out how English and Persian made use of metadiscourse elements, and whether the two languages differed in using metadiscourse resources in academic texts. The corpus used in this study, which was analyzed based on Hyland and Tse (2004) taxonomy, comprised 19 articles and 102,293 words in the two languages, English and Persian. The intralingual analysis showed that both Persian and English used interactive resources more than interactional ones, emphasizing the significance of text coherence over interpersonal function of language in the academic genre. Compared with English, Persian capitalized on more interactive resources, which shows that Persian puts a premium on textuality at the expense of reader involvement, hence, being comparatively less reader responsible. The results support the interlingual rhetorical differences in the use of metadiscourse resources to sustain solidarity with the readers and also to convey the intended propositional message (Mauranen, 2001; Valero-Garces, 1996; Blogojevic, 2004).

Keywords: Metadiscourse, Propositional content, Academic text, Persian language, English language

Introduction

Metadiscourse plays a pivotal role in organizing discourse and also in engaging the audience, extending the importance of meaning beyond the ideational to interpersonal and textual functions. As an interactive and rhetorical character of academic writing, metadiscourse establishes social and communicative engagement between writer and reader focusing on “those aspects of the texts which explicitly refer to the discourse or the writer’s stance towards either its content or the reader” (Hyland, 1998a: 438). In other words, academic writers generate texts as much to represent some external reality as to display their attitudinal positions in relation to the external reality and the recipients thereof. Thus, metadiscourse represents some internal stylistic map whereby an external reality or message is created and conveyed.

One important aspect of academic communication relates to the dichotomy of the external world knowledge, usually put as propositional knowledge, and the internal world knowledge construed as metadiscourse (Vande Kopple, 1985). To show the difference, Crismore, Markhanen, and Steffenson (1993) assert that the linguistic material not contributing to the ideational or propositional content is taken as metadiscourse since it assists the reader in organizing, interpreting, and evaluating the given information.

Though the distinction seems viable and useful for practical and pedagogical purposes, some researchers believe that the dividing line to be drawn between the two appears to be blurred (e.g., Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 160). It is very difficult to separate the two levels of meaning while it is claimed that meaning as such is the recombination or re-synthesis of various elements functioning together. That is, if ‘meaning’ results from the integration of different ideational, contextual, textual, and interpersonal elements, for stronger reasons it sounds illogical to speak of separate layers of meaning and claim that metadiscourse is sharply distinct from ideational meaning. Similarly, Crismore and Farnsworth (1990), while ignoring the idea of non-propositional meaning as metadiscourse, incorporate into their classifications referential, informational metadiscourse, implying that the two sides of meaning can be represented under one umbrella to emphasize the integrative nature of meaning. Therefore it will be of no surprise if we find a piece of discourse serving both functions. This argument, in line with Hyland (1998a), is provided to rule out the possibility of relegating metadiscourse to a secondary position, but to take it as an obligatory process of communicating meaning. Though the ambiguous status of metadiscourse as being propositional or non-propositional is still to linger on, the subject is not to be negatively affected or abandoned in the case of practical and contrastive analyses.

The second significant point of concern in the study of metadiscourse is the interaction that is to be established between writer and reader in academic texts. As opposed to the use of language in reference to the external world, metadiscourse is also utilized to manage the *role* the writer adopts in relation to the content and reader. This role is usually viewed as *textual* indicating how carefully a text is encoded to achieve coherence and organization, and also as *interpersonal* used to help writers express their attitudinal and personal reactions towards the readers (Halliday, 1994). This latter metadiscursive function is believed to be a predominantly encompassing feature which also subsumes textual function as well. Hyland (2004) argues that textual function does not make a very clear and independent category, but it creates the conditions for both propositional and interpersonal aspects to materialize the sequential integrity of the text. Therefore, this view finds metadiscourse not so much of textual nature as of interpersonal function. As Hyland (2004) says, “metadiscourse is interpersonal in that it takes account of the reader’s knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs and that it provides writers with an armory of rhetorical appeals to achieve this” (p. 161).

Interpersonal function of metadiscourse is assumed to be variable across cultures and disciplines, making variable demands on the part of the reader to understand the message. Some cultures may leave much of the message to be decided by the reader whereas some others may go to great lengths providing a reader-friendly context. This important issue is based on Greenberg’s language typology of writer’s vs reader’s responsibility for effective communication. Some authors (e.g. Hinds, 1987) have theorized that metadiscourse as part of academic rhetoric presupposes the writer’s responsibility for the effective conveyance of message. In the same line of thinking, Hyland (1998a) stresses the independence of metadiscourse as intimately linked to the norms and standards of special cultural and professional communities. Furthermore, the distinctive characteristics of genre or culture are believed to prompt writers to capitalize on varying degrees of metadiscourse in regard to their addressees (Crismore & Farnsworth, 1990; Hyland & Tse, 2004). For example, while English academic discourse relies on the writer’s responsibility to provide appropriate transition statements for the reader’s convenient tracking of the writer’s logic, some other cultures such as Japanese, Korean, and Chinese display an opposite trend, giving over much of the responsibility to the reader to grasp the writer’s intention (Clyne, 1987; Mauranen, 1993; Swales, 1990; Blagojevic, 2004).

Irrespective of the controversies over the status quo of metadiscourse, an interest is growing in writing conventions across different cultures and professional activities. Mauranen (1993) attributes such growing significance to the inherent paradox involved in metadiscourse, and claims that scientific texts are at the same time culturally independent and culturally variable, signifying the specificity of genre and distinctiveness of rhetoric or national cultures. Taken as a critical feature of

good native and learner language writing (Intraprawat & Steffenson, 1995), metadiscourse is an essential, yet neglected aspect of language use in general and in academic contexts in particular. This appears more so in the contrastive studies between Persian and English languages, where intelligibility of communication through proper cultural norms, values, and assumptions to trail the path to academic promotions finds most significance. In order to cast light on the issue of metadiscourse, the present study attempts to explore and gain insight into the way metadiscourse as an important rhetorical feature of language is realized in Persian and English academic writings.

Review of literature

In recent years there has been a growing interest in text genre analysis. The studies on genre analysis are varied and vast (Yates & Orlikowski, 1992; Miller, 1994; Kearsy & Turner, 1999; Bhatia, 1993; Connor, 1996, 2000). A great deal of research on genre has been devoted to the study of academic texts, especially research articles as a high stakes genre. These studies have analyzed different elements in different parts of research articles, e.g., genre of the discussion sections in articles and dissertations (Hopkins, 1988); abstract section (Hyland, 2000; Samraj, 2005); results (Brett, 1994 & Williams, 1999); discussions (Holmes, 1997); and discussions and conclusions (Yang and Allison, 2003).

Metadiscourse, as an important rhetorical aspect of academic genre, has also received significant attention. Some of the metadiscourse studies have concentrated on intralingual aspects. As a recent example, Hyland (2004) examined the purposes and distributions of metadiscourse in a corpus of 240 doctoral dissertations and master's theses of six academic disciplines and showed that writers used slightly more interactive than interactional forms. Also Perez-Llantada (2003) made it clear that Hyland's taxonomy of textual and interpersonal types of written metadiscourse techniques in the academic speech can be approached from two convergent perspectives: cognitive theory and pragmatics. That is, textual metadiscourse focuses on the processing of production and processes of speech, and interpersonal metadiscourse allows the audience to understand speakers' implications and presuppositions as well as speaker's stance while considering the social framework of the speech act. Other studies have focused on the interlingual analysis of metadiscourse elements. Blagojevic (2004) carried out a contrastive study of academic articles written in English by English and Norwegian native speakers. The results showed that though there were some differences in the way English and Norwegian writers used metadiscourse, and sometimes displayed certain preferences, Norwegian metadiscoursal model did not differ greatly from that of English native speakers. In another study, Dahl (2004) took a contrastive approach and investigated writers' appearance in three languages including English, French, and Norwegian and three disciplines. He concluded that the language

variable was the most important one within economics and linguistics where English and Norwegian showed very similar patterns, using much more metatext than French, but within medicine, all three languages displayed a uniform pattern of little metadiscourse.

In Iran, Marandi (2003) performed a contrastive study of the use of metadiscourse in Persian/English master's theses across three groups: native (Iranian) speakers of Persian, non-native (Iranian) speakers of English, and native (British) speakers of English. The introductions and discussions of these were compared for the amount and types of metadiscourse used based on a slightly revised taxonomy of metadiscourse suggested by Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993). She showed that different groups used metadiscourse types differently. More specifically, they used *connectives*, *hedges*, *attributors*, and *persona markers* differently from one another. Also, she concluded that native speakers of Persian used *connectives* the most, whereas native speakers of English used them the least. While native speakers of both Persian and English used more *connectives* in their introductions than in their discussions, non-native speakers of English used fewer *connectives* in their introductions than in their discussions.

This study by Marandi (2003) seems to be the only one focusing on Persian and English differences. As Marandi's study reveals potential differences between Persian and English, it is necessary to investigate the issue further so as to come up with a better picture for the metadiscoursal differences between the two languages.

Research purpose

Prompted by the fact that metadiscourse can be used to convey a message and create solidarity between the writer and reader, that it can be linked to the norms and expectations of a particular culture, and that it is genre-based, the present study was carried out to investigate the use of metadiscourse resources in English and Persian research articles. More specifically, the study tried to perform an inter/intra-lingual contrastive analysis between the two languages, using two distinct disciplinary corpora, namely, applied linguistics, and computer engineering.

Corpus and justification

The corpus consisted of two languages, namely, English and Persian. English was selected because it is used as an academic lingua franca for the international relationship nowadays, and academics are required to develop a good command of that language to function properly in the required contexts. Persian was selected because it is most probable that Iranians are subject to their first language interference, which may lead to the breakdown or misinterpretation of communication. L1 influence on L2 has already been shown to be a problem. Chelala (1982) identified 10 unsuccessful strategies

employed by L2 writers and concluded that using L1 to compose in L2 was somewhat more counterproductive than productive. Also, Kaplan (1966) compared writing samples in English from speakers of Arabic, Romance, and Oriental languages and claimed that each group displayed rhetorical characteristics expressing its native discourse "logic" not acceptable in standard English writing. The comparison and contrast of the two languages can help us discover and take care of the differences which may pose a threat to clear understanding.

The articles were selected from well-known, refereed, and recently published journals (2004, 2005, & 2006). In order to investigate different writings, hence balancing out the problem of idiosyncrasy and particularity of writers' styles, the articles were randomly picked and care was taken not to include the same writers more than once. Articles whose authors were native speakers of English and Persian were selected for the analysis. In the case of multiple authorship, at least one author was a native speaker or a member of an academic staff in the U.S or U.K for English articles and a native speaker of Persian for the Persian research articles. The use of one native author in the case of English articles was a minimum criterion to ensure the use of standard English writing.

Moreover, the articles in both languages were selected from two disciplines, Applied Linguistics and Computer Engineering, to represent two general streams of the humanities and non-humanities. Another point of concern was to include a variety of subjects which could help remove the problem of one single topic influencing the generalizability of the results. All this was done to make the corpus as representative as possible. However, it must be borne in mind that the results are to be very cautiously interpreted or generalized due to the limited scope and limitations of the study.

The corpus used in the study consisted of 19 articles (9 English & 10 Persian articles) and 102,293 words in the two languages, with English comprising 50,602 words and Persian 51,691 words. The names of articles and their respective journals, languages, and disciplines appear in the appendix.

Data Analysis

This study draws on the model of metadiscourse suggested by Hyland and Tse (2004) for data analysis. This model suits our purpose best since it is supposed to move away from previous treatments of metadiscourse towards a model that can capture the underlying principles of academic writing. To this end, Hyland and Tse (2004) claim that metadiscourse needs to be conceptualized as an interpersonal feature of communication, which stands in sharp contrast to Crismore's (1989) and Williams' (1999) views that metadiscourse contributes towards either propositional or interpersonal functions. Furthermore, unlike Mauranen (1993) and Bunton (1999) who see metatext as the writer's self-awareness of text, Hyland and Tse (ibid) believe that 'metadiscourse represents the writer's awareness

of the unfolding text as *discourse*: how writers situate their language use to include a text, a writer and a reader' (p. 167). To justify the model for academic contexts, the two writers conclude:

The framework we have suggested offers a comprehensive and pragmatically grounded means of investigating the interpersonal resources academics deploy in securing their claims. But while we believe this provides both a theoretically more robust model and a more principled means of identifying actual instances, we recognize that no taxonomy can do more than partially represent a fuzzy reality. (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p.175)

The model, which is presented below, is specifically named 'a model of metadiscourse in academic texts'.

Table 1: Hyland and Tse (2004) taxonomy of metadiscourse

<p><i>Interactive Resources:</i> They help to guide reader through the text:</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;"> <p>a) <i>Transitions (T):</i> express semantic relation between main clauses. Examples: in addition, thus, but, and</p> <p>b) <i>Frame Markers (Fm):</i> refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages. Examples: finally, to conclude, my purpose here is to</p> <p>c) <i>Endophoric Markers (En):</i> refer to information in other parts of the text. Examples: noted above, see figure, in section</p> <p>d) <i>Evidential Markers (Ev):</i> refer to sources of information from other texts. Examples: according to X/(Y, 1990)/Z states</p> <p>e) <i>Code glosses (Co):</i> help readers grasp functions of ideational material. Examples: namely, e.g., such as, in other words</p> </div> <p><i>Interactional Resources:</i> involve the reader in the argument:</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;"> <p>a) <i>Hedges (H):</i> withhold writer's full commitment to proposition. Examples: might, perhaps, possible, about</p> <p>b) <i>Boosters (Bo):</i> emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition. Examples: in fact, definitely, it is clear that</p> <p>c) <i>Attitude Markers (Am):</i> express writer's attitude to proposition. Examples: unfortunately, I agree, surprisingly</p> <p>d) <i>Engagement Markers (En):</i> explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader. Examples: consider, note that, you can see that</p> <p>e) <i>Self-mentions (Sm):</i> explicitly refer to authors. Examples: I, we, my, your</p> </div>

The shortened forms of categories enclosed in parentheses will appear in the analysis.

To carry out the analysis, the information related to the journal, site, article outline, authors' names, acknowledgements, and reference were deleted and only the abstract, introduction, methodology, discussion, and conclusion to be analyzed remained. The remaining parts were read and analyzed carefully for metadiscourse categories, based on Hyland and Tse's (2004) taxonomy. The two researchers cross-compared their findings to ensure that metadiscourse categories were correctly determined. Finally the findings were subjected to statistical analysis.

Results and Discussions

Metadiscourse studies can demonstrate important features of the language which facilitate communication in different cultures and professional communities. Therefore, this study investigated the use of metadiscourse in two languages, English and Persian, through two disciplines, computer engineering and applied linguistics as representative of academic studies. More clearly, the present study was intended to reveal how metadiscoursal resources are used and dispersed across the two academic languages.

The analysis of total corpus showed there were 6,146 metadiscourse elements in 102,293 words, that is, there was one metadiscourse element in almost 16 words. This was almost one per 18 for the English corpus (total English corpus 50,602 words), and one in almost 15 for the Persian corpus (total Persian corpus 51,691 words). In other words, the total percentage of metadiscourse use for the Persian language is 6.49 while it is 5.54 for the English language (Table 2). Note that the percentages are based on the total number of metadiscourse items identified in relation to the total number of words used in each corpus. The above-stated finding reveals that academic texts are made up of a proportionally large number of metadiscourse items. Thus metadiscourse needs to be taken into account more seriously when an academic text aims at high standards of intelligibility and communication. Also, this shows that the explicit use of metadiscourse for either smooth shifting of propositional information or involving the reader in the argument is necessary. Another implication is that the idea considering metadiscourse as just marginal to the texts (Crismore & Farnsworth, 1990) is simply not plausible. Thus, if a text is dependent on metadiscourse elements to such a large extent, it cannot achieve the high expectations of quality without due attention to the linking role of metadiscourse.

Further analysis of the two dimensions of metadiscourse as shown in the following table (Table 2) shows that Persian made use of "interactive resources" more than "interactional ones" (5.05% vs. 1.4%, respectively). The English language also used "interactive resources" more than "interactional elements" (3.7% vs. 1.8%, respectively). This finding can indicate the significance of textual congruity over explicit interpersonal relations with audience. While Persian and English both relied more on

“interactive resources” than “interactional ones”, Persian manages to overtake English in the “interactive part”, but remains lower in the “interactional section”. On the whole, the statistical analysis shows that the differences between the two languages are statistically significant (see Table 2). The fact that the difference between the two languages is more salient in the use of “interactive items” may show that Persian tends to go to greater lengths establishing coherence in the text, hence providing more guidance for the reader to comprehend the purpose of the text. However, English remains slightly more faithful to the involvement of the reader in the text (more use of interactional resources), that is, the writers in English are inclined to have a closer association with the reader. It is likely the predominance of this feature in English can somehow compensate for the decreased utilization of ‘interactive elements’, hence striking the balance between the textual and interpersonal functions of the language.

Table 2: The analysis of metadiscourse resources in each language

Languages	Total words	Metadiscourse Freq.	Interactive	Interactional	Total
English	50602	2804	3.7%	1.8%	5.54%
Persian	51691	3342	5.05%	1.4%	6.46%
Z-test	*****	*****	10.42	5.20	*****

P<0.01

Critical: 1.96

A closer investigation of the two languages is possible if *subcategories* of the metadiscoursal elements are also taken into account. As Table 3 shows, the two languages differ in the way they prioritize the respective subcategories. English language capitalizes maximally on the ‘transitions’ (.87%) and minimally on the ‘attitude markers’ (.07%). Persian also uses ‘transitions’ (1.62%) as the first priority, which is more frequent than its English counterpart, but unlike English uses ‘engagement markers’ (.03%) as the last. As a general rule, it seems that both languages find ‘transitions’ central to academic writing, though Persian writers make more of an attempt to ensure that readers can recover their intentions. It is interesting indeed to notice that English writers, as far as this small-scale study indicates, make the least use of ‘attitude markers’, which may support the conviction that academic writing requires a high degree of detachment and objectivity (Stapleton, 2002). On the other hand, Persian writers resort to their own attitudinal positions more (Persian use of ‘attitude marker’ is .13%). In fact, Persian writers seem to voice their ownership to the findings more conspicuously.

Furthermore, it is revealed below (Table 3) that English assumes the second place for ‘evidentials’ whereas Persian relegates ‘evidentials’ down to the fifth position, indicating one more time that English provides a stronger ground for the *documentation* of the information. Likewise, English

makes equal use of ‘code glosses’ and ‘hedges’, both appearing in the third position while Persian separates the two, with ‘code glosses’ ranking second and ‘hedges’ standing eighth. The juxtaposition of the two in English seems well justified. Since code glosses are supposed to provide interpretation for the findings, the English writers have taken cautionary measures so as not to sound biased, by using the same amount of hedging to soften the force of their interpretation. On the contrary, Persian writers at the same time have offered more comments (use of more code glosses) and have dared to be less conservative by using less hedging. This finding can be cautiously taken as a partial indication that Persian writers of academic research articles try to speak more persuasively, hence casting doubt over the belief that academic writing is universally impersonal (Stapleton, 2002). Another feature which also stands out between the two languages is the cautious employment of ‘boosters’ (.3%) appearing in the eighth place by the English writers and the larger use of that subcategory (.63%), two times more than English, occurring in the fourth place by the Persian writers, again demonstrating more involvement and stronger position of the writer in Persian texts. Persian writers’ increased use of boosters can indicate that they consider the findings of their research as largely monolithic and reliable while English writers exercise conservatism, leaving their findings to be interpreted by the audience.

On the whole, the results show that Persian writers have used metadiscourse elements more, and z-tests show that the differences are statistically significant for all subcategories except for ‘endophoric markers’. Persian writers’ larger reliance on the metadiscourse elements cannot always be taken as a positive indication of facilitating communication particularly if they want to write in a different language for readers of linguistically disparate backgrounds (Martin, 2003). On the contrary, the relatively higher use of metadiscourse may affect the preciseness and conciseness of propositional relationships, making them subject to extreme subjective interpretations by speakers of another language.

Table 3: The detailed analysis of metadiscourse subcategories in each language

		Metadiscourse										
		Interactive					Interactional					
Languages	No. of words	T	Fm	En	Ev	Co	H	Bo	Am	Eng	Sm	Total
English	50602	0.87	0.65	0.56	0.86	0.76	0.76	0.3	0.07	0.16	0.50	5.54
Persian	51691	1.62	0.88	0.54	0.62	1.38	0.27	0.63	0.13	0.03	0.33	6.46
Total	*****	2.49	1.54	1.1	1.48	2.14	1.03	.93	.2	.19	.83	12
Z-tests	*****	10.86	4.45	0.30	4.56	9.55	10.79	7.57	2.97	6.84	4.22	6.21

P < 0.01 Critical: 1.96

Conclusion

The results of this study suggest that the use of metadiscourse in English and Persian research articles may reflect the conventions each discourse community has to rely on. That is, metadiscourse provides

a link between texts and community cultures, defining the rhetorical context which is created to conform to the expectations of the audience for whom the text is written. As Hyland (2004) concludes, the importance of metadiscourse lies in the part it has in explicating the context for interpretation, revealing one way in which *acts of communication* define and maintain social groups. The results obtained in the present study also show that Persian writers of research articles relatively preferred to outperform their English counterparts by using more metadiscourse elements. The differences can distinguish Persian writers as using *overt* acts of communication from English writers as resorting to the *covert* acts of expression.

The observed differences between the two languages go contrary to the idea of the universal scientific discourse propounded by Widdowson (1979). Thus, on the basis of these findings, various discourse communities may need to opt for one or another rhetorical pattern in the case of having certain readership. As a case in point, Persian writers of English academic articles addressing native English readers *may* need to tone down their overuse of interactive and scale up their underuse of interactional metadiscourse elements in order to arrive at a balanced view of communication based on the observed standards. Of course, the standards must not be interpreted in the rigid sense and as hard and fast rules, but as ‘general tendencies’ which could soften the interlingual differences, leading to more intelligible contexts for communication. Nor is this to claim that only one strict standard exists or is always desired but as Martin (2003) implies, academic discourse communities wishing to communicate new knowledge to other members of the academic community with a different language essentially need to have their research published in the English language, whose native textual organization and linguistic features are predominantly taken as the frame of reference by non natives. In this way, academic communities of different linguistic backgrounds may face minimum rhetorical differences, hence avoiding the possible breakdown of communication (Martin, 2003; Connor, 1996). Thus one important implication of the present study for prospective writers can be the fact that English academic genre represents a so-called writer-oriented, or viewed from the opposite angle, reader responsible genre in comparison with Persian. Of course, it is very important to notice that writer or reader responsibility is a relative feature. In other words, a language may be writer responsible in comparison with one language and reader responsible in comparison with another language.

In addition to having distinct genre-based norms, the two languages studied here can be considered as indicating that metadiscourse is a stylistic device representing a socio-cultural rhetoric as well. A socio-cultural rhetoric necessarily attempts to account for the *functions* which a language is to serve, and also the ways those functions are to be appropriately achieved. As regards the present study, it

must be asserted that both English and Persian languages made the textual *function* of language their primary goal, but Persian differed in making more use of this function. This shared feature, taken on a general level, may reveal that some degree of pragmatic overlap can be expected of the same genre that aims to achieve similar academic objectives. Persian and English demonstrate that different *ways* of communication tend to define the two languages. This finding reaffirms the position, already taken by Hyland (2004), that effective writing in different cultures involves a different culture-oriented deployment of resources to represent text and reader.

To elaborate, it needs to be stated that language utilizes certain linguistic forms and conventions which are encoded by the socio-cultural system of communication (Halliday, 1994). That is, all language use is a social and communicative act in which mutual cooperation and assistance are provided between the producer and receiver of the language to exchange information. As the present study showed in the case of metadiscourse use, such mutual cooperation can be differently designated and distinctively realized in different languages. It is through the lenses of the socio-rhetorical framework that some languages produce writer-based prose and others prefer reader-oriented one (Blagojevic, 2004). In this vein, metadiscourse is not an autonomous stylistic feature of language dissociated from the social texture, which can be used, reused, or left unused at will by the writers. It is an essential device which can be created out of the contextual requirements, intimately linked to the expectations of a particular professional community, and superordinately determined by the cultural norms of a given language.

Of course it must be borne in mind that the present study focused on the quantitative analysis of metadiscourse differences between two languages, and did not attempt to further investigate and determine the exact socio-cultural factors which might underlie the observed differences. Thus the findings can be attributed to the fact that rhetorical variation across languages depends both on the social origin and the activity (e.g. research articles) in which one is engaged. This diatypic variation is very well supported in the systemic-functional framework (Halliday, 1994) where language use is viewed as a configuration of the semantic resources which members of a culture associate with a situation type. The same idea is also upheld by Kaplan (1966) and Mauranen (2001). They both emphasize that rhetorical variation across languages in general, and academic communities in particular, can be accounted for by the socio-cultural aspects of the languages. This important relationship needs to be investigated and explored further through additional studies focusing directly on the underlying patterns which are likely to give rise to the differences.

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Appendix

Research Articles Analyzed in the Study

English Computer engineering articles

- 1-Bathe, K. J. & Baig, M. M. I. (2005). On a composite implicit time integration procedure for nonlinear dynamics. *Computers and Structures*, 83 (31-32), 2513-2524.
- 2-Kallath, D. (2005). Trust in trusted computing- the end of security as we know it. *Computer Fraud and Security*, 2005 (12), 4-7.
- 3-Karayiannis, N. & Nadella, S. (2006). Power-conversing routing of ad hoc mobile wireless networks based on entropy-constrained algorithms. *Ad Hoc Networks*, 4 (1), 24-35.
- 4-Verma, A., Sawant, H. & Tan, J. (2006). Selection and navigation of mobile sensor nodes using a sensor network. *Pervasive and Mobile Computing*, 2 (1), 65-84.

5-Yuan, Y., Yang, Z., He, Z. & He, J. (2006). An integrated energy aware wireless transmission system for QoS provisioning in wireless sensor network. *Computer Communications*, 29 (2), 162-172.

English Applied Linguistics articles

1-Davis, A. (2006). What do learners really want from their EFL course?. *ELT Journal*, 60 (1), 3-12.

2-Halleck, G. (2006). Rhetorical moves in TESOL conference proposals. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5 (1), 70-86.

3-Liu, L. (2005). Rhetorical education through writing instruction across cultures: A comparative analysis of select online instructional materials on argumentative writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14 (1), 1-18.

4-North, S. (2005). Disciplinary variation in the use of theme in undergraduate essays. *Applied Linguistics*, 26 (3), 431-452.

Persian Computer engineering articles

1-Abdi, J., Rashidi, F., Locs, K., & Khaki Sedigh, A. (2005). Talfighe hambaft va yadgiri atefi tafavot zamani dar mohandesi kontrol. [The homotexture mixture and the time difference of emotional learning in control engineering]. *Science and Research Journal of Sharif*, 30, 13-21.

2-Ghasemaghai, N. (2004). Mozo bandi matn hai motarakem. [Categorizing of dense texts]. *Research Journal of Esfahan University*, 21 (1), 138-154.

3-Ghasem Sani, GH. R. & Namzi, M. (2004). Raveshi jadid barai hale masaele erzaye mahdoodiyat. [A new method for solving constraint satisfaction problems]. *Esteghlal*, 23 (1), 1-11.

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5-Mehrabi, B., Movahedinia, N., & Ghasemaghai, N. (2005). Tarahi yk kar gozare nazere web ba tavanaye sarande hoshmand. [Designing a web server with intelligent filtering capability]. *Research Journal of Esfahan University*, 21 (1), 125-138.

Persian Applied Linguistics articles

- 1-Alavi, S.A. (2004). Naghshe daneshe grammar va vajegan dar test khandan va darke matlab. [The role of grammar and word knowledge in reading and comprehension test]. *Journal of the Foreign Language Research of Tehran University*, 17, 93-114.
- 2-Amiri Khorasani, A., & Alinejad, M. (2005). Baresi moshkelate tadrise zabane farsi be ghire farsi zabanan va eraye chand rahkar. [The investigation of the problems of teaching Persian to the non-Persian and presentation of some solution]. *Journal of the Humanities and Literature Faculty of Mashhad University*, 149, 50-23.
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A Contrastive Analysis of Rhetorical Figures in English and Persian Advertisements

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Abstract

Specialized languages such as the language of advertisements are made up of rhetorical figures, which have their own means of persuasion. In this research paper, the Persian and English ads were analyzed in order to illustrate the rhetorical domains that were shared in common. The analysis was based on a sample of 100 English and 100 Persian display ads. The findings of this study revealed that in order to make advertising words vivid, conspicuous, and impressive, with high readability (Leech, 1966), various figures of rhetoric were used in both English and Persian advertising headlines. This study has pedagogical implications for teaching journalistic English, translation and increasing EFL learners' cultural awareness.

Key words: advertisement, display ads, discourse, rhetoric, rhetorical figures, slogans.

Introduction

Advertising is all around us. People are endlessly bombarded with all kinds of product or service information from various media including newspapers, magazines, television, radio, posters and the Internet. Many people, including the advertisers themselves, claim "advertising has become one of the most important influences in our lives" (Dyer, 1982, p. 1). Advertising is a social institution that

produces advertisements within a political economy of technical specialization and bureaucratic organization.

Advertisements are messages designed to promote products, services, or ideas (Tahririan, 1995). An advertisement is any public form of announcement about any entity, usually but not exclusively a commodity, aimed to promote the acceptance or purchase or at least a toleration of the entity (Phelan, n.d.). As Cook (1992) rightly claims, “this is not the only function. An ad may also amuse, inform, misinform, worry or warn” (p. 250).

Today, with the development of the technology and the diversity of the mass media, advertising has influenced us pervasively in our daily life. However, whatever the strategies advertising takes, language is the main carrier of messages all along; according to Vestergaard and Schroder (1985, p. 140), “Advertising takes many forms, but in most of them language is of crucial importance.” Advertising language is a style of immediate impact and rapid persuasion.

With advertising playing such an important role in our society today, and with it being involved in such controversy, it is important to fully understand its implications. Williamson (1978) argues that people are unaware of the underlying structures of adverts and are therefore manipulated by their messages. This is where the value of studying advertisements lies.

The present research attempts to conduct a systematic contrastive analysis of English and Persian ads to investigate the similarities and differences between the ads of the two languages, in the hope of bringing them to light and, thereby, offering help to advertisement writers and language learners.

Background

Within the concept of specialized languages such as the language of advertising can be included specialized lexis and rhetorical forms common to the specific discourse community. Forms of scientific discourse are determined by several factors within the discourse community: knowledge, implicitly shared goals, and the discourse community (Appleford, 2003). The language of scientific or technical discourse depends not only on the shared knowledge of a group of specialists in a specific area, but also on its implicitly shared goals and its discourse conventions (Connor, 1996).

A discourse community refers to a precise group or community of people who have in common language conventions defined by their community. A discourse community has formed the habit of communicating with its members using language structures which other members of the discourse community identify with and recognize (Swales, 1990).

A discourse community may also have its own genre. Genre is a recognizable class or style of text or discourse which is familiar to the other members of the discourse community. It is a discourse type

which is recognized as such by its users, and by its characteristic features of style or form (Chandler, 1997; Martin, 1984; Swales, 1990). Each discourse community has its own text genres in which to communicate with its members. Moreover each discourse community may use its own rhetorical figures to illustrate or to prove its theories or beliefs.

Rhetoric

Rhetoric is the ancient art of argumentation and discourse (Wheeler, 2003). It comes from the Greek word *rhetor*. It is defined as a speaker skilled in addressing the law courts and large gatherings of people in order to persuade (Appleford, 2003; Jankiewicz, 2005), and rhetoric originates from the theory or the study of how, by means of what linguistic devices, a speaker or writer might best achieve this aim. From the time of Aristotle the concept of rhetoric has always been connected with aspects of discourse that are intended to persuade (Connor, 1996).

Rhetoric originated from the functional organization of verbal discourse, and its object is eloquence defined as effective speech designed to influence and to convince others. It operates on the basis of logical and aesthetic modes to affect interaction in both an emotional and in a rational way. Rhetoric is the study of effective speaking and writing. It is a form of speaking which has the intention of making an impact upon, persuading, or influencing a public audience.

How is persuasion achieved? A discourse community can be made up of economists, politicians, business people, and so on. Members of specific discourse communities can use the genre of their own particular discourse community to communicate and exchange ideas and also to persuade others of new ideas. Each group has its own genre and its preferred rhetorical devices to persuade and convince.

Rhetorical figure

A rhetorical figure has traditionally been defined as an artful deviation (Corbett, 1990). More formally, a rhetorical figure occurs when an expression deviates from expectation, the expression is not rejected as nonsensical or faulty, the deviation occurs at the level of form rather than content, and the deviation conforms to a template that is invariant across a variety of content and contexts (McQuarrie & Mick, 1996). McQuarrie and Mick point out that a rhetorical figure provides a means for making the familiar strange.

Rhetorical devices are frequently used consciously in advertising and in public speeches to create an effect. In order to enhance the appeal of an advertisement, advertising writers pay much attention not only to such expressive devices as plates, color and the layout of a printed page, but also to the

choice of words or phrases, to make an advertisement beautiful and attractive. In the practice of the advertising English, people pay more and more attention to the use of figures of speech to make every effort to make the advertising English succinct, accurate, and vivid and to provide rich imagination and plentiful associations for readers so as to stimulate their desire.

The use of figures of speech in advertisements aims at arousing and persuading consumers to buy what is advertised. And their proper use can make an advertisement sweet to the ear and pleasing to both the eye and the mind, so advertising writers often use figures of speech in advertisements.

Rhetorical figures are one of the few elements of advertising style that have received sustained theoretical attention (McQuarrie & Mick, 1996; Stern, 1988). Synchronic analyses show rhetorical figures to be a common feature in magazine advertisements in the early 1990s but, as McQuarrie and Mick (1996) say, studies of rhetorical figures have been short ones in ads texts. Following this notion, this study intends to investigate the application of rhetorical figures in advertising headlines of English and Persian languages in order to uncover to what extent the two languages are compatible in these domains.

Method

In the following part, the information regarding the research method, materials, and procedures is presented.

Materials

To carry out the comparison between the advertisements, a sample of 100 English and 100 Persian display ads was randomly selected from among a larger corpus of 300 English and 300 Persian ads. The Persian corpus was selected from an Iranian news site called *Hamshahri*, available at www.hamshahri.org. Likewise, the English corpus was chosen from an American news site called the *Gaylord (Michigan) Herald Times*, available at www.heraldtimes.com.

Procedure

This research was directed toward studying the rhetorical features of English and Persian corpora in such a way that by a systematic comparison, the main differences and similarities between the sample ads of the two languages would be identified. At the start, the investigation began with the description of the basic units of analysis in the English advertisements and continued with the analysis of the Persian ads. In doing so, for the analysis of the rhetorical features of the advertising headlines of the two languages, a model of analysis presented by Clark (1998) was taken into

consideration. It should be noted that along with the analysis of the advertising headlines, the stylistic features of the slogans and also the discourse features of the ads of the two languages were analyzed.

Rhetorical features

The frequent and wide use of figures of speech is an important characteristic of advertising language, which is an effective way to make the advertisement attractive. The use of figures of speech in advertisements aims at arousing and persuading consumers to buy what is advertised. And their proper use can make an advertisement sweet to the ear and pleasing to both the eye and the mind, so advertising writers often use figures of speech in advertisements.

In order to see which figures of rhetoric were used in the advertising headlines of English and Persian languages, 78 figures of rhetoric mentioned by Clark (1998) were applied in the advertisement samples. From the aforementioned analysis, only 24 figures of speech were observed in the ads of the two languages which will be described briefly in the following section.

An illustrative rhetorical analysis of advertising headlines

The headline is the single most important element of every print advertisement. It is more than a title or label for the message. It is the salesperson's opening line. It's the foot in the door. It's the first and most lasting impression. A headline wields the power to attract, repel, or slip by readers unnoticed. In advertising, the headline can make the difference between success and failure in the promotion of a product or service (Lowery, 2002). Advertising copywriters believe that 80% of the effort should be focused on the headline. David Ogilvy (as cited in Salmon, 2000, p. 1), one of the most prominent advocates of advertising, says about the power of the headlines: "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."

Headlines are the most important linguistic element of advertising literature, and they exemplify the typical features of advertising language in an almost ideal way. Therefore, they will serve as the basis for a more meticulous analysis of the linguistic properties of advertising texts.

As mentioned before, this study spotlights the cases of utilization of rhetorical features in English and Persian advertisements in order to see their similarities. Below is a brief description of rhetorical features (the definitions are taken from Clark (1998) and the examples from the corpora).

- **Alliteration** - The recurrence of initial consonant (as opposed to vowel) sounds.

Hoosier House Help

- **Ambiguity** - Two possible meanings, both correct.

Give her a kiss that will last forever.

Sabon hæmmam chahar fasle Dærya

- **Antithesis** - Establishes a clear, contrasting relationship between two ideas by joining them together or juxtaposing them, often in parallel structure.

People who came here to lose usually end up gaining

Porsesh hæq shomast, Pasoxgoi væzifeh ma

- **Image** - A picture created in the reader's mind, e.g. (a) Concrete Image - created by accurate and evocative description; (b) Figurative Image - created by the use of metaphor or simile.

Put \$\$\$ in your wallet!

Rodæri jæded peykan.

- **Balanced sentence** - A sentence made up of roughly equal parts.

Get a bundle, save a bundle.

Bekharid, bebarid, bekhanid.

- **Cliché** - An over-used and worn out expression; any phrase that is not fresh and original.

Time flies...Bulova soars!

Ba cheshem del bebinim, ba goshe jan beshnævim.

- **Colloquialism** - Colloquial language is language suitable for conversation.

We've moved!

Adæm ba mærefæt refiq ba mærefæt mixad, Honda mixad

- **Elatives** - Use of comparatives and superlatives.

The sweetest deals are at once upon a child.

Bærayeh ævælin bar dær jæhan, ab særd kone xodnæsb

- **Ellipsis** - The shortening of the construction of a sentence by omitting a word or words that might readily be supplied from the context.

Internet Made Easy.

Sepehre Electric, tolid konændeh lævazem xanegi væ sader konændeh nemoneh sal.

- **Exclamatory** - A statement written as an exclamation.

How sweet it is!

Hæmeh æzayeh xanevadeh mitævanand taliya begirænd!

- **Hyperbole** - An extravagant exaggeration of fact.

This weekend Kittle's would like to say...Thanks a million!

Digeh moshkel ja bærayeh kar væ zendegi nædarid chon bab fayber glass ra darid.

- **Imperative** - An order or command.

Call now & lay away till spring!

Ba Markopolo hæmsæfær shævid.

- **Jargon** - The specialized language used by a specialized occupation.

The only time she wants xxxl.

Samsong bozogtærin tolid konændeh sæfæhat LCD væ porforoshtærin dar jæhan

- **Logo** - (Logogram) A sign or symbol in shorthand.

Free iPod!

Amico

- **Metonymy** - Referring to an item by referring to something related to it.

Bob Barbour Honda

Barayeh asayesh xanevadeh.....ayonaz

- **Metaphor** - An unstated comparison of one thing with another.

Bright life with bright products.

Zendegi sepid ba risheh kæn shodæn hepatic

- **Oxymoron** - A figure of speech where two words or phrases of opposite significance are placed consecutively to highlight the contrast.

Unlimited plan for a limited time!

Siyaho sefid

- **Paradox** - A statement that seems absurd and self-contradicting but which is in fact true.

Shoes are the windows to the soul.

Gærdesh zæman xorshid.

- **Personification** - A metaphor or simile in which an inanimate object or an abstract concept is given human qualities.

Nivea wants the best for you!

Sony Ericsson xososiyate va vizhegihayeh besyari ra barayeh shoma be ærmæghan miaværæd.

- **Pun** - The use of two words with the same sound (homophones) for humorous effect.

Give the gift of time

Mosabeqeh ækse azadi

- **Repetition** - Using some words or sentences repeatedly.

Best style, best quality, best price

Sobhaneh kamel ba shokolat sohaneh mino

- **Rhetorical question** - A statement in the form of a question: a question asked not to gain a reply, but to achieve a rhetorical emphasis stronger than a direct statement.

Winter storm damage?

Hæzineh mævad mæsræfi xeyli mohem æst?

- **Rhyme** - The identity of the final accented vowel and all following sounds in two words.

Congratulate the graduate.

Dicsheneri væ monshi elektroniki kasiyo

- **Synecdoche** - A form of metaphor in which the part stands for the whole, the whole for a part, or any portion, section, or main quality for the whole or the thing itself (or vice versa).

Price drops at Roberts!

Ba niyazmændihayeh hæmshæhri, Esfæhan dær dæstan shomast.

Stylistic features of the advertising slogan

Slogans are short phrases that a company uses over and over in its ads. A slogan is a form of verbal logo. In a print ad, it usually appears just beneath or beside the brand name or logo. The advertising slogan is always short and epigrammatic in nature.

The distinct features of slogans are the frequent appearance of rhymes, alliteration, pronouns, phrases, idioms, proverbs, repetition, puns, and ambiguity (Cook, 1992; Leech, 1966; Xiaosong,

2004). These features were investigated in slogans of the two languages to determine the frequency of their occurrence.

- **At the phonological level**

- Use of rhymes

Right service, right price

Keyfiyæt mætlob, qeymæte monaseb

- Use of alliteration

Long live the home.

Dærya ra cho dæryabi doryabi

- **At the lexical level**

- Use of pronouns

We come to you!

Madiran, 40 sal dær kenar shoma

- Use of repetition

Buy one get one free.

Soxte Pak, Hævaye Pak

- **At the syntactic level**

- Use of simple sentences

Sony makes the camera, Roberts makes the difference.

Sale nou ra ba hædayaeh ma aqaz konid.

- Use of phrases

Always something exciting!

Motmæen dæar entexab, motæmayez dær xædæmat

- Use of imperative sentences

Lose weight right now.

Shoma hæm be kanon beyaid.

- Use of present tense

There is no place like home.

Nikkala, In Name nik æst ke mimanæd.

- Creative use of idioms or proverbs

There is no place like home.

Dærya ra cho dæryabi doryabi

- **At the semantic level**

- Use of puns and ambiguity

Settle, for the best!

Tecnoology novin, modiriyæt novin

Headline

The headline is the most important part of the ad - by some estimates 75 to 80 percent of its value (Engel, 1980).

Advertising headlines can be classified into five basic categories: benefit headline, provocative headline, news/information headline, question headline, and command headline (Boduch, 2001; Haixin, 2004).

The different types of headlines were investigated in advertisements of the two languages to determine the frequency of their occurrence.

- **Benefit headlines** make a direct promise to the reader.

One sale you're sure to love.

Dær rastaye siyasæte særfejoieh enerzhi keshvær, bærayeh mæsrafe gaze kæmtær væ mohite ziste salemtær, hoshmænd nik kala.

- **News/information headlines** include many of the how-to headlines and headlines that seek to gain identification for their sponsors by announcing some news or providing some promise of information.

Bloomington bridal show

Sherkæt toliidi væ sænæti balan sænæt

- **Provocative headlines** are used to provoke the reader's curiosity. To learn more, the reader must read the body copy.

Make her see double this Valentine's day.

Ma bærayeh væqte shoma ærzesh qaelim.

- **A question headline** will pique the reader's curiosity and imagination by asking a question that the reader is interested in.

Is your bathroom ugly?

Cheh rængi dareh?

- **A command headline** orders the reader to do something.

Shop for your sweetie at Rebecca & me.

Bærayeh asayeshe xanevadehmotmæen entexab konid.

Length of advertising headlines and slogans

In order to examine the equality of length in the headlines and slogans of the ads of the two languages, the headlines and slogans in the corpora were investigated with respect to the average number of words per them.

For example, the longest headlines of the ads found in the English and Persian advertisements comprised 11 and 15 words from the each sample respectively.

Thinking about buying a house and don't know where to start?

Dær rastaye siyasæte særfejoieh enerzhi keshvæ, bærayeh mæsrafe gaze kæmtær væ mohite ziste salemtær, hoshmænd nik kala.

Discourse analysis

Discourse analysis is typically defined as the analysis of language beyond the sentence (Cook, 1992; Swales, 1990). This implies that discourse analysis takes the context into account in order to understand how it affects the meaning of the sentence.

Modern advertising is defined as a mode of discourse that is a particular way of using resources for expression. It gives objects their meanings and shows the target audience their use. It creates certain intelligibility of the cultural categories and at the same time, visualizes and ritualizes them (Gallissot, 1994).

The discourse features of a written advertisement consist of five parts: headline, body copy, slogan, illustration, and trade mark, among which headline, body copy, and slogan are the main parts (Engel, 1980; Haixin, 2004; Mohan, 1989; Rush, 1997).

In the following section a brief discussion of the body copy as a discourse component is given.

Body copy of an advertisement

The advertiser tells the complete sales story in the body copy. Set in smaller type than headlines or subheads, the body copy is a logical continuation of the headline and subheads. It is also where the sale is closed.

- **Differences in body copies**

Copies fall into many categories. Some common types of copies include straight-sell copy, institutional copy, narrative copy, and dialogue/monologue copy (Haixin, 2004).

In a **straight-sell copy**, the text immediately explains or develops the headline in a straightforward attempt to sell the product.

Sometimes the advertiser uses the **institutional copy** to sell an idea or the merits of the organization or service rather than sales features of a particular product.

Advertisers use the **narrative copy** to tell a story. It often sets up a problem and then creates a solution using the particular sales features of the product or service.

By using a **dialogue/monologue copy**, the advertiser can add the believability that the narrative copy sometimes lacks. The characters portrayed in a print advertisement do the selling in their own words, through a testimonial or quasi-testimonial technique, or through a comic-strip panel.

Findings and discussion

The results of the advertisements analysis along with a report on their frequencies are introduced in the following sections.

Data analysis

A corpus of 100 English and 100 Persian advertisements were analyzed based on rhetorical figures in order to see in what ways the two languages were compatible.

The analysis of data was conducted in three stages. In the first stage, a detailed description of the advertising headlines at rhetorical figures was done to see the similarities and differences between the two languages in these domains. In the second stage, the stylistic features of slogans were analyzed within and across the two languages and in the third level, the discourse features of advertisements of the two languages were taken into consideration.

The first level of the analysis

The first level consisted of the analysis of the rhetorical figures of the headlines of the advertisements across and within the two languages. In the following section, the result of the analysis is presented.

The frequency of the rhetorical figures of advertisements is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Observed frequency of rhetorical figures in the English and Persian corpora

No	Rhetorical figures	English		Persian	
		N	%	N	%
1	Alliteration	26	6.51	14	4.33
2	Ambiguity	42	10.52	25	7.73
3	Antithesis	2	0.50	1	0.30
4	Balanced sentence	29	7.26	8	2.47
5	Cliché	3	0.75	3	0.92
6	Colloquialism	17	4.26	4	1.23
7	Elatives	5	1.25	6	1.85
8	Ellipsis	28	7.01	13	4.02
9	Exclamatory	18	4.51	4	1.23
10	Hyperbole	27	6.76	14	4.33
11	Image	80	21.33	88	27.22
12	Imperative	20	5.01	9	2.78
13	Jargon	9	2.25	44	13.62
14	Logo	8	2.00	15	4.64
15	Metaphor	5	1.25	4	1.23
16	Metonymy	3	0.75	11	3.40
17	Oxymoron	1	0.25	1	0.30
18	Paradox	1	0.25	1	0.30
19	Personification	4	1.00	10	3.08
20	Pun	18	4.51	25	7.73
21	Repetition	6	1.50	8	2.47
22	Rhetorical question	8	2.00	3	0.92
23	Rhyme	37	9.27	11	3.40
24	Synecdoche	2	0.50	1	0.30
	Total	399	100	323	100

According to Table 4.1, the use of images prominently outnumbered that of any other figures of speech in both English (21.33%) and Persian (27.22%) advertising headlines. The analysis shows that creating a picture of the product in the reader's mind is the first goal of the ad writers.

The use of ambiguity was the second figure of speech in number in both English (10.52%) and Persian (7.73%) advertising headlines. As it has been stated, advertising language is highly ambiguous (Chuandao, 2005; Goddard, 1998; Leech, 1966), avoiding clear and concrete statements and resorting to vague utterances that offer numerous layers of potential interpretation.

As is clear from Table 4.1, elliptical structures were the third category in number preferred in both English (7.01%) and Persian headlines (4.02%). Ellipsis is normally used for reasons of economy and can often create a sense of informality. Goddard (1998) believes that ellipsis occurs as a result of shared knowledge and experience between the ads' producers and receivers. He adds that advertising language often attempts to reproduce the elliptical nature of spoken language in order to establish closeness with the reader.

Alliteration is another figure which occurred in both English (6.51%) and Persian (4.33%) advertising headlines. Alliteration can make advertising words rhythmic and pleasing to the ear. This figure of speech usually makes people love the advertisement at first sight.

As can be seen from Table 4.1, pun was the fifth category which was favored by both English (4.51%) and Persian (7.73%) ad writers. A pun makes words implicit, humorous, and conspicuous, and it can arouse people's association, which will make a deep impression on consumers (Chuandao, 2005; Goddard, 1998; Leech, 1966). Punning is one way in which the advertiser attempts to improve social relations with his audience (Tanaka, 1992).

In order to increase sales, businessmen and manufacturers use hyperbole to induce customers to buy their products. Information from Table 4.1 shows that hyperbole was used about 6.76% and 4.33% in the English and Persian advertising headlines respectively. According to Table 4.1 the use of some figures of rhetoric were rare in both English and Persian advertising headlines such as antithesis, cliché, elatives, metaphor, oxymoron, paradox, and synecdoche, where they constituted a part of only 0.5%, 0.75%, 1.25%, 1.25%, 0.25%, 0.25%, and 0.50% in the English sample headlines and 0.3%, 0.92%, 1.85%, 1.23%, 0.3%, 0.3%, and 0.3% in the Persian ones respectively.

As can be seen from the aforementioned figures, the use of elatives and metaphor seem to be used more in both samples. As one might expect, the use of elatives (comparatives and superlatives) is extremely common in advertising language. The proper use of a metaphor in an advertisement can make the advertising words vivid. Through the figurative comparison of the advertised product or service with the thing with similar feature, the characteristic of the product or service is vividly stressed, and it is easily understood and remembered by consumers.

Table 4.1 shows that jargon, logo, metonymy, personification, and repetition were frequently used in the Persian ads, occupying 13.62%, 4.64%, 3.40%, 3%, and 2.47%, respectively. On the other side,

the use of colloquialism, balanced sentence, exclamatory, imperative, rhyme, and rhetorical question seem to be more in the English than in the Persian corpus, about 4.26%, 7.26%, 4.51%, 5%, 9.27%, and 2%, respectively.

The style of the English adverts was mostly colloquial, using simple and familiar vocabulary. On the contrary, in the Persian ads the use of technical words or jargon was preferred. Informal styles suggest an easy-going social relationship between reader and writer, and they are characterized by informal address terms, direct address to the reader, mostly with the second person pronoun you (Goddard, 1998; Leech, 1966).

According to information from Table 4.1, the use of rhyme in the English adverts was frequent. The purpose of this rhetorical device is to obtain the effects pleasant to the ear and also to attract and arouse interest.

Balanced sentences appeared to be as much a characteristic of the English advertising headlines as they were of the Persian. The main effect of this device would seem to be a reinforcement of the qualities of a product in an almost mnemonic fashion through a repetition of linguistic pattern and a strengthening of the meter's beauty.

The sentence types of commands, questions and exclamations feature most frequently in advertising language. As can be seen in Table 4.1, the use of imperatives and exclamatory sentences seem to be used more in the English advertising headlines. Exclamatory form is used to draw greater attention to a point than a mere barred statement of it could do. Imperative sentences are short, encouraging and forceful. They are used to arouse the audience's wants or encourage them to buy something (Goddard, 1998; Leech, 1966).

Rhetorical questions were used with a low frequency in the corpora. They are a sensible form of attracting attention. By opening an ad with a question the reader is brought to think, and to participate in the answer (Mårdh, 1980).

Different kinds of advertising headlines

Advertising headlines can be classified into five basic categories: benefit headline, provocative headline, news/information headline, question headline, and command headline (Boduch, 2001; Haixin, 2004).

The frequency of the different kinds of advertising headlines is given in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. The frequency of the different kinds of advertising headlines

No	Headline categories	English		Persian	
		N	%	N	%
1	Benefit headline	14	14	30	30
2	Provocative headline	32	32	29	29
3	News/information headline	22	22	30	30
4	Question headline	12	12	3	3
5	Command headline	20	20	8	8
	Total	100	100	100	100

Comparing the English and Persian advertisements as to the proportion of different kinds of headlines, the English ads had a higher proportion of command and question headlines than the Persian ones while the use of benefit and news/information headlines were more frequent in the Persian sample than in the English one.

Headline length

The length of the headlines was calculated in terms of the average number of words per headlines.

Table 4.3. Average length of advertising headline in terms of number of words

Length of words in headlines	English		Persian	
	N	Mean	N	Mean
Number of the whole words	444	4.44	539	5.39
Number of headlines	100		100	

The figures obtained were about 4 and 5 words for the English and Persian headlines respectively. As it can be seen in the English advertising headlines fewer words were used in comparison to the Persian ones. The shorter word length of headlines may contribute to the general impression that they seem easier to read, memorize at a glance and repeat correctly.

The second level of the analysis

The slogan is commonly considered one of the major backbones of an advertising strategy. Because of the importance of slogans in advertisements, an investigation was done on the frequency of stylistic features of slogans in the English and Persian corpora.

Table 4.4 shows the frequency of stylistic features of slogans in the English and Persian corpora.

No	Stylistic features of the advertising slogan	English		Persian	
		N	%	N	%
1	Alliteration	17	7.61	8	5.25
2	Rhyme	26	11.64	21	13.80
3	Pronouns	4	1.78	5	3.27
4	Phrases	50	22.41	44	28.93
5	Simple sentences	62	27.80	47	30.91
6	Imperative sentences	20	8.95	4	2.62
7	Present tense	25	11.20	9	5.92
8	Idioms or proverbs	3	1.34	1	0.65
9	Ambiguity and pun	11	4.93	10	6.57
10	Repetition	5	2.24	3	1.98
	Total	223	100	152	100

Table 4.4. Observed frequency of stylistic features of slogans in the English and Persian corpora

According to Table 4.4, in the English and Persian corpora, the use of rhyme, phrase, and simple sentences outnumbered any of the other rhetorical figures. The great occurrence of phrases in both samples is related to the importance of brevity in this genre (Tahririan, 1995). As can be seen from the above Table (4.4), the use of simple sentences in slogans is one of key features of advertising text type. The idea is to present one message per sentence so that it can be grasped with a reduced level of attention. The phonetic features of a slogan are short and ideally feature a certain rhythmic pattern.

Table 4.4 shows that pronouns, ambiguity, and pun were frequently used in the Persian ads, occupying 3.27% and 6.57%, respectively. On the other side, the use of alliteration, imperative sentences, present tense, and repetition seem to be more in the English sample than in the Persian one, about 7.61%, 8.95%, 11.2%, and 2.24%, respectively.

Slogan length

The length of the slogans was calculated in terms of the average number of words per slogans.

Table 4.5. Average length of a slogan in terms of number of words

Length of words in slogans	English		Persian	
	N	Mean	N	Mean
Number of the whole words	277	4.54	240	4.52
Number of slogans	61		53	

As can be seen in table 4.5, the average length of the slogans of the corpora is almost the same.

The third level of the analysis

As mentioned before, a written advertisement consists of five parts: headline, body copy, slogan, illustration, and trade mark (Boduch, 2001; Haixin, 2004). An investigation was done on the frequency of their occurrence in the English and Persian corpora.

Table 4.6 shows the frequency of discourse features of advertisements in the English and Persian corpora.

Table 4.6. The frequency of discourse features of advertisements in the English and Persian corpora

No	Discourse features of ads	English		Persian	
		N	%	N	%
1	Headline	100	22.77	100	24.93
2	Body copy	100	22.77	100	24.93
3	Slogan	61	13.89	53	13.21
4	Illustration	86	19.59	75	18.72
5	Trade mark	92	20.98	73	18.21
	Total	439	100	401	100

As table 4.6 reveals, all the components of an advertisement occurred almost equally in both samples.

Differences in body copy

Some common types of body copies include: straight sell, institutional, narrative, and dialogue/monologue (Boduch, 2001; Haixin, 2004).

The frequency of the different kinds of body copies of the corpora is given in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7. The frequency of the different kinds of body copies

No	Categories of body copies	English		Persian	
		N	%	N	%
1	Straight sell	67	67	78	78
2	Institutional	37	37	21	21
3	Narrative	5	5	1	1
4	Dialogue/monologue	1	1	0	0
	Total	100	100	100	100

According to Table 4.7, in the English and Persian corpora straight sell body copies outnumbered any of the institutional, narrative, and dialogue/monologue ones.

Conclusion

Advertising is a form of mass communication closely linked with the world of commerce and marketing. It is a powerful tool for the flow of information from the seller to the buyer. It influences and persuades people to act or believe. It not only influences any human society but also reflects certain aspects of that society's values and structure. In the process of creating advertisements for all these reasons, language is of crucial importance.

Advertising language as a special kind of language is very different from common language. Cook (1992) believes that advertisements as a separate genre possess their own language, which differentiates them from other kinds of genres such as news, letters, or research articles.

Advertising language has its own features in morphology, syntax, and rhetorical devices. Rhetorical devices are variations of literal or ordinary form of expressions (McQuarrie & Mick, 1996). Their use is to make the thought more striking and effective, for they have the power to vivify and illustrate. A fresh, apt rhetorical device appeals to the imagination, creates mental pictures, and makes the speech or writing vivid, impressive, and interesting (Chuandao, 2005; Goddard, 1998; Leech, 1966; Nayak, 2002). For this reason, advertisers often use various rhetorical devices to increase the readability and appeal of an advertisement and to arouse consumers' interest in buying the product.

Because of the importance of rhetorical figures in advertisements, in this research, the Persian and English adverts were analyzed in order to illustrate the rhetorical domains that were shared in common. For this reason, a sample of 100 English and 100 Persian display ads was randomly selected from among a larger corpus of 300 English and 300 Persian advertisements. They were analyzed based on rhetorical figures in order to see in what ways the two languages were the same or different.

The analysis of data was conducted in three stages. In the first stage, a detailed description of the advertising headlines at rhetorical figures was done to see the similarities between the two languages.

The findings of this study revealed that in order to make advertising words vivid, conspicuous, and impressive, with high readability (Leech, 1966), various figures of rhetoric were used in both English and Persian advertising headlines. From 78 figures of rhetoric mentioned by Clark (1998), 24 of them were used in common. Some of them such as alliteration, ambiguity, image, ellipsis, hyperbole, and pun outnumbered any of the other rhetorical figures in the sample of advertising headlines of both languages. A few other figures such as cliché, elatives, metaphor, paradox, and synecdoche were rare in both samples. Some other figures were used more in the Persian ads such as jargon, logo,

metonymy, personification, and repetition. On the other side, the use of colloquialism, balanced sentence, ellipsis, exclamatory, hyperbole, imperative, rhyme, and rhetorical question were used more in the English sample than in the Persian corpus.

In the second stage, the stylistic features of slogans were analyzed within and across the two languages. One vital function of a slogan is that it should be memorable so that the customer will automatically link it with the name of the company. In order to achieve this goal, both English and Persian ad writers preferred to use stylistic devices such as rhyme, phrase, and simple sentences.

Moreover, many slogans employ stylistic devices to enhance attractiveness and memorability. As this study reveals, ambiguity, pun, alliteration, imperative sentences, and repetition were used in both samples with varying frequencies.

Regarding advertising headline and slogan length, the headlines and slogans in the corpus of each language were investigated with respect to the average number of words contained in a headline and slogan. As the figures show, in both headlines and slogans fewer words were used, so it can be said that length of a sentence in advertising is usually short.

In the third level, the discourse features of advertisements of the two languages were taken into consideration. The analysis of both English and Persian ads at the level of discourse features revealed that all the features were employed to accomplish the main communicative function of this genre.

In conclusion, the results of this study showed that the difference between the English and Persian ads was in the frequency of some rhetorical figures. These differences revealed that each language preferred specific devices; in other words, some rhetorical figures had a higher frequency in one language but not in the other. This preference might be due to various causes such as cultural/personal differences, so the learner should be aware of these differences in order to avoid possible problems.

Implications of the study

Theoretical implications

The study of rhetoric is important. It is a critical tool that helps us to understand how discourse shapes the way people act or think, not only in the case of situated instances of rhetorical discourse but also in much broader terms. Such study leads to a fuller understanding of how discourse, and particularly persuasive discourse, is able to move an audience. As human beings, as citizens, as teachers and scholars, we use language all the time to modify and influence events in the world around us. Equally, other people use language to influence our thoughts and behavior. It is important to know, as educated people, to know as much as we can about how this influence is affected. Such

knowledge is useful not only for its practical benefits, but because it forms a critical and analytical foundation for approaching many of the tasks that face us daily as we construct and respond to the discourse that shapes our experience of the world.

Pedagogical implications

The results of contrasting English and Persian advertisements have pedagogical implications for teaching journalistic English, translation and increasing learners' cultural awareness.

Implications for teaching journalistic English

As mentioned before, the number of advertisements including rhetorical figures has grown considerably. Knowledge of these features helps teachers to use them as a guide to their teaching. Besides that, the teacher who is familiar with the similarities and differences between Persian and English advertisements will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them. Sciarone (1970) maintains that if teaching is done on the basis of differences and similarities between the two languages the influence of the native language in learning the target language will grow smaller and smaller.

Implications for teaching translation

Knowledge of the learner's language and its differences and similarities with the second/foreign one is of practical teaching use in many ways, one of which is translation (Robinet & Schachter, 1986).

In order to translate the English advertisements, EFL students should have a good command of rhetorical features of both languages. As mentioned before, rhetorical figures are heavily used to complement or enrich advertisement genre. Undoubtedly, these figures produce a special atmosphere to printed ads, as well as contribute to reinforce the persuasive and argumentative process. So, students should count them when translating the ads. Contrasting English and Persian advertisements can help learners become more conscious of the features of ads in the two languages and avoid problems in the use of either, especially when they translate.

Implications for increasing EFL learners' cultural awareness

Advertising and culture are related to each other. Advertising is considered not only as a part of a culture but also as a means to create a new global culture, which ignores national boundaries (Cook, 1992). Williamson (1978) believes that ads are message systems designed to organize perceptions and create structures of meaning. The structuring of advertisements, if the ad is to be successful, is

dependent on cultural values. In fact, ads offer an invaluable resource that can be used to enhance the learner's cultural knowledge.

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Motivation and Strategies to Learn English: The Case of Pre-service Teachers of Chinese

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Abstract

This paper reports a study of motivation and strategies toward learning English used by pre-service teachers of Chinese. The aims of the study were to investigate whether pre-service teachers of Chinese are unmotivated to learn English if they are not going to use English substantially in the future and to examine the learning strategies the participants adopt during English lessons. Gardner's (1985) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery was modified and administered to elicit pre-service Chinese language teachers' motivational orientation to learn English, their preferences and needs to learn English, as well as their learning strategies in learning English. Findings from this study pose significant implications to current educational reform in China and may help educators to identify appropriate strategies to facilitate the learning of a second language by non-English major teachers.

Key words: motivation, learning strategies, pre-service teachers of Chinese

Introduction

In Hong Kong, English is the most important foreign language for historical, political, and economical reasons (Johnson, 1998; Pennycook, 1995), and it has been a compulsory subject in schools since the British colonial years. However, people in Hong Kong have been more eager to learn Putonghau since the end of the colonial years (Shanghai Daily, 2007) as predicted by Lord (1987), Kwo (1994) and Pierson (1994) long before the handover of sovereignty. With the implementation of "Biliterate and Trilingual" language education, 90% of Hong Kong secondary schools were to implement mother tongue education (using Cantonese to teach all subjects except

language-based subjects) and Putonghua to teach Chinese as a sign of national integration and decolonialization.

Thus whether **pre-service** teachers of Chinese are still eager to learn English or if a desire to learn Putonghua has replaced the necessity of English poses an interesting question for research. This study aims to investigate the motivation of **pre-service** teachers of Chinese to learn English post-colonially. These **pre-service** teachers are required to take an English foundation course, which aims to develop learner autonomy, academic writing skills, and presentations skills in the first year of their training.

Literature Review

The literature is useful in identifying two areas for investigating pre-service Chinese language teachers' motivation to learn English. They include Chinese learners' motivation to learn English and teacher motivation to learn a foreign language. However, the literature only provides a general direction for the present investigation for several reasons:

- 1) motivational patterns described in the literature were of a general group of Chinese learners or a group of teachers who were already bilingual and may have different attitudes than the participants in this study.
- 2) Pre-service Chinese teachers' English learning motivation hasn't been explored in the literature previously.
- 3) All studies were conducted in the 1970's-1990's, signifying that it is appropriate to revisit this issue.

One useful aspect of the literature investigates Chinese learners' motivation from a macroperspective. According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), instrumental motivation concerns how the foreign language can be utilized as a useful instrument towards furthering other aims and goals, such as further study or improving job prospects, while "integrative motivation" refers to a desire to learn a foreign language to communicate with the target language group and gain closer contact with them and understanding of their culture. Richards (1993) and Lin and Detaramani (1998) believed Hong Kong students are instrumentally motivated. That is, learners are eager to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Hudson, 2000). Lin and Detaramani (1998) explained that Hong Kong students learn English because it is required for entering university. Teachers and parents also emphasize the importance of public examinations. Fu (1974) conducted a survey investigating 561 secondary school students and found clear instrumental orientations. In the post-1997 years, after Hong Kong joined the People's Republic of China, Lai (1999) reexamined Hong Kong students' motivation to learn English and reached the same conclusions. According to Fu (1987) and Walters and Balla (1992), there is a paradox: Hong Kong students seem very

instrumentally motivated, but students are reluctant to engage in independent, self-directed learning. It was difficult to determine whether this reluctance stemmed from cultural constraints or as Walters and Balla (1992) suggested, a lack of integrative motivation.

Meanwhile, Biggs (1995) believed Chinese learners see learning in a practical way. He stated, “Westerners have seen integrative motivation as the only way of defining what is meaningful and worthwhile...the Chinese learner may see things more pragmatically...the deep strategy may be activated by a head of mixed motivational steam: personal ambition, family face, peer support, material reward...and interest.”

Even more basic were those very Confucian internal dispositions that created a sense of diligence and receptiveness.” Biggs (1995) believed achievement enhances Westerners’ egos, but what constitutes success in a Chinese context may be determined by other factors: e.g. family, group, or the society as a whole. Further, the pressure on Hong Kong students to study hard is notorious regardless of family. Chinese learners are likely to ascribe their performance to be due to controllable factors such as effort and study methods. Ability itself is perceived by Chinese teachers, parents, and students as an attribute that can be modified through effort.

Different motives also influenced the learning strategies and language use patterns of senior secondary school students learning in Hong Kong (Richards, 1993). Findings suggested motivation played an important role in second language acquisition because of its close relationship to a number of factors which influence the learning process: e.g., attitudes, attributions, views about language learning, strategy choice, and language use patterns. Students who were motivated mainly by a strong intrinsic interest in learning the language to be able to use it as a tool for communication had a greater preference for communication-based learning activities, used English more frequently and in a greater variety of contexts than students who were motivated mainly by a desire to pass exams or enhance their career prospects.

The above studies only examined the English learning motivation of Hong Kong students in general but not pre-service Chinese teachers, whom this study aims to investigate. Besides, all the above studies were conducted in the period from the 1970’s to the 1990’s, and not much has been done in the past decade. Therefore, it will be meaningful to revisit this issue

Another useful aspect of the literature is teacher motivation to learn a foreign language. There have been studies looking into this area but they tend to focus on cognitive elements like efficacy (Ashton, Webb & Doda, 1983; Ashton, 1984, and Gorrell & Capron, 1991) and causation (deCharms, 1968, and Johnson, Baldwin & Wiley, 1969). The results of several studies looking into bilingual teacher motivation to learn a foreign language reveal two extremes (Laughlin, 1996 and Valerio, 1997). Studies found teacher motivation to learn a foreign language is largely for the benefits of their

students (Laughlin, 1996), and English language teacher motivation for acquisition of Spanish in the US is to make a difference and remedy oppressive conditions for Spanish-speaking students. Valerio (1997) revealed that for bilingual teachers, the decision to become teachers was influenced by positive role models they had as teachers. Findings suggested motivation played an important role in second language had as students.

A study conducted by Thicksten (1996), however, found that only one out of five teachers welcomed the opportunity to learn Spanish and teach in a bilingual classroom. The reasons for these disparities among the above studies are possibly because Laughlin (1996) and Valerio's (1997) studies were conducted with a group of teachers who were already bilingual and therefore had a positive image of bilingualism in general. However, Thicksten's work studied teachers who were monolingual. The results hence indicated they were less favorable toward learning a foreign language. On the other hand, the above studies were all conducted in the US and may not apply in the Hong Kong context. This paper intends to fill this gap and draw implications for language education.

Purpose of the Study

Specifically, this paper aims to answer the following research questions:

Research question 1:

Are pre-service teachers of Chinese instrumentally motivated to learn English as repeatedly suggested by previous studies?

Research question 2:

How does the motivation to learn English of pre-service teachers of Chinese affect their strategies when learning English both inside and outside classrooms?

Methodology

Participants

70 pre-service teachers of Chinese from Hong Kong volunteered to participate in this study. They were aged 19-20 and were required to enroll in a one-year English foundation course by a teacher training institute in Hong Kong. They all had been learning English for more than 15 years and passed a public examination for English proficiency in secondary school. The participants at the teacher training institute all received a grade D or E, an average grade, in "Use of English" in their Hong Kong Advanced Level Examination, of which 60 percent of all candidates received Grade D or E while 20 percents received Grade A, B and C, and 20 received a failing grade. According to their grade on the examination, this group of pre-service teachers of Chinese language only possessed an average level of English competency.

Instruments

For the purpose of the study, respondents were given a questionnaire to express their views on learning English, and some participants were later interviewed by the researcher.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was based on Gardner's (1985) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery. To conduct the survey, the researcher explained the purpose of the research to the participants before completing the questionnaire. Respondents were given the questionnaire during the lecture time for a module titled "Foundations in English." The questionnaire was worded in simple English to ensure respondents were able to understand it. Respondents were reminded that their participation was completely voluntary. Informed consent forms were distributed. Respondents were reminded that data collected would only be used for the purpose of the current study. Respondents were given 15 minutes to answer the questionnaire, and the researcher also stayed in the classroom to answer any questions.

In the questionnaire, there were 36 questions in total, divided into seven sections. The questionnaire employed a six-point scale for participants to indicate their answers (6 strongly agree, 5 agree, 4 tend to agree, 3 tend to disagree, 2 disagree, and 1 strongly disagree). The complete questionnaire is included in Appendix 1.

Interviews

Face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted after preliminary analysis of the questionnaire results. There were areas in the questionnaire results which required explanation, so the interviews filled this gap by providing further explanation and triangulation.

Ten pre-service teachers were randomly interviewed. Interviews were conducted in a counselling room, in which a private environment could help respondents express their feelings about English learning. The researcher first thanked them for participating and explained the purpose of the interview and how it would be conducted. Respondents were reminded the interview would be recorded, and their responses would remain confidential. The language of the interview was Cantonese, the language respondents felt most comfortable with.

Data analysis

Descriptive analyses were used to project motivation and learning strategies for English learning.

Statistical results

Table 1 summarizes the descriptive data. Variables include pre-service teacher preference, pre-service teacher needs, integrative motivation orientation, interest in English, instrumental motivation orientation, English class anxiety, and learning strategies.

A reliability test on the 36-item questionnaire was run to test for internal consistency of all the items. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach alphas) was high, which means the internal consistency of the 36 items in the questionnaire was high (see Table 1).

Table 1

Summary Statistics and Reliability Estimation for the Questionnaire (N=70)

Variables	<i>Subjects</i>	<i>Items</i>	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach Alpha (reliability)
V1: Pre-service teacher preference	70	4	5.11	0.822	0.788
V2: Pre-service teacher needs	70	3	4.33	0.924	0.826
V3: Attitudes toward English speaking people/Integrative motivation orientation	70	2	5.05	0.856	0.768
V4: Interest in English	70	2	5.52	0.838	0.788
V5: Instrumental motivation orientation	70	2	5.09	0.972	0.812
V6: English class anxiety	70	3	3.83	1.212	0.844
V7: Learning strategies					
Eager and active	70	8	3.89	0.786	0.747
Passive	70	12	3.39	0.868	0.792

Among the motivation variables analyzed (V1-V6), Chinese pre-service teacher interest is the most significant factor regarding motivation to learn English (M=5.52), and they also believe learning English is useful (V1 and V5) (M=5.11 and M=5.09). They have an integrative motivation orientation towards English (V4= 5.52). However, they do not see the need to use English as imminent (V2) (M=4.33). Results also show pre-service teachers are anxious when learning English in class (V6) (M=3.83). The learning strategies they employ are generally positive (V7).

Discussion

Preference and needs

Based on the means of the two categories “pre-service teacher preference” and “pre-service teacher needs,” one can see both categories exhibited high means (pre-service teacher preference $M=5.09$, pre-service teacher needs $M=4.33$). Pre-service teacher preference refers to the learning approach or style pre-service teachers of Chinese tend to adopt when learning a foreign language. Questionnaire results indicate pre-service teachers hold strong preferences toward English learning.

Although they are pre-service teachers of Chinese, they do not have a negative attitude towards English and see it as important. One pre-service teacher indicated in an interview that English is an international language which all teachers of all languages should learn so as to broaden their world knowledge with respect to exchanging ideas on teaching and contributing to professional development.

Participants were also aware of the need to learn English even though they may not use English as much as Chinese in their careers. Learning needs refers to what pre-service teachers of Chinese would like to learn. They know English is important to their teacher development. These results are similar to Richards (1993), Fu (1987), and Walter and Balla (1992), who also found Chinese learners in Hong Kong are instrumentally motivated. One participant confirmed this in an interview by saying, “I expect myself to have job promotion in the future, maybe become a school principal or work for the government. English is definitely a must to help my career advancement. If I want to speak on behalf of my school, English is a definite asset.”

Also, participants see English as an important part of learning because they have been encouraged to learn English from a very young age. Additionally, the importance of English learning is heavily stressed in Hong Kong, and English seems to be an inevitable part of their education. One respondent in an interview said he “feel(s) strange to stop learning English.” Biggs (1995) also indicated that the learning strategies of Chinese learners may be activated by a combination of motivating factors: personal ambition, family face, peer support, and interest.

Motivation orientation

The means of “integrative motivation orientation,” “interest in English,” and “instrumental orientation” are high. Conclusions suggested from the results indicate pre-service teachers of Chinese are motivated to learn English because of interest in English and its importance for their futures. One respondent in an interview replied, “I can’t say for sure what tomorrow will bring; maybe I will become a Chinese teacher, maybe I won’t. Who knows? I am sure improving English won’t do me

any harm. Plus being proficient in both Chinese and English can be very impressive, too.” This revealed that this teacher trainee considered being bilingual in an international city an advantage. Another respondent discussed his integrative motivation orientation to learn English in an interview, “Although I will be a Chinese teacher in the future, I like the way English words sound. It is melodic, unlike Cantonese.” Another participant also stated why he liked English in an interview: “I like English because I can make more friends and talk to ’Net friends from different parts of the world. Only talking to local ’Net’ friends in ICQ can be quite boring sometimes. English is the only means to know people across cultures.”

Based on the first two motivation variables’ statistical results and the interview results, new light has been shed on previous research (Fu 1987; Walters & Balla 1992; Biggs 1995; Lin & Detaramani, 1998), which indicates pre-service teachers of Chinese have strong intrinsic motivation. This can be explained by the fact that after participants passed the public examination and English was no longer a worry, they were freed from examination pressure yet continued to study English. They could start to appreciate the English language for its own merits, and intrinsic motivation was enhanced.

Learning strategies

According to the findings of the present study, participants employed different strategies inside and outside the classroom. Learning strategies refer to the techniques pre-service teachers employ when learning English. The following sections explain English learning strategies employed by pre-service teachers of Chinese inside and outside classrooms.

Inside the classroom

One of the statistical findings regarding English learning strategies is that class anxiety is a factor affecting pre-service Chinese language teachers’ motivation toward learning English in class, with a mean of 3.73. The mean of the answer to the question of whether they would be embarrassed to volunteer answering a teacher question was 3.96. When participants were asked whether they felt nervous and confused when they were speaking in English, the mean was 3.89. The statistical results were rather neutral. A respondent commented in an interview, “All our other lectures are conducted in Chinese, and we always communicate with our friends in Cantonese. How possibly could we not feel embarrassed to volunteer answering questions in English? Answering questions in Chinese is fine, we all feel comfortable with it...but not English. ” “Face” is also a hurdle for pre-service teachers of Chinese. This is echoed in the response to another question, of which the mean was 4.06: “When I am in English class, I will only answer when my teacher asks me a question.” Participants only answering questions when teachers asked is embedded in the learning culture in China. Giving

answers without first raising your hand is considered to be impolite. Therefore, most participants were used to a learning culture where they only answer questions when asked.

When asking about participation in English classes, the statistical results showed no clear answer because the means of being passive and only answering easy questions were 3.65 and 3.20 respectively. Though the statistical results were not particularly clear, one respondent revealed his opinion in an interview, “Answering easy questions in class does not show how clever you are. It might project an impression to your classmates that you are flattering your teacher...only answering difficult questions impresses our friends. How can one say we don’t contribute in class? We are only waiting for the right time and the right question to answer only.”

Outside the classroom

According to the results of this research, participants care about their studies outside the classroom. Items like “After I get my English assignment back, I always review my mistakes and correct them as far as I can” had a high mean of 4.37; “When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I immediately ask the teacher for help” had a mean of 4.00, and “When it comes to English homework, I work very carefully, making sure I understand everything” had a mean of 4.20. These results indicate participants’ willingness to spend time outside the classroom reviewing lessons.

However, pre-service teachers’ strategies for dealing with assignments and problems from school work were complicated, and no conclusion could be reached because the means were neutral. The means for participants seeking help just before the assignment due date was 3.51, while for the items “just forget about it when they come across any problems”; “just skim over their homework,” and “When it comes to English homework, I put some effort into it, but not as much as I could” received means of 3.48, 3.37 and 3.44.

One item in the questionnaire asked participants whether they believed in luck and intelligence could bring them good results, and participants again gave a neutral response with a mean of 3.62. Therefore, it is hard to determine whether Chinese learners considered effort an important factor in their academic success. This echoes the results from previous studies (Salili and Hau, 1994; Lin and Detaramani, 1998).

However, it was interesting that participants only paid attention to their academic performance. Anything unrelated to academic English wasn’t a common strategy for English learning. When participants were asked whether they tried learning English by watching TV, listening to pop songs, or watching English movies without reading Chinese subtitles, participants responded differently. They prefer casually learning English through movies and TV but not songs or in a conscious way,

like listening to the dialogues without reading the Chinese subtitles. The results signify the importance of enhancing English teaching by using language arts and a task-based approach to teaching and learning. Participants see English learning as important because it has been stressed extensively by the government, examination authority, parents, and teachers.

Conclusion

This article presented findings concerning pre-service teachers of Chinese English learning motivation and strategies. It was found that participants were motivated to learn English both instrumentally and integratively. They learned English because it was useful for their future and to become acquainted with people across cultures. However, the current primary and secondary education curriculum is still largely exam-oriented, which affects learner attitudes at the tertiary level. This exam-centered policy overlooks the importance of helping learners appreciate the beauty of language itself.

Results also found this group of pre-service teachers of Chinese was passive inside the classroom. They tended to pay less attention to authentic use of the target language, which draws implications to material design. Therefore, ESL educators should put more emphasis on incorporating authentic materials and encourage learners to use language authentically both inside and outside the classroom. By doing so, learners will be able to view authentic language use more positively. Classrooms are inherently an acquisition-poor language learning environment. Therefore materials should be as authentic as possible. For the benefits of the language learners, it is important to select authentic, suitable materials and reflect on the suitability of current classroom pedagogy.

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Appendix 1

Questionnaire for Participants

Dear Students,

Because you are pre-service Chinese language teachers taking English language course, we would like to collect your views on learning English. Please use a pen / pencil to circle the number which best reflect your opinion on the following statement. We very much appreciate your time. Thank you.

		Strongly agree	agree	Tend to agree	Tend to disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Students' preference							
1	I want to take English course to improve my English proficiency.	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Even if I were not required to take an English language course, I would still want to take one.	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	If I had a choice to take language course, I would still want to take an English course.	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I think university students should still take an English language course.	6	5	4	3	2	1
Students' needs							
5	I can see the need of using English to give a presentation.	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Whenever I write diary, I will try to write in English.	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	I can see the need to use English to write academic paper.	6	5	4	3	2	1
Attitudes toward English speaking people / Integrative orientation							
8	I would like to know more about English speaking people	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	The more I get to know the English speaking people, the more I want to be	6	5	4	3	2	1
Interest in English							
10	If I were visiting an English speaking country I would like to be able to speak fluent English	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	I often wish I could read and listen to English fluently.	6	5	4	3	2	1

Instrumental orientation							
12	Studying English can be important for me only because I will need it for my future career.	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	Studying English can make me become a more knowledgeable person.	6	5	4	3	2	1
English class anxiety							
14	It embarrassed me to volunteer answers in our English class.	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in English.	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	6	5	4	3	2	1
Learning Strategies							
17	When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I immediately ask the teacher for help.	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I only seek help just before the assignment due.	6	5	4	3	2	1
19	When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I just forget about it.	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	When it comes to English homework, I put some effort into it, but not as much as I could.	6	5	4	3	2	1
21	When it comes to English homework, I work very carefully, making sure I understand everything.	6	5	4	3	2	1
22	When it comes to English homework, I just skim over.	6	5	4	3	2	1
23	Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I do just enough work to get along.	6	5	4	3	2	1
24	Considering how I study English, I will pass on the basis of sheer luck or	6	5	4	3	2	1

	intelligence because I do very little work.						
25	Considering how I study English, I really try to learn English.	6	5	4	3	2	1
26	After I get my English assignment back, I always review my mistakes and correct them as far as I can.	6	5	4	3	2	1
27	After I get my English assignment back, I don't want to look at my mistakes.	6	5	4	3	2	1
28	After I get my English assignment back, I look over them, but I won't bother to correct them.	6	5	4	3	2	1
29	When I am in English class, I volunteer answers as much as possible.	6	5	4	3	2	1
30	When I am in English class, I answer only easy questions.	6	5	4	3	2	1
31	When I am in English class, I never say anything.	6	5	4	3	2	1
32	When I am in English class, I will only answer when my teacher asks me question.	6	5	4	3	2	1
33	I don't watch English TV.	6	5	4	3	2	1
34	I always watch English movies.	6	5	4	3	2	1
35	I learn English through pop songs.	6	5	4	3	2	1
36	I always try to listen to the English spoken by the TV/movie stars without reading the subtitles.	6	5	4	3	2	1

Thank you very much.

Appendix 2***Summary Statistics and Reliability Estimation for the Questionnaire (N=70)***

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Q1 I want to take an English course to improve my English proficiency.	3.00	6.00	5.31	.760
Q2 Even if I were not required to take an English language course, I would still want to take one.	3.00	6.00	5.03	.905
Q3 If I had a choice to take a language course, I would still want to take an English course.	2.00	6.00	4.79	1.048
Q4 I think university students should still take an English language course.	3.00	6.00	5.31	.806
Q5 I can see the need of using English to give a presentation.	3.00	6.00	5.03	.865
Q6 Whenever I write in a diary, I will try to write in English.	1.00	5.00	3.24	1.090
Q7 I can see the need to use English to write an academic paper.	3.00	6.00	5.03	.865
Q8 I would like to know more about English-speaking people	4.00	6.00	5.24	.739
Q9 The more I get to know English-speaking people, the more I want to be like them.	3.00	6.00	4.86	.915
Q10 If I were visiting an English-speaking country, I would like to be able to speak fluent English	4.00	6.00	5.55	.631
Q11 I often wish I could read and listen to English fluently.	1.00	6.00	5.48	1.089
Q12 Studying English is important for me only because I will need it for my future career.	3.00	6.00	4.93	1.131
Q13 Studying English can make me become a more knowledgeable person.	3.00	6.00	5.24	.786
Q14 It embarrassed me to volunteer answers in our English class.	1.00	6.00	3.96	1.238
Q15 I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in English.	1.00	6.00	3.89	1.175
Q16 I am afraid the other students will	1.00	6.00	3.65	1.395

laugh at me when I speak English.				
Q17 When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I immediately ask the teacher for help.	1.00	6.00	4.00	1.000
Q18 When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I only seek help just before the assignment is due.	2.00	5.00	3.51	.737
Q19 When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I just forget about it.	2.00	5.00	3.48	.828
Q20 When it comes to English homework, I put some effort into it, but not as much as I could.	1.00	5.00	3.44	.948
Q21 When it comes to English homework, I work very carefully, making sure I understand everything.	3.00	6.00	4.20	.818
Q22 When it comes to English homework, I just skim over it.	2.00	5.00	3.37	.820
Q23 Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I do just enough work to get along.	3.00	6.00	4.10	.772
Q24 Considering how I study English, I will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work.	2.00	5.00	3.62	1.014
Q25 Considering how I study English, I really try to learn English.	2.00	4.00	3.48	.633
Q26 After I get my English assignment back, I always review my mistakes and correct them as far as I can.	3.00	6.00	4.37	.902
Q27 After I get my English assignment back, I don't want to look at my mistakes.	1.00	4.00	2.58	.866
Q28 After I get my English assignment back, I look over them, but I won't bother to correct them.	1.00	6.00	3.13	.953
Q29 When I am in English class, I volunteer answers as much as possible.	1.00	6.00	3.34	1.044
Q30 When I am in English class, I answer only easy questions.	2.00	5.00	3.65	.856

Q31 When I am in English class, I never say anything.	1.00	5.00	3.20	1.013
Q32 When I am in English class, I will only answer when my teacher asks me a question.	2.00	5.00	4.06	.703
Q33 I don't watch English TV.	1.00	4.00	2.44	1.055
Q34 I always watch English movies.	3.00	6.00	4.48	1.213
Q35 I learn English through pop songs.	2.00	5.00	3.72	1.098
Q36 I always try to listen to the English spoken by the TV/movie stars without reading the subtitles.	1.00	6.00	3.55	.985
Valid N (listwise)				



Japanese Nursing College Students' Use of English Outside of the Classroom

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Bio Data:

Carmella Lieske has been teaching EFL in Japan since 1993. She has experience teaching not only on the tertiary level at universities, junior colleges, and vocational colleges but also in junior and senior high schools. In the community setting, she has taught L2 students of all ages, ranging from preschool to adult.

Abstract

This paper reports on a pilot study of Japanese nursing college students' use of English outside of the classroom and students' enjoyment in speaking English, their second language (L2). A questionnaire was administered to the population of 77 students enrolled in a compulsory English conversation course. While two-thirds of the students "sometimes" or "often" listen to music in English and one-half "sometimes" or "often" watch movies in English, one-fourth read English and less than one-sixth tried to speak English outside of class. The results were also analyzed according to continuance or non-continuance to an elective English conversation course. Data analysis using frequency statistics showed that enjoyment in speaking English was a statistically significant difference between the two groups of students. The paper concludes with four classroom implications.

Keywords: L2 use outside of the classroom, Japanese learner, Japanese EFL classroom, enjoyment in using English, nursing college

Introduction

Horwitz (1987) has asserted that a great deal of second language (L2) learning takes place outside of the classroom, and research has demonstrated the positive relationship between out-of-class exposure to the L2 and success in language learning. For example, Ellis (1994, p. 549) reviewed the good language learning studies and found five major aspects of successful language learning, including active involvement in the learning and “seeking out opportunities for natural language use” (i.e., out-of-class use). Similarly, Gan’s (2004) study of Chinese university students showed that effort management strategies (e.g., selecting English materials for self-study, setting aside a regular time for studying English outside of class) are a good predictor of language performance. Proponents of extensive reading echo the importance of out-of-class L2 contact by emphasizing out-of-class reading, a wide range of materials, and student freedom to select what to read (Bamford & Day, 1997). This out-of-class English reading has been shown to not only contribute to language learning success but also result in students starting to “enjoy language learning and to value their study of English” (Nation, 1997, Conclusion).

Although studies such as these have demonstrated the importance and benefits of out-of-class English use, typical L2 students have very few opportunities to use their language skills (e.g., listening; Decker, 2004) outside of an academic environment. The vast majority of Japanese learners are no exception (e.g., Helgesen, 2000). Krashen (2004) emphasized the instructors’ role in remedying this situation; he insisted instructors must help students get more (i.e., quantity) out-of-class comprehensible input that they are interested in (e.g., books, magazines, comics, tapes, TV shows, movies). However, opportunity, alone, may be insufficient. Paul (1998) asserted that Japanese students do not have the ability to use English outside of the classroom. Like Krashen, Field (2007) stated that this shortcoming must be rectified by instructors, who have a responsibility to provide students with the ability to learn outside of the classroom.

In order to help students seek out-of-class opportunities to use their L2 and to provide them with the ability to use these chances, it is necessary to first understand how much and in what contexts students already use English outside of the classroom. There have, however, been few studies quantifying this exposure. In one, Gan, Humphreys, and Hamp-Lyons (2004) found successful students used out-of-class learning and practicing activities, but they discussed learning strategies the students used (e.g., memorizing words by rote) rather than quantifying uses. Another study found 20 German-speaking undergraduate students’ most frequent out-of-class activity was listening to the radio; the students rarely watched movies (Pickard, 1996). In addition, these students said they read newspapers, novels, and magazines as often as several times a month (Pickard, 1996). In spite of extensive searches of many major databases, similar studies of Japanese students could not be found, although Sato did imply Japanese students lack out-of-class use when noting that one of the positive

results of a new course was that university students “*started* to use English outside the classroom” (2002, Conclusion, para. 1, emphasis added).

Motivation for Study

Researchers have insinuated Japanese students have very few chances to use English outside of class, but students’ outside usage has not been quantified. In addition, there has been a general lack of research at Japanese nursing colleges, with the majority of the studies conducted at universities. As a result, the first motivation for the current study was a desire to understand how these nursing college students actually use their English outside of the classroom. It was hoped that after implementing this knowledge in the classroom, students would be empowered to expand their outside usage.

At the Japanese prefectural nursing college at which this study was conducted, students must take one semester of English conversation during the second semester of their first year. Each semester is 12 to 15 weeks long, and all English conversation classes meet once a week for 90 minutes. The students can take an additional semester of English conversation during the first semester of their second year, and students who participate on a study tour to the United States are required to take this course. The author has been teaching at this junior college without being able to discern, during the mandatory course, noticeable differences between students who choose to take the elective course and those who do not. First of all, students seem to enjoy the mandatory course. All of the students willingly participate, and the students generally have positive attitudes toward English. A previous study showed that over half of the students liked or loved English and none answered that they hated English (Lieske, 2004). Secondly, although traditionally approximately half of the students have taken the elective course, it has been difficult to accurately predict who will take the elective course. Neither credit hours nor tuition are factors in each student’s decision. Some students who the author anticipated would take the elective course did not. Similarly, some of the students, who the author predicted would not continue their studies, did. Furthermore, there is sparse literature discussing non-English majors who take elective L2 conversation courses at the tertiary level. As a result, the second inducement to conduct the study was a desire to discover some of the influences on the students’ decision to continue their study of English.

Method

Scope of Study

The research discussed in this paper was part of a larger study that also looked at perceived language ability and confidence. The portion of the study under discussion addressed the following questions.

1. To what extent do these nursing college students enjoy speaking English?

2. It is often said that Japanese really love foreign movies and listening to foreign music (e.g., Arao, 1998). How frequently do the students watch movies and listen to music in English?
3. Do the students read English outside of class? What do they read?
4. Did the students try to speak English outside of the classroom?
5. Are there differences between the students who took the elective course and those who did not? In other words, are enjoyment in speaking English and use outside of the classroom influencing the decision to continue L2 studies?

It was hypothesized that compared to speaking, listening to music, and watching movies, the least number of students would read English outside of class.

Subjects

The questionnaire was administered to all 77 of the first-year students (3 male, 74 female) at a Japanese prefectural nursing junior college.

Data Elicitation

A questionnaire (see Appendix) was administered during the last class of the compulsory English conversation course. The questionnaire had been modified and expanded after trials at the same tertiary institution. The questionnaire and its purposes were explained. The students were assured their answers would not affect their semester grades and were informed that the questionnaires would not be examined until after the semester grades had been determined. The study is, however, limited by the possibility that students were not honest when answering the questionnaire items.

Data Analysis

Responses to each item were tallied, and percentages were calculated and analyzed for the population (N=77) of first-year nursing college students. They were also examined according to the variable of election to take the English conversation course. The first group, 55.8% of the population, is comprised of 43 students (1 male, 42 female) who elected to take the English conversation course with a native-speaking instructor the following semester (hereafter referred to as continuing students). The remaining 44.2% of the population (2 male, 32 female) are those students who did not take the elective course (referred to as non-continuing students for the remainder of this paper).

Results

Enjoyment in Speaking English

On the questionnaire, students were asked, "Do you enjoy speaking English?" In order to elicit the general sentiment, the question did not specify the environment in which English is spoken. Twenty-

eight students (36.4% of the population) indicated they enjoy speaking English, and another 41.6% noted that they enjoy speaking English but only with foreigners. None of the students responded “not at all.”

Table 1. Enjoy speaking English (N=77)

Enjoyment	Continuing Students		Non-continuing Students	
	n=43	%	n=34	%
Yes.	23	53.5	5	14.7
Yes, but only with foreigners.	15	34.9	17	50.0
Not really.	5	11.6	12	35.3
Not at all.	0	0.0	0	0.0

Note. Percent response is for each column.

A two-way chi square test was performed with a Bonferroni adjustment to the alpha level of .05, resulting in an alpha value of .01 (i.e., .05/5). The continuing and non-continuing students’ responses to “Enjoy speaking English” were found to be significantly different (13.71, $df=3$, $p<.01$).

As Table 1 demonstrates, 23 continuing students (53.5%) said they enjoy speaking English. In contrast, half of the non-continuing students qualified their answer, limiting enjoyment to situations with foreigners. This result was surprising because the non-continuing students reduced their opportunities to speak with a foreigner when they chose to discontinue their L2 studies. The responses to this question were found to be significantly different using a two-way chi square test (13.71, $df=3$, $p<.01$) with a Bonferroni adjustment to the alpha level (i.e., .05/5). This indicates enjoyment in speaking English is a factor these nursing college students considered when deciding whether to take the elective English conversation class.

Students’ Use Outside of the Classroom

Four uses of English—reading, speaking, watching movies, and listening to music— outside of the classroom were investigated. There was a wide range in the amount of English use, with five students indicating they read English outside of class, “sometimes” or “often” listen to music and watch movies in English, and tried to speak English. On the other end of the spectrum, four students indicated they use English minimally. They did not try to speak English. Furthermore, they do not read English outside of class and “almost never” or “never” use English to listen to music or watch movies.

Table 2. Uses of English outside of class (N=77)

Uses	Total		Continuing Students		Non-continuing Students	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Read English outside of class						
Yes.	19	25.3	12	27.9	7	21.9
No.	56	74.7	31	72.1	25	78.1
Total	75 ^a	100.0	43	100.0	32	100.0
Speak English outside of class						
Yes.	12	15.6	9	20.9	3	8.8
No.	65	84.4	34	79.1	31	91.2
Total	77	100.0	43	100.0	34	100.0
Watch movies in English						
Yes, often.	8	10.4	5	11.6	3	8.8
Yes, sometimes.	30	39.0	19	44.2	11	32.4
Yes, but not very often.	19	24.7	10	23.3	9	26.5
Almost never.	17	22.1	7	16.3	10	29.4
Never.	3	3.9	2	4.7	1	2.9
Total	77	100.1 ^b	43	100.1 ^b	34	100.0
Listen to music in English						
Yes, often.	19	24.7	9	20.9	10	29.4
Yes, sometimes.	32	41.6	19	44.2	13	38.2
Yes, but not very often.	15	19.5	9	20.9	6	17.6
Almost never.	9	11.7	4	9.3	5	14.7
Never.	2	2.6	2	4.7	0	0.0
Total	77	100.1 ^b	43	100.0	34	99.9 ^b

Note. Percent response is for each column.

Two-way chi square tests were performed with a Bonferroni adjustment to the alpha level of .05, resulting in an alpha value of .01 (i.e., .05/5). The above uses of English outside of class were not found to be significantly different for continuing and non-continuing students at $p < .01$.

^a Non-response from two students resulted in N=75.

^b Due to rounding.

Reading English material.

Contrary to my hypothesis, more students read English than attempted to speak it (Table 2), with more continuing than non-continuing students (27.9% and 21.9%, respectively) indicating they read. The most common types of English reading material were books (37.5% of the students who read English), magazines (16.7%), the Internet (12.5%), and newspapers (8.3%).

Speaking English outside of class.

Over 80% of the students did not try to speak English outside of the classroom. This was a little surprising for two reasons. First, although over one-third of the students indicated they enjoy speaking English and did not restrict this enjoyment to conversations with foreigners, only 15.6% of

the population (Table 2) attempted to speak English outside of class. Second, at the beginning of the semester, students were asked to choose which skill (i.e., reading, speaking, listening, writing) they thought would be the most useful when they use English in the future, and over two-thirds of the students responded “speaking”.

The continuing students’ enjoyment in speaking English is reflected in their efforts to speak English. While 8.8% of the non-continuing students noted they tried to speak English outside of class (Table 2), 20.9% of the continuing students said they had attempted to do so.

Watching movies in English.

Thirty-eight students (49.4% of the population) indicated they “sometimes” or “often” watch movies in English (Table 2), with more continuing than non-continuing students giving these responses.

Listening to music in English.

The most common use of English outside of the classroom was listening to music, with 66.3% of the population (Table 2) noting they “sometimes” or “often” listen to music. Unlike the previous uses of English, slightly more non-continuing than continuing students indicated they “sometimes” or “often” listen to music in English. Only continuing students indicated they “never” listen to music in English.

Relationship between Enjoyment in Speaking and English Usage

Since enjoyment was found to be a significant difference between the continuing and non-continuing students, the relationship between English use outside of the classroom and enjoyment in speaking was examined. Although causality, whether enjoyment preceded usage or vice versa, cannot be determined, students who used English outside of the classroom more often noted they enjoy using English than not.

Table 3. Relationship between uses of English and enjoyment

Use and Enjoyment	Continuing Students		Non-continuing Students	
Read and	n=12	%	n=7	%
Enjoy speaking.	8	66.7	4	57.1
Only enjoy with foreigners.	3	25.0	3	42.9
Do not really enjoy speaking.	1	8.3	0	0.0
Speak outside of class and	n=9	%	n=3	%
Enjoy speaking.	8	88.9	1	33.3
Only enjoy with foreigners.	1	11.1	2	66.7
Do not really enjoy speaking.	0	0.0	0	0.0
Often/sometimes watch movies and	n=24	%	n=14	%
Enjoy speaking.	15	62.5	4	28.6
Only enjoy with foreigners.	9	37.5	6	42.9
Do not really enjoy speaking.	0	0.0	4	28.6
Often/sometimes listen to music and	n=28	%	n=23	%
Enjoy speaking.	16	57.1	5	21.7
Only enjoy with foreigners.	10	35.7	12	52.2
Do not really enjoy speaking.	2	7.1	6	26.1

None of the students who tried to speak English outside of class (Table 3) answered “not really” to the question, “Do you enjoy speaking English?” This is not, however, unexpected since it would be unusual for a student who does not enjoy speaking English to go out of his/her way to do so outside of class. Krashen (2004, *The Alternative*, para. 1) concluded that pleasure “is the only path” to language acquisition, and the relationship in the current study between attempts to speak English outside of class and enjoyment in speaking English emphasizes the importance of enjoyment.

As with speaking, there was a close relationship between reading and enjoyment, with only one continuing student (8.3%) reading English but not really enjoying speaking English. However, compared to reading and speaking, more students watch movies and listen to music in English but do not find enjoyment in speaking English. The speaking skill is not actually required to read, listen to music, or watch movies. Furthermore, foreign music and movies are not only abundantly available but also popular in Japan, and informal discussions with students indicated students often do these things because of the pop culture in which they live rather than considering the English-language aspect of the movies and music.

The tendency for non-continuing students to limit their enjoyment to specific interactions (i.e., only with foreigners) was once again apparent. Two of the three students who restricted their enjoyment but tried to speak English were non-continuing students. Similarly, between 42.9 to 52.2% of the non-continuing students who used English outside of the classroom to read, watch movies, and listen to music qualified their pleasure in speaking English.

Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

Over three-quarters of the students indicated they find enjoyment in speaking English, suggesting they do not have negative attitudes toward speaking English. As a result, Takakubo's (2002) claim that a major obstacle to becoming communicatively proficient is Japanese student nurses' negative feelings toward English should be investigated further. The results of this study also suggest that the students may not be as apathetic, demotivated, and hopeless as some of the L2 literature suggests (e.g., Burden, 2002; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; McVeigh, 2001). Consequently, like O'Donnell's (2003) study, this study has emphasized the importance of understanding (e.g., through research) one's own students rather than only relying on other people's research and broad generalizations.

Increase Enjoyment

Continuing students indicated they enjoy speaking English more than the non-continuing students, with over half of the continuing students enjoying speaking while half of the non-continuing students limit their enjoyment to interactions with foreigners. Enjoyment was found to be a statistically significant difference between the two groups of students, suggesting it was a factor in their choice to continue their L2 studies. In addition, enjoyment was an indicator of L2 use outside of the classroom, specifically for speaking. These results suggest that it is necessary to help more students discover the joy in speaking English. Students' may also benefit from an increased awareness of how the attitude, "English is only enjoyable when spoken with a foreigner," restricts their use and development of English.

Heightening students' enjoyment and awareness is the first pedagogical implication of this study, but this does not suggest an L2 curriculum of "fun and games" or a weakening of classroom structure. While no instructor can deny the value of using classroom material that encourages students to enjoy using their English, most instructors would also quickly add that enjoyable classes should not be equated with easy ones. Instead, enjoyable learning environments are those that are friendly, put the students at ease so the psychological hindrances of speaking and studying in the L2 are reduced, and increase the number of opportunities for students to discover the pleasure in studying and using English. While this is not a new discovery, it is sometimes helpful to revisit those classroom procedures that facilitate learning (e.g., decreasing harmful anxiety; "breaking the ice ... at the beginning of the course," Sato, 2002, Conclusion, para. 2; using modelling during pair practice rather than pointing out an individual's errors in front of the class).

Increase Awareness of Out-of-class Speaking Opportunities

This study found a majority of the nursing college students only speaks English in the classroom. Equally important, all of the students who tried to speak English outside of class enjoy speaking

English but not all of the students who enjoy speaking English used it outside of class. Consequently, the second pedagogical implication is that students must be made more aware of opportunities that already exist to use English in comfortable, enjoyable environments outside of the classroom. For example, foreigners from all over the world (e.g., international research students, English teachers and Coordinators for International Relations on The Japanese Exchange and Teaching Programme) regularly participate in international events sponsored by Boards of Education, municipalities, and private organizations. An example of such an event is the informal dinner parties that are periodically hosted by one of the local English conversation schools. The parties are open to the general public, and 50 to 70 people usually attend these dinners, allowing the participants to use English as a lingua franca with people from around the world. For non-continuing students, who were more likely to restrict their pleasure in speaking English to interactions with foreigners, events of this type may be particularly appealing since between one-fourth and three-fourths of the attendees are foreigners. Equally important, by observing Japanese interacting with each other in English, the non-continuing students may realize they can enjoy using English without having to speak to foreigners.

Encouraging students to use English as a living language beyond the classroom provides a natural extension to English communication classes, and as a result, in class I plan to announce events I will participate in and to encourage students to not only attend but also be actively involved while there. In the past, I did not inform students of such events because of the cost of participating and the logistics of transportation, but even if students do not participate, their awareness of opportunities to use English outside of the classroom will increase so they may become more conscious of other events in the future.

Incorporate Music into the Classroom

Listening to music was the most frequent use of English outside of the classroom, with two-thirds of the students “sometimes” or “often” listening to music. In addition, listening to music appealed to students who do not really enjoy speaking English. Gan, Humphreys, and Hamp-Lyons (2004, p. 238) found “positive language learning experiences seem to trigger the development of intrinsic motivational processes in learners.” As a result, the third implication of this study is the incorporation of music into the curriculum and is the direct result of an increased awareness of students’ uses of English. Currently, music is only used in classes near Christmas as a means of increasing linguistic and cultural knowledge. The music portions of those classes have always been popular with the students, but music did not seem pertinent enough to be regularly included in classes at the nursing college. Music can, however, be used in a countless number of ways. For example, Robbie (2000) discussed using song titles to teach communication strategies, and Evans Nachi (2003) gave an activity that builds students’ vocabulary and raises their awareness of grammatical errors. Music can

also be used to teach culture (e.g., Kimura, 2003), as a theme for interactive mini-lectures (e.g., Nunn & Lingley, 2004), during short warm-up periods that encourage students to use incomplete comprehension to deduce meaning (e.g., Porter & Roberts, 1987), and in activities. One example of the latter is using a song's lyrics to help students begin to chunk input rather than interpreting meaning at the word level (e.g., Morley, 1991).

Incorporating more music into classes may increase students' interest and, therefore, increase their length of study. The free comment section of the questionnaire provided additional support for this premise. Two non-continuing students who indicated they do not really enjoy speaking English mentioned music. One noted her desire for more practical English and specifically suggested music. Unless the students understand the benefits of the music-related activities, however, they may underestimate their value or even reject them; they may also discount them as undemanding and therefore unimportant (Shimo, 2002). Consequently, the activities' purposes must be clearly explained.

After discovering students' preference for listening to music (i.e., more than twice as many students "often" listen to music as watch movies), L2 textbooks currently available in Japan were examined. While one textbook always had a question about music in the same unit that had an item about movies (e.g., "How often do you listen to music?" and "How often do you rent videos?"), other textbooks were not as balanced. Movies and actors were the topic of units and practice questions much more often than music and popular musicians. Consequently, when selecting a textbook and determining its appeal to students, instructors should consider not only such things as face validity, vocabulary, activities, and embedded learning aides but also the topic of each unit and the practice questions. In addition, instructors should consider adding music-related material to their supplemental materials, when appropriate.

Provide More "Fun" Out-of-class Reading

The final pedagogical implication is related to reading English outside of class. After discovering that one-fourth of the students read English outside of class, I realized e-mail might be well received and some students may find it beneficial in developing their L2 skills. Consequently, to provide more opportunities for students to do casual reading outside of the classroom, the author is planning to send weekly e-mails to students who are interested (e.g., those who sign up or indicate an interest on a beginning-of-the-semester questionnaire). The e-mails will utilize students' interests (e.g., sending information about musicians and actors, including Internet links to entertainment sites). Based on informal discussions with students about what they would be interested in reading, I also plan to send games, short letters, and links to Internet sites that allow students to simultaneously read and listen and to sites that have pictures and explanations about foreign countries, their cultures, and their

holidays. During the semester, students who were not initially interested will be offered the chance to join the e-mail group. It is hoped that these e-mails will heighten some students' interest in as well as facilitate a gradual transition toward enjoying more aspects of English outside of class. This use of e-mail seems obvious now but had been previously discounted because of the assumption that students would be too busy to read the e-mails or would not be interested in them.

Conclusions

Students who do not enjoy using English and students who almost never use it outside of the classroom provide instructors, including the author, with the challenge of helping them discover the joy of using English both in and out of the classroom. This pilot study provided insight into some of the students' habits and attitudes, and by applying this understanding, it is hoped that a classroom environment which helps more students discover the joy of speaking English will be created, thereby positively affecting the number of students who take the elective course and increasing students' efforts to use English outside of the classroom.

The study has not, however, provided definitive reasons for each student's choices. Instead, it has identified important points for further research. It is unclear why non-continuing students are more likely to limit their enjoyment in speaking English to interactions with foreigners. Equally prominent, enjoyment in speaking English is not the only factor when deciding to continue L2 studies or to try to use English outside of the classroom. Discovering other factors could have wide-ranging ramifications on classroom instruction, materials, and management (e.g., the weekly e-mails).

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Appendix

End-of-the-semester questionnaire items discussed in this article.

13. Did you try to speak English outside of class? Yes No

14. Do you watch movies in English?

- a. Yes, often.
- b. Yes, sometimes.
- c. Yes, but not very often.
- d. Almost never.
- e. Never.

15. Do you listen to music in English?

- a. Yes, often.
- b. Yes, sometimes.
- c. Yes, but not very often.
- d. Almost never.
- e. Never.

16. Do you read English outside of class work? Yes No

If yes, please circle all that apply.

- a. Books.
- b. Magazines.
- c. Manga/cartoons.
- d. Newspapers.
- e. The Internet.
- f. Other _____

17. Do you enjoy speaking English?

- a. Yes.
- b. Yes, but only with foreigners.
- c. Not really.
- d. Not at all.