2. Literature Review

2.1 Bilingual Advertising

Bilingual advertising is a major trend in many parts of the world. According to Piller (2001) for instance, 60-70% of advertisements in Germany were multilingual in 1999. A great number of researchers have studied bilingual advertising with different aspects; bilingual people as target consumers (e.g., Roslow & Nicholls, 1996; Luna & Peracchio, 2005; Chang, 2006), structure of foreign language (e.g., Hsu, 2006; Wang & Chen, 2006; Chen, 2006), as well as country-of-origin of the products (e.g., Neelankavil *et al.*, 1995; Wang & Chen, 2006).

For example, Roslow and Nicholls (1996) concluded that the advertising message in Spanish was a more effective strategy targeting Hispanic consumers in the United States. Luna and Peracchio (2001) took a psycholinguistic approach and showed that advertising messages in a second language result in inferior memory because the bilinguals are less likely to process the message in second language conceptually than they process the message in their first language. In linguistic studies, Martin (2002) proposes what she calls "A cline of code-mixed advertising" as a way to classify advertisements by measuring the ratio of English and local language. Martin argues that structural analysis of the proportion of English and local language would be "a useful tool for uncovering cross-linguistic and cross-cultural universals in code-mixed advertising" (p. 399). As discussed, there have been

many different approaches in studying foreign language in advertising.

2.2 Bilingual Advertising in Taiwan

The trend of the mixing of foreign languages in Taiwanese advertising has been significant enough to catch numerous researchers' attentions. According the past studies, 80% (Wang *et al.*, 1997) or 83% (Cutler *et al.*, 1995) of print advertising in magazines in Taiwan have Western languages in them. Neelankavil *et al.* (1995) concluded that the choice of using foreign language in print advertising in East Asian countries is related to consumer country; even though foreign languages were found in advertisements from all four countries, the ratio of appearance was significantly higher in Hong Kong and Taiwan than in Japan and Korea. In fact, overuse of foreign language in advertising is prohibited in Korea (Mueller, 2006). While English is the most frequently used foreign language in Taiwanese advertising, Japanese language is the second most often used foreign language (Wang & Yang, 2006; Wang & Chen, 2006).

Country-of-origin is another popular research topic among bilingual advertising studies as foreign language is one of the major information cues for the product's country-of-origin (Wang & Chen, 2006), and yet there are surprising findings in the past studies of Taiwanese advertising regarding the relation between country-of-origin and foreign language. Neelankavil *et al.* (1995) studied which marketing factors influence the choices of Western language in advertising in four East Asian countries, and argue that it is

surprising that "the use of a Western language in advertisements does not seem to be related significantly to the country-of-origin or the target audience" (p. 33). Wang and Yang (2006) systematically examined 91 television commercials with Japanese language in Taiwan (4% of 2,364 commercials collected in the study) and discovered 30 of them (32% of 91) were advertisements for Japanese products, but there were in fact even more commercials, 40 (44%), for products that are not from Japan but from Taiwan, the United States, Korea, and China. One of them was a commercial for a French shampoo and yet contained such a significant amount of Japanese language that audience may easily associate the product with Japan, instead of France. It is suggested that the choice of foreign language in advertising may not always be due to the product's "actual" country-of-origin; which may suggest that there are other reasons for the use of foreign languages.

English in advertising has been analyzed often with a structural approach. In his study, Chen (2006) collected a total of 226 samples of English words in print advertising from 64 volumes of 43 magazines in Taiwan. The results showed that nearly one half of the English words and phrases were noun phrases, such as *Spa* and *VIP*. Other common usages are adjective phrases (*easy*, *fun*, etc.), alphabets (*e*, *Q*, *A*, etc.), and verb phrases (*go*, *buy*, *play*, etc.), and these top four most common usages measure up to 91.7 percent of all.

In another study, Hsu (2000) analyzed 1,263 advertisements in Taiwanese

newspapers and magazines, and then he classified the patterns of nativized English from the structural point of view. Nativization of English means that "the linguistic patterns... deviate systematically from the standard English grammar" (p. 183), which is "due to either copywriter's originality or their lack of good English proficiency" (p. 181). There are seven patterns of nativization in Taiwanese advertising: 1) All-English phrase (e.g. *easy play*, *easy go*), 2) All-English sentence (e.g. *Give me high, Green your heart*), 3) English words mixed in a Chinese sentence (e.g. *給你最 fly 的音樂* - literally meaning Giving you the most flying music, or Hsu translates it as, "I'll show you the most enjoyable music that will make you feel like flying.." -), 4) All-English compounds (e.g. *e-color, e-people*), 5) English, Mandarin, and Southern-Min mixing (e.g. *希望房價的人買到保證 You happy, he happy everybody 攏 happy*. – Hsu translates this as "For those who want o buy residential real estate properties at the lowest cost, we guarantee that your purchase with us will make everyone happy"), 6) Chinese-English mixing phrases (e.g. *easy 敷* – "cosmetics which can be put on the face easily," *easy 抽* – "a piece of tissue paper which can be easily drawn from the box"), and 7) an English sentence in a Chinese grammar style (e.g. *Season over the leaves that love us. Where can give us so fresh so much as here?*).

2.3 Taiwanese Consumers' Attitudes towards English in Advertising

Chen (2006) reported that 85.5% of Taiwanese consumers had positive attitudes towards English in advertising. The three main reasons for such attitudes, according to her

survey results, are that English in advertising provides opportunities for learning English (17.0% of all samples content-analyzed), adds expressiveness and make the advertising more interesting (13.3%), and links English to daily life (10.3%). Manabe's (2006) study shows that Taiwanese consumers foresee that advertisements will have more English words in the future, and the majority of them welcome such trend. Only a small segment of Taiwanese consumers find it unacceptable. In his study of nativized English in advertising, Hsu (2000) conducted a survey and found that among the seven patterns, All-English phrases are most accepted positively, while long English sentences in Chinese style are least accepted by Taiwanese consumers. He also reports that those whose English level is very high or very low are most critical about English in advertising, while those whose level is medium tend to accept it. Chiang (2001) concludes that Taiwanese consumers' attitude towards foreign language have positive correlations with attitudes towards the advertisement, the brand, and purchase intentions. On the contrary, however, English in advertising is not necessarily well accepted in Japan (Manabe, 2006) or in Netherlands (Gerritsen *et al*, 2000). English in advertising has been a popular research topic and the researchers must keep analyzing it in the future from various approaches for better understanding.

2.4 Functions of the Use of English in Advertising

Despite the various studies discussed earlier, there are too few studies that have

closely examined the functions of the use of foreign language in ads in advertising studies. Analyzing the functions of the use of foreign language in ads may not only help us understand the advertising content, but also sheds light on the cultural or linguistic reasons of why ads are created bilingually. The present content analysis takes functional approach with a linguistics and sociolinguistics aspect, and focuses on the six code-mixing functions shown in the summary. The following are a comprehensive review of the studies of bilingual advertising in advertising studies and in linguistics studies. First Attention-Getting and Impression-Giving Functions are discussed which are most frequently analyzed and recognized English use by previous researcher, then Mixing Functions are reviewed with the linguistics and sociolinguistics aspect, which is the focus of the present study.

2.4.1 Attention-Getting Function

It is agreed by many researchers that one of the most significant purposes of the use of English in advertising is to attract the reader's attentions, as Bhatia calls those English "attention-getters" (Bhatia, 1992; Lee, 1998; Lee, 2007; Hsu, 2007). For instance, Piller (2001) reported that significant amount of the slogans and the headlines of advertisements in Germany were in English. Bhatia (1992) argues that attentions-getters like headlines, subheadlines, and some of the product names in English can be witnessed in various cultures such as Hindi, Chinese, as well as Japanese. The use of foreign language satisfies one of the advertising goals because "it impedes automatic processing and thereby arrests

the attention of recipients for a longer timespan" (p. 163). The forms of Attention-Getting

function vary from "visual and verbal metaphors, hyperbolic statements (e.g. *now*, *new*,

improved, *unique*, *best*)" (Vestergaard & Schrøder, 1985, cited in Martin, 2002) to "rhyme,

rhythm, assonance, consonance, and alliteration" (Cook, 1992; Grunig, 1990, cited in

Martin 2002).

2.4.2 Impression-Giving Function

Second most importantly, as suggested by numerous scholars and researchers,

foreign languages may give certain impressions to the audience. In German advertising,

French words are associated with pervasive eroticism, and Italian words are associated with

good life and food (Piller, 2001). French words are also intended to give a sense of "high

elegance, refined taste, attractiveness, sophisticated life style, fascination and charm" in

Japanese advertising (Haarmann, 1986, p. 11). Japanese language gives "fashionable"

impressions to Taiwanese audience (Wang & Yang, 2006, p. 179). While "foreign

languages other than English are used in advertising to form an association with an

ethno-cultural stereotype, ... English is used to form an association with a specific social

stereotype, i.e. modernity" (Gerritsen, 2007, p. 309). It has been agreed that English can

trigger a sense of specific impressions like technology and science, modernization, or

internationalization, but that is not all. There are quite a few impressions suggested by many

researchers. Appendix 1 shows various impressions of English words in advertising,

collected from the past scholarly journals and research papers.

2.4.3 Mixing Functions

Besides Attention-Getting Function and Impression-Giving Function, notably many other functions of the use of English in advertising have been discussed in many studies. There are, however, seemingly chaotic floods of discussions because some researchers studied the same topic but with different terms or without any specific term at all. Reviewing in linguistic approach would help us integrate all possible functions. In the following part, related theories in linguistics are reviewed in the first few paragraphs, and then each respective function is discussed in association with advertising.

The use of another language in various forms in speech is most commonly referred as code-mixing or code-switching, and numerous researchers in linguistics or sociolinguistics studies have studied verbal communications as well as advertising language in various cultures. Gumperz (1982) defines conversational code-switching as "the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" (p. 59). Although researchers have different opinions and the distinction between code-mixing and code-switching has yet not come to a clear conclusion, it is the general understanding that code-mixing is intrasentence and code-switching is intersentence mixing of two or more languages. In other words, it is code-mixing when there is a foreign word in the middle of a sentence, and it is

code-switching when a sentence is followed by another sentence in a different language. Unlike verbal speeches, advertising messages consist of very unique parts such as names, slogans, headlines, copy body, and some of them are formed with sentences, others are sometimes made of one word. Therefore the current study does not attempt to distinguish the code-mixing and code-switching, but instead apply the existing theories to advertising language.

There exist two major approaches in this field of study; structural and functional approaches. Structural approaches examine the linguistic and grammatical constructions of bilingual speeches (e.g., Poplack, 1980; Appel & Muysken, 1987; Kamwangamalu, 1991). On the other hand, functional approaches examine "socio linguistic motivation for code switching" and analyze "why do people switch between languages in the course of a single conversation" (Appel & Muysken, 1987, p. 118). Various code-mixing functions have been proposed previously (e.g., Gumperz, 1982; Appel & Muysken, 1987; Hasselmo, 1970).

Two most remarkable studies of functions of code-mixing/-switching are Gumperz's (1982) early work, and Appel and Muysken's (1987) compilation in a later year. Gumperz (1982) suggested that there are seven major functions: 1) quotations, 2) addressee specification, 3) interjections, 4) reiteration, 5) message qualification, and 6) personalization vs. objectivation. Later on, Appel and Muysken (1987) proposed another model by

reviewing not only Gumperz but also other studies, which included: 1) referential, 2) directive, 3) expressive, 4) phatic, 5) metalinguistic, and 6) poetic function. These two theories have been reviewed in many other linguistics studies. Not all of those functions introduced here are applicable to advertising messages, like Appel and Muysken points out that some code-switching could have different functions in various communities as well. Nevertheless, some of them indeed can be applied to advertising messages. The following part discusses selected functions from Gumperz and Appel & Muysken that can be applied to advertising.

Referential Function

One of the most significant functions of code-mixing is the Referential Function. According to Appel and Muysken (1987), Referential Function means that some words in guest language are preferred because they are "semantically more appropriate for a given context" (p. 118). Bilingual speakers do not know the equivalent words in the host language, or simply there is not one. Examples from Lu's (1991) analysis of the group conversations by Chinese-American bilingual church members in Hawaii are "*potluck*, *move on*, *reach out*, *in charge*, *initiate*, *pair up*, and *decision making*" (p. 146), which they do not know how to say in Mandarin Chinese. Kang (1999) also mentions that there are no appropriate Chinese equivalents "to meet the need of new terms in fast-developing high technology" (p. 47). The English words that Chang (2001) categorizes as *Jargons* also fall

into this function, in which he introduces samples such as *demo* (tape). Li (2000) discusses

what he calls *Specificity* function with an example of the use of "*fans*" in Hong Kong. He

says that the variations of Cantonese words for "*fans*" are specifically for song fans, film

fans, or soccer fans. The English word is the "solution" (p. 313) when they want to say fans

in a general sense.

English in advertising have many examples of this function in German (Gerritsen *et al.*, 2007) as well as in Taiwan (Lee, 2007). Gerritsen *et al*. (2007) do not mention the term

"referential function" in their journal, but they certainly do recognize this function as one of

the most common linguistic functions in advertising. Lee (2007) collected 466 commercials

on 12 Taiwanese television channels from 2005 to 2007. His results showed that Referential

Function is the most frequently used function, and the examples are *K-RV*, *bingo*, and

champex.

Poetic Function

Appel and Muysken's (1987) model includes Poetic Function, which means

bilingual puns and jokes. Puns in advertising have been studied in many regions like in

Japan (Tanaka, 1994), in Taiwan (Lee, 1998), and in Hong Kong (Li, 2000). Tanaka (1994)

suggests that "humour, more specifically punning, is one way in which the advertiser

attempts to improve social relations with his audience" in Japan (p. 59). Li (2000)

introduces cases of the word "*fun*" that implicitly means as many as minutes, variety, and

vacation in Cantonese advertising. Martin (2002) gives an example of attention-getting device written in English in French advertising, where she explains that certain alphabets are pronounced otherwise in French and would associate with another English word; therefore they are puns as well. Puns are expected to be a popular form of foreign language in advertising, and are best coded as Appel and Muysken's Poetic Function.

Direct Quotation Function

Significance of the worldwide trend of corporation slogans in English in advertisements is recognized by many researchers. Piller (2001) found 45 % of advertisements in the study had slogans in English. Hagiwara (2004) discusses that the written text of English in Japanese television advertising has increased in the last decade due to the increasing English slogans. Appendix 2 is the list of examples introduced by three scholars. The main reason for using English slogans without hassles of translating is explained with financial (cost-saving) purposes (Gerritsen *et al.*, 2000; Wang & Yang, 2006; Gerritsen *et al.*, 2007). Gerritsen *et al.* (2000) argue that many advertisers keep English in standardized advertising because "they believe that everybody understands English anyway," by citing De Mooij (1994).

Those corporation slogans are suitable to be categorized as Gumperz's (1982) Direct Quotations. Gumperz says many code-switching are "clearly identifiable either as direct quotations or as reported speech" (p. 75-76). A speaker quotes what was said in the original

(guest) language when speaking in his or her host language. Also, Lu's (1991) *Original*

Expressions is similar to Direct Quotations. In his study, Original Expressions refers to

examples in which a group of the informants are talking in Chinese, following the topics on

the agenda written in English, and they state the items in the English like *social activity*,

special topic on dating, *prayer partners*, *money matters*, etc., instead of translating each of

them into Chinese. The corporation slogans are composed not particularly for certain ads

but for corporation and brand promotion in general, but are embedded in the advertisement,

therefore, Direct Quotation Function is best to explain them.

Finally, there are other examples of what are categorized as Direct Quotation

Function, such as proper nouns like personal names and place names (Chang, 2001).

Reiteration Function

Kang (1999) discusses that English sentence is often present along with Chinese

sentence in Chinese advertising in order to give "varieties of form" and emphasize the

importance of visual elements (p. 47). This fashion of advertising design can be well

explained by Gumperz's (1982) Reiteration Function. This function means the messages

that are often "repeated in the other code, either literally or in somewhat modified form" (p.

78). This function is not often recognized in bilingual advertising studies, probably because

the past researchers focused on analyzing only English parts of the advertising messages,

but not the messages in host languages.

The following two functions have never been detected in advertising message in the past studies; however they are common functions of code-mixing in communications in Chinese language. These function were not proposed by Gumperz (1982) nor Appel and Muysken (1987), but are discussed by multiple scholars in the studies of code-mixing between English and Chinese, thus they are expected to be present in Taiwanese advertising as well.

Ease of Expression Function

Ease of Expression Function means that guest language is used even though there is equivalent expression in the host language. The words like "*flier*, *regular*, *information*, *take care*, *get together*, and *item*" come to the informants' mind in Lu's study (1991, p. 147), and such expressions are more common than the equivalents. Li (2000) and Kang (1999) say that this kind of language choices occur because they are shorter. Li discusses with a different term, *Principle of Economy*, and gives often used examples in Hong Kong like "*in*" (means "fashionable" or "trendy") and "*check in*" (p. 317). Shih (1997) finds out that Ease of Expression functions is the most frequently present function of the use of English in Taiwan, with examples like *key persons*, *psycholinguistics*, and *reading*. Chang (2001) classifies the words like *paper*, *meeting*, *apply*, *play*, and *catch* as *Miscellaneous* words because those nouns and verbs do not fall in his other categories like *Names*, *Jargons*, or *Neologism*. Unlike the examples of Neologism (e.g. *bars*), the concept of those words had

long existed in Taiwanese culture, and yet English words are chosen.

Euphemism Function

Euphemism Function is another interesting function found in Chinese speaking communities like in Hong Kong (Li, 2000) and in Taiwan (Chang 2001). Li (2000) says that the word "*bra*" is preferred to Cantonese equivalents so as to refer "without making explicit mention of that potentially embarrassing female body part" (p. 312). Other examples of his are *toilet* and *washroom*. The English words with the same function that Chang (2001) recognizes are *fire* ("to terminate employment") and *copy* ("to violate copyrights in academic papers"), because Taiwanese people would prefer not to directly mention negative words in Mandarin Chinese. The same fashion is expected to be present in Taiwanese advertising.

2.4.4 Other Mixing Functions

A few other mixing functions could be present in advertising message. Appel and Muysken's (1987) *Direction* Function could be present in a unique case, when the message is meant to be for a specific target group (e.g. Californian gubernatorial election candidate's campaign message towards Hispanic voters). Appel and Muysken (1987) also introduce Poplack's (1980) *Expressive* Function, which could explain proper nouns like product, company, and brand names in English in advertising message that help the advertisers to keep the brand identity, or messages that specifically mention that the product is from

English speaking culture if there is any.

Many other functions were proposed by scholars in the past; however it is considered that they are not applicable to study of the use of English (as guest language) in advertising. Here are some examples. Some functions are indeed significant in discourse level, and Hasselmo (1970) is probably the earliest scholar who studied them in detail. By studying Swedish-English bilingual speech, he concluded that there are *content units* and *discourse markers*. Discourse markers include sequence signals, channel establishing signals, channel reinforcing signals, channel closing signals, markers of exemplification, approximation, and unspecified inclusion. Also, Poplack's (1980) *Emblematic* function, Gumperz's (1982) *Interjection* and *Personalization versus Objectivization*, as well as Appel and Muysken's (1987) *Phatic* and *Metalinguistic* functions are expected to be rare cases in advertising messages, because these functions are witnessed in verbal conversations between two or more persons. Other functions are mainly for bilingual speakers, especially when the host language is their second language (English) and they switch to their first language. For example, in Gumperz's (1982) *Message Qualification* function, the message in host language is qualified in greater detail in the guest language. This is not applicable to the current study because English is not the first language to the audience in Taiwanese advertising. Pan (2000) proposes that besides situational and metaphorical code-switching presented by Bloom and Gumperz in 1972, there is also pragmatic, or goal-oriented,

code-switching observed in southern China, where Cantonese and Mandarin Chinese bilingual speakers switch languages for the sake of business interaction.

2.5 Summary of Research Lines regarding the Use of English in Advertising

Numerous studies have been reviewed previously. The functions of the use of English in advertising are once again summarized shortly here, which include: 1) Attention-Getting, 2) Impression-Giving, and 3) Mixing Functions. Most of the previous linguistics studies of English in advertising with functional approach are qualitative analysis, thus the current study aims to introduce a quantitative analysis into the research line of code-mixing in advertising.

Attention-Getting Function

Product names, headlines, and subheadlines in English enhances the effect of attention getters than those in the host language, thus are preferred by many advertisers as already reported. English with Attention-Getting Function can have other functions simultaneously.

Impression-Giving Function

English, like other foreign languages, gives certain impressions to the audience when presented in advertising. It is known that English can easily be associated with technology and science, modernity, and internationalization by large population of the world regardless of their host culture. Many researchers have proposed the impressions of

English in advertising with their own terminologies; however there has never been an integrated list of impressions that is widely agreed and applied in this subject of studies.

Mixing Functions

Six distinctive functions within the Mixing Functions group are; 1) Referential Function, 2) Poetic Function, 3) Direct Quotation Function, 4) Reiteration Function, 5) Ease of Expression Function, and 6) Euphemism Function. They are based on reviewing literature from linguistics and sociolinguistics studies, more specifically code-mixing and code-switching studies. These six functions are the selected code-mixing functions that could be applied in advertising among many other functions. Each function is present in the following situation and with sociolinguistic motivations in Taiwan.

Referential Function
　　– When there is no equivalent expression in Chinese language.
Poetic Function
　　– When expression includes puns and jokes.
Direct Quotation Function
　　– When slogans, proper nouns, and common phrases in English are quoted.
Reiteration Function
　　– When the same expression is repeated in English and in Chinese.
Ease of Expression Function
　　– When English expression is shorter, more convenient, or more common than the equivalent expression in Chinese.
*Euphemism Function*
　　– When avoiding embarrassing or negative expressions in Chinese.

There are obvious differences between the first two groups of functions and the Mixing Functions. Attention-Getting and Impression-Giving Functions are what the English

word and phrase function as advertising elements. According to Vakratsas and Ambler (1999), one of the earliest and most commonly applied advertising models is AIDA model introduced by E. St. Elmo Lewis in 1898: *Attention, Interest, Desire,* and *Action*. English is often used with a purpose of effectively satisfying one of these advertising goals shown in the model by applying Attention-Getting function (Attention) and/or Impression-Giving function (Interest and Desire). On the other hand, the Mixing Functions are classified in linguistics and advertising point of view, to understand what is behind the choice of the English language as supposed to the host language in the giving context.

Figure 1: Summary of Research Lines regarding the Use of English in Advertising
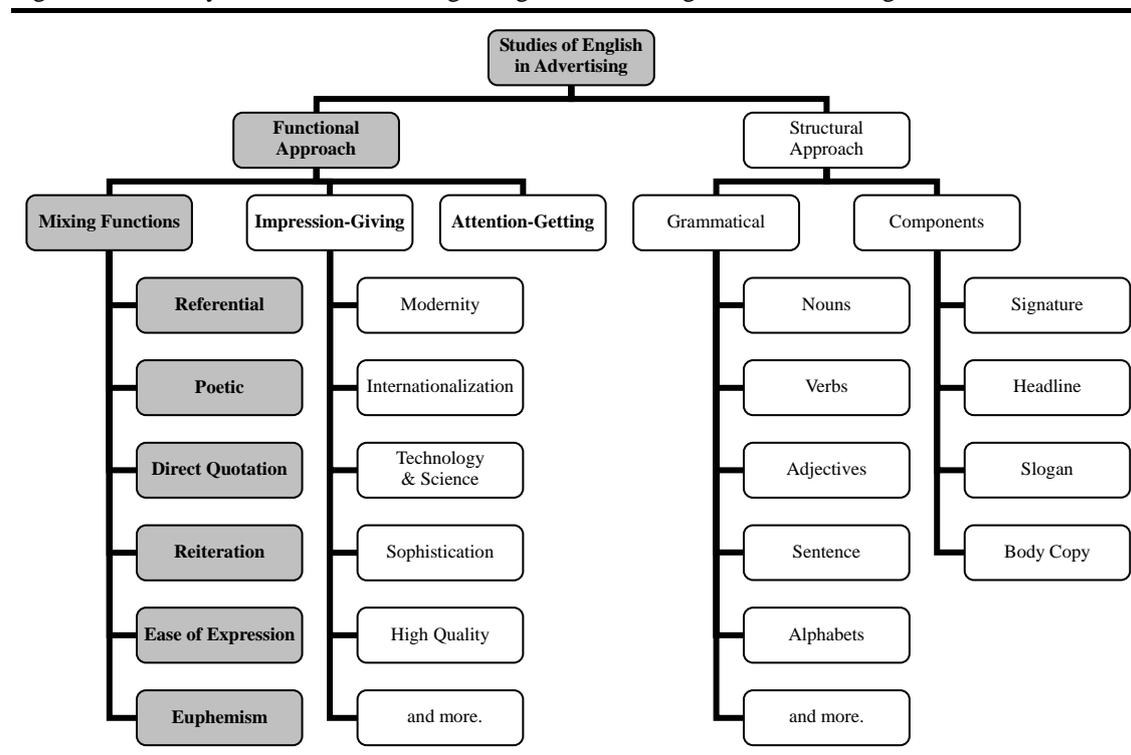
2.6 Critical Review of Past Research

Many scholars and researchers have attempted to classify the various functions of the use of English in Taiwanese advertising, but there are several issues found in their approaches. Three most typical issues are: 1) *misleading group categorizations* – mistakenly listing several functions that in fact should be categorized in different levels; 2) *overlaps of functions* – one English word can have more than one function but scholars often define function categories as mutually exclusive, 3) *subjective lists of impressions* – there has never been a comprehensive list of impressions that English gives to the readers with specific definitions. Details are discussed in the following.

Hsu (2007) concluded that English in Taiwanese newspaper advertising have five major functions: attention-getting, modernization, professionalism, internationalization, and identification, but unfortunately he did not offer detailed definitions for each. Since modernization, professionalism, and internationalization are about certain impressions that the advertisers attempted to convey to audience, although the outcome effects vary, the choice of language can be explained with one function, that is Impression-Giving Function. It would have been better to conclude with three functions: attention-getting, impression-giving, and identification, and then furthermore classify modernization, professionalism, and internationalization at more detailed level under the impression-giving function. The same manner can be found in a study of verbal conversations as well. Chang

(2001) analyzed English code-mixing in Taiwanese people's spoken language and Internet communication language, by categorizing them first in structural approach (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and others) then further in functional approach. He argued that English nouns can be categorized into six functions 1) personal names, 2) brand names, 3) place names, 4) jargons, 5) neologisms, and 6) miscellaneous. In the linguistics perspective, however, the first three functions are all Direct Quotation Function, regardless of what kinds of names they are. Further categorizations of personal, brand, and place names are at a lower level than the categories of functions.

Secondly, many scholars have tendency not to realize that some functions can overlap. English word may well get attentions and give certain impressions at the same time, thus these function should not be exclusive; however Attention-Getting Function and Impression-Giving Function have often been regarded and categorized as exclusive functions in the past studies (Hsu, 2007; Shih, 1997; Lee, 1998). Lee (2007) analyzed 466 television commercials in Taiwan and categorized the functions of mixing (both English and Taiwanese Southern-Min languages in Mandarin Chinese) in nine functions; 1) deepening impression, 2) drawing attention, 3) increasing ethnic identity, 4) enhancing professional image, 5) increasing expressiveness and fun, 6) being easy to remember, 7) ease of expression, 8) referential function, and 9) double identity. Like many other researchers, Lee disregards the possibility of overlapping functions of one English word.

The third issue is regarding numerous yet incomprehensive lists of the impressions that English gives to the readers. Piller (2001) provides detailed discussions of the impressions of English in her discussions; 1) international orientation, 2) future orientation, 3) success orientation, 4) sophistication, and 5) fun orientation. Many other researchers, however, only share a list of impressions but do not give specific definitions of each of them in their studies. As shown in Appendix 1, among dozens of suggested impressions of English, some researchers distinguish modernity and internationality, while others consider internationality as a part of modernity. In addition, some impressions suggested by one researcher is phrased differently by another researcher, but the similarities or differences are never discussed. These confusions are due to researchers' highly subjective perspectives of classifications of the impressions. The same word could be coded differently not only by the researchers but also by the advertisers and the receivers. By quoting Berelson, Leiss *et al.* (1997) emphasize the importance of "objective description" in content analysis in advertising studies. There never has been a complete list of impressions that is widely agreed and applied, because valid content analysis especially quantitative analysis on the vast impressions of English in advertising is nearly impossible.

Gerritsen *et al.* (2007) argue that there are three major reasons why advertising agencies in Europe use English language in advertising; 1) English as an international language, 2) Linguistic aspects, and 3) Product image. First of all, since English is regarded

as global language and is understood by the majority of people, advertisers choose English for international marketing. As for the product image, they argue that various impressions of English language are transferred to the image of products once the consumers see the advertisements. The critical issue in their study is that their argument on linguistic aspects is insufficient. In addition to Referential Function and Ease of Expression Functions, they also discuss that English is chosen as a solutions to cancel the complicated distinctions between formal and informal pronouns in other European languages. Even though Gerristsen *et al.* conclude most thoughtfully and with reliable supportive arguments, their framework still lacks other code-mixing functions of English in advertising.

Studies with systematic content analysis have been too few. Shih (1997) is one of the very few researchers who defined the functions of the use of foreign language in Taiwan and conducted objective content analysis, however her study included not only Southern-Minh (local Taiwanese language) and English, but also all types of oral communications like speeches, lectures, TV and radio programs, daily conversations and so on. There has never been a quantitative analysis specifically on the use of English in advertising in Taiwan. The current study, therefore aims to conduct content analysis for the sake of practical applications of the summary of the functions. The first research question of the study is ought to be;

RQ1: To what extent are the functions of the use of English present in Taiwanese print ads in magazines?

In the time of international marketing and advertising, the advertisers in Taiwanese market vary from local to foreign. English language is foreign to Taiwanese companies, while Chinese language is foreign to many companies from outside of Taiwan. At the same time, English is not necessarily native to those foreign companies depending on which country they are from. On the contrary, some researchers suggest that the language in advertising and country-of-origin do not have significant correlation in Taiwan (Neelankavil *et al*., 1995; Wang & Yang, 2006). With this situation in mind, the current study aims to find out if there are any correlations between country-of-origin and the specific code-mixing functions in the content analysis.

RQ2: Are there any correlations between country-of-origin and the functions?

Bhatia (1992) claimed that advertising message is composed of four parts: 1) signature lines (names of the product, brand, company, and logos), 2) corporation slogans, 3) headlines and subheadlines, and 4) body copy. Each component of an ad has different verbal characteristics than others; for example headlines are usually shorter and easy to understand, on the other hand body copy is more descriptive and detailed. It is then a question whether such differences among the parts of advertising message have any influence the use of English. Therefore, the parts of an ad were coded with the hope to

reveal the features of each function. The third research question is as follows;

RQ3: Are there any correlations between the parts of an ad and the functions?

It is the purpose of the current study to analyze the functions of English in Taiwanese advertising. In the content analysis, the English words and phrases in ads were also coded according to not only the textual components but also advertising appeals. The two most significant advertising appeals, value-expressive and utilitarian appeals are discussed in the following.

2.7 Value-Expressive versus Utilitarian Appeals

How advertising messages are received and processed, then eventually affect the consumer behavior and attitudes, has been one of the biggest questions among advertising researchers in various fields. In psychology study, Petty and Cacioppo (1983) apply what they call central and peripheral routes of persuasive message to advertising. Along with introduction of their Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), they suggest that the route of persuasion depends on the level of involvement, or in other words the consumers' motivation as well as their ability to think about the received information. The consumers' attitudes change through diligent consideration of information when ELM is high (when they are more motivated and able to understand the language), which is called central route of persuasion. Peripheral route, on the other hand, is more likely to occur when ELM is low, and the consumers' attitudes change without engaging extensive issue-relevant thinking,

through associating with either positive or negative cues. According to a further research, the consumers' linguistic ability affects their attitudes towards advertising more than the level of motivation (Chebat *et al.*, 2003). Petty and Cacioppo's central and peripheral routes of persuasion are widely applied by scholars, among which is Meyers-Levy and Malaviya's (1999) integrated model of advertising persuasion. Phrased differently, but in their model central route is called the systematic processing strategy, and peripheral route is the heuristic processing strategy.

The factors that determine the route of persuasion include linguistic ability, motivations, distractions, personal relevance, as well as message attributes, such as advertising appeals. The two most recognized advertising appeals are: value-expressive appeal and utilitarian appeal. Advertising messages with value-expressive approach emphasize on visual and emotional appeals of the products, while those with utilitarian approach stress the functional benefits and the quality of the products.

Johar and Sirgy (1991) suggest that the choice of either a value-expressive appeal or a utilitarian appeal depend on the nature of the product. If the product is value-expressive, self-congruity must be accomplished between product's value-expressive attributes and the audience's self-concepts. There are four types of self-image as discussed in their article; "(1) an actual self-image, (2) an ideal self-image, (3) a social self-image, and (4) an ideal social

self-image" (p. 24). Once self-congruity is formed, consequently the audiences' needs for self-consistency, self-esteem, social consistency, and social approval are satisfied, then followed by the consumers' attitude formation or change, and action desired by the advertisers. Johar and Sirgy define functional congruity as "the match between the beliefs of product utilitarian attributes (performance-related) and the audience's referent attributes" (p. 26). In order to successfully produce proper congruity between the product or brand and the advertisement appeal, it is important that the marketers and the advertisers decide whether the product is value-expressive or utilitarian. Seven factors from product (four factors) and consumer (three factors) perspectives are proposed in their article, and their hypotheses show how each factor as a modifier decides whether a value-expressive appeal or a utilitarian advertising appeal is more effective. Johar and Sirgy hypothesize that;

"a value-expressive advertising appeal may be more effective under conditions when
- the product is not usually differentiated from the competition,
- the product is in the mature stages of the product life cycle (PLC),
- the product is scarce or sold to a select few,
- the product is conspicuously consumed,
- the consumer is not highly involved with the product,
- the consumer is not highly knowledgeable about the product, and/or
- the consumer is of the high self-monitoring type.

Conversely, a utilitarian advertising appeal may be effective when
- the product is highly differentiated from its competition,
- the product is in the developmental stages of the PLC,
- the product is not scarce or commonly used by the majority of consumers,
- the product is low or moderate in conspicuousness,
- the consumer is highly involved with the product,

- the consumer is highly knowledgeable about the product, and/or
- the consumer is of the low self-monitoring type"

(Johar & Sirgy, 1991, p. 32).

Some parts of this hypothesis above have already been supported by other studies. For instance, a study shows that customers with high self-monitoring attitude reacted more favorably to image-oriented advertisements, whereas those with low self-monitoring attitude reacted more favorably to product-quality-oriented advertisements (Snyder & DeBono, 1985). The validity of the other hypotheses, however, still needs to be studied in the future. Additionally, it would be a useful study to test which one of those seven factors is the most important when choosing either functional or emotional benefits. Such hierarchy of importance of the factors can also be predicted to be dependent on the category and type of the products.

One of the major differences between advertisements with a value-expressive appeal and those with a utilitarian appeal is the amount of textual information, or in other words, the number of words and phrases that appear in them. Because of such difference in textual orientation, it is expected that the use of foreign language differ due to the advertising appeals. Lastly, in the content analysis, the advertising appeals are also analyzed in order for better understandings of English use in Taiwanese advertising. Based on the existing theories discussed earlier, we may be able to examine if product categories and advertising appeals have any influence on the use of English in advertising.

RQ4: Are there any correlations between product categories and the functions in Taiwanese advertisements?

RQ5: Are there any correlation between advertising appeals and the functions in Taiwanese advertisements?

Content analysis is conducted to find out the answers to these five research questions mentioned previously. The research method is discussed in the following chapter.