

DISCOURSE STRATEGIES IN ADVERTISING LANGUAGE:

A CASE OF SELECTED RADIO AND NEWSPAPER ADVERTISEMENTS IN

GHANA

KNUST

BY

AHIALE, ISAAC KWAME

(20688069)

**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY
OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE.**

FEBRUARY, 2023

DECLARATION

I declare that except for references to works which have been duly cited, this thesis is the result of my original research, carried out under the supervision of Dr. Obed Nii Broohm and that, it has neither in whole nor in part been presented for another degree elsewhere.

KNUST

CANDIDATE

.....

AHIALE, ISAAC KWAME

.....

DATE

SUPERVISOR

.....

DR. OBED NII BROOHM

.....

DATE

HEAD OF ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

.....

DR. PHILOMENA YEBOAH

.....

DATE

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late parents

Mr. and Mrs. Ahiale

To the glory of God.

KNUST



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

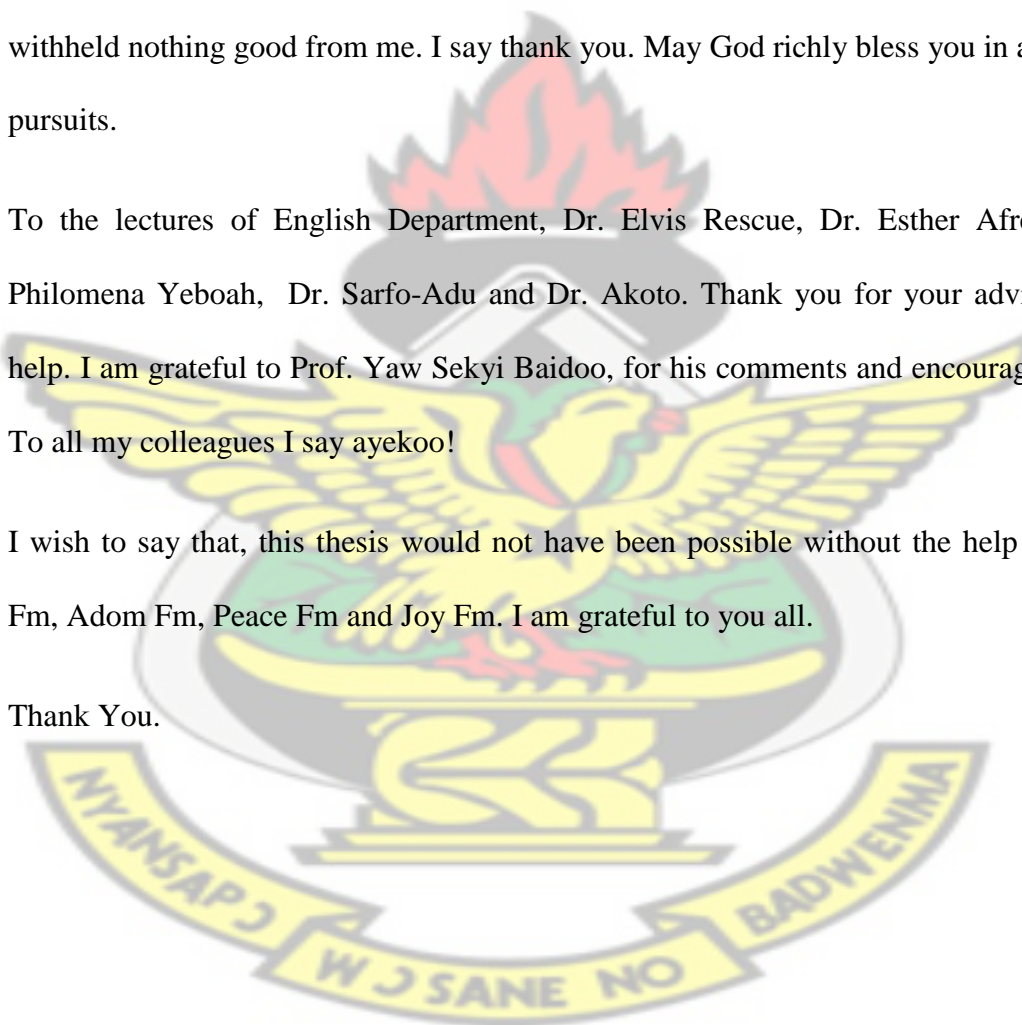
I want to register my sincerest gratitude to God Almighty who granted me life and grace to produce this work.

I am grateful for the wonderful and valuable suggestions of my supervisor, Dr. Obed Nii Broohm. This helped in shaping this thesis. In fact, he is more than a parent to me and I count it a great privilege knowing him and being under his wonderful supervision. He exposed me to useful literature regarding my area of research and withheld nothing good from me. I say thank you. May God richly bless you in all your pursuits.

To the lecturers of English Department, Dr. Elvis Rescue, Dr. Esther Afreh, Dr. Philomena Yeboah, Dr. Sarfo-Adu and Dr. Akoto. Thank you for your advice and help. I am grateful to Prof. Yaw Sekyi Baidoo, for his comments and encouragement. To all my colleagues I say ayekoo!

I wish to say that, this thesis would not have been possible without the help of Citi Fm, Adom Fm, Peace Fm and Joy Fm. I am grateful to you all.

Thank You.



ABSTRACT

Newspaper and Radio advertisements still provide an impressive return on investment for businesses. Aware of this, advertisers use language, actions and strategies to create a common ground with their audience. This study examines how advertisers, relying on cultural ideologies, use several discourse strategies of language to persuade their target audience. Classical Conditioning theory, the study primarily discusses how advertisers use both linguistic strategies and elements in the target culture to persuade their audience, with the view to unravelling how meaning is embedded in the advertising texts. Data is collected through general observation of how buyers are influenced by strategies such as persuasions, implicature, honorifics, conversational tone and verbal descriptions (rather than numerical measure/hard data), in advertisements on radio stations including Peace FM, Joy FM, Adom FM, Citi FM and Star FM, and advertisements in newspaper outlets including Daily Graphic and Ghanaian Times.

This study reveals among other things that:

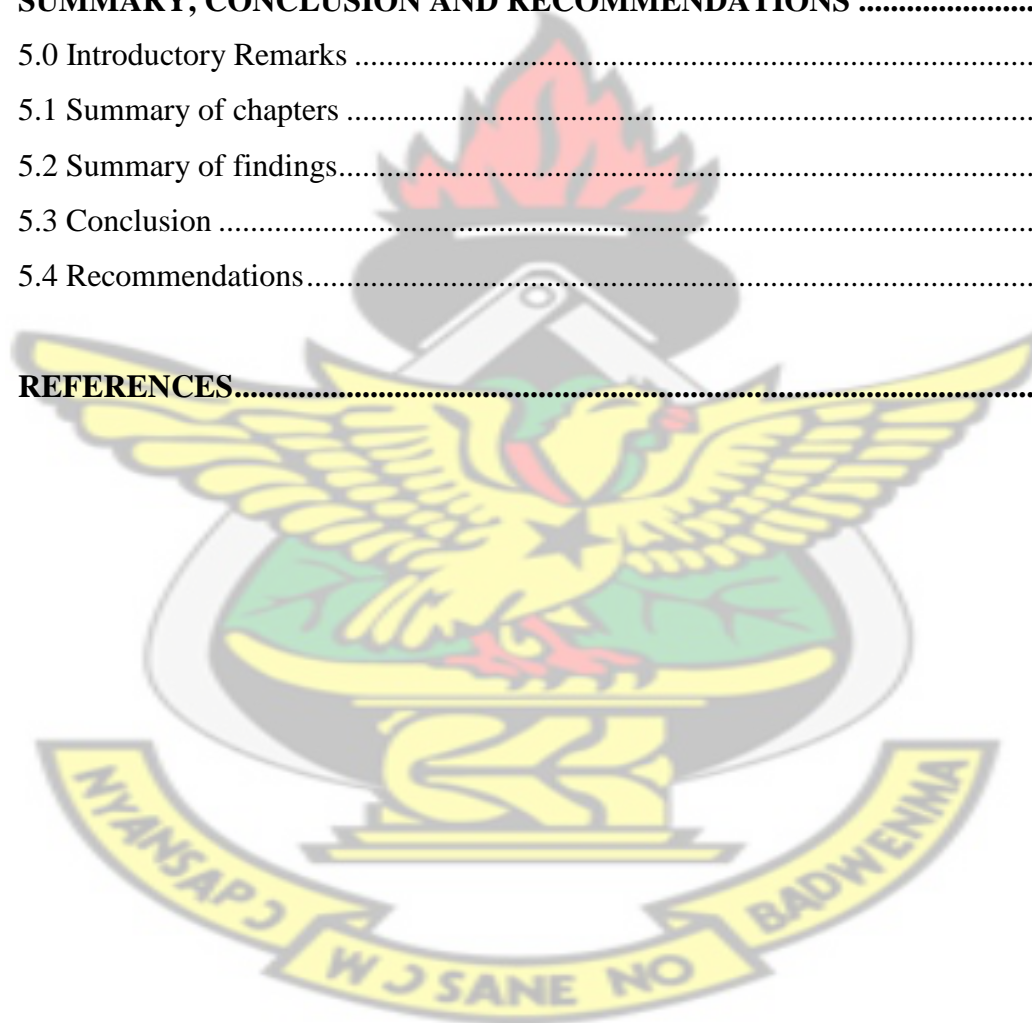
- ❖ Advertisers tend to employ endearment forms and familiar expressions to influence the buying behaviour of their audience.
- ❖ Linguistic devices such as repetition, apposition, implicature, hedges, honorifics, and conversational tone normally characterize spoken and written advertisements.
- ❖ Advertisers adapt linguistic features of communication to dominant ideologies in the indigenous culture so as to persuade the target audience.
- ❖ Many advertising authorities have come to believe that advertising works best when it most closely approximates a dialogue between two human beings.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ABSTRACT	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
CHAPTER ONE	1
GENERAL INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.0 Introductory Remarks	1
1.1 Background of the study	2
1.2 Problem Statement	5
1.3 Objectives	6
1.4 Research Questions	6
1.5 Delimitations of the Study	7
1.6 Relevance of the Study	8
1.7 Chapter Summary	8
1.8 Overview of Thesis	9
CHAPTER TWO	10
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	10
2.0 Introductory Remarks	10
2.1 Historical perspectives on Advertising and persuasion	10
2.1.1 The History of Advertising in GHANA.....	10
2.2 Definition of Advertising	12
2.3 Classification of advertising	13
2.4.1 Modern Advertising Methods	14
2.4.2 Bandwagon Advertising.....	15
2.4.3 Celebrity Advertising.....	16
2.4.4 Mobile Advertising	16
2.4.5 Online Advertising.....	17
2.4.6 BLOG ADVERTISING.....	17
2.5 Functions of Advertising.....	17

2.6 On the role of Persuasion in Advertising.....	18
2.6.1 Dimensions of Persuasion.....	22
2.7 Ego-involvement.....	25
2.9 Linguistic Violation in Advertising.....	27
2.6 MEDIA THEORY OF ELABORATION LIKELIHOOD MODEL OF PERSUASION.....	33
2.7 CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (CDA).....	39
2.8 PRAGMATICS ACT.....	42
2.9 Cultural Linguistics.....	47
2.10 Chapter Summary.....	49
CHAPTER THREE.....	51
METHODOLOGY.....	51
3.0 Introductory Remarks.....	51
3.1 Research Approach.....	51
3.2 Sampling Procedure.....	53
3.2.1. First Stage.....	53
3.2.2 Second Stage.....	54
3.2.3 Data.....	55
3.3 Procedure for the Treatment of Data.....	55
3.4 Limitations.....	57
3.5 Chapter Summary.....	59
CHAPTER FOUR.....	60
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION.....	60
4.0 Introductory Remarks.....	60
4.1 Culture – Specific Language.....	60
4.2 Language of Identity.....	61
4.3 Ideologically-Loaded Language.....	64
4.4 Intertextuality.....	70
4.5 Repetition.....	75
4.6 Apposition.....	80
4.7 Implicature.....	81
4.8 Elliptical comparatives.....	82

4.9 Implied Causation	83
4.10 Hedging.....	86
4.11 Conversational Tone	87
4.11.1 Personalisation	88
4.11.2 Interrogative Clauses / Rhetoric Question	90
4.11.3.Colloquial Language	92
4.15 Chapter Summary	94
CHAPTER FIVE	96
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	96
5.0 Introductory Remarks	96
5.1 Summary of chapters	96
5.2 Summary of findings.....	97
5.3 Conclusion	99
5.4 Recommendations.....	102
REFERENCES.....	103



CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introductory Remarks

Advertising generally refers to the techniques and practices used to bring products, services, opinions, or causes to public notice for the purpose of persuading the public to respond in a certain way (Arens, 2001). Advertisements communicate information by their linguistic content and visual appearance. They are constructed in this way to have the basic effect of selling products or services to people. With the enormous growth in advertising media including radio, television, newspapers, and the internet, the language and images of advertising reach almost everybody; advertisements constitute a dominant culture in the public sphere.

A survey conducted on some advertisements on radio and television suggests that advertisers use syntactic, lexical devices, stylistic and pragmatic devices like inferences, presuppositions and assumptions in language to persuade their audiences, especially so when these devices reflect the cultural values of the target audience. This study deals with discourse strategies use in language of advertisement in some selected radio and newspaper advertisements in Ghana. It examines how advertisers exploit dominant ideologies in the Ghanaian culture and the linguistic features of communication to persuade their target audience. Media in Ghana first emerged in the 19th century with the publication of the Gold Coast Gazette and commercial intelligencer. Since, that time, there has been a lot of media organizations, like Joy Fm, which was established in 1995 and became the first private radio station to be licensed in Ghana. However, Peace Fm, also became a reality on May 25, 1999 with the objective of demonstrating support for the local music industry and putting Ghanaian culture above all else.

In this Chapter, the researcher, first discuss the background and rationale for the present study (section 1.1), this is followed by the problem statement (section 1.2), the main objectives of the work (section 1.3), the research questions (section 1.4), and the intended outcome and contribution of the work to scholarship (section 1.5). Additionally, the chapter discusses delimitation of the study (section 1.6), then significance of the study (section 1.7), and followed by overview of the thesis (section 1.8). Finally, we conclude with summary of the chapter (section 1.9).

1.1 Background of the study

Advertising recreates purpose in life. It portrays the picture and way of life and it has a direct effect on our reasoning, as well as, on the stance regarding ourselves, the whole human society and equip our behaviours. Despite the fact that, a lot of people spend a lot of time looking for information online now than it used to be, advertisements still deliver impactful response for patronage. Newspaper and radio devices are used to persuade audience to purchase a product.

As Perloff (2010) puts it "persuasion encompasses the process by which language and actions influence the choice-making of us and others." Thus, persuasion primarily acts on an individual's beliefs about an object, his/her evaluation of it, and his/her intentions towards it. Most people believe that, "the truth is not the truth until people believe it, and they cannot believe it if they do not know what you are saying and they cannot know what you are saying if they do not listen to you and they will not listen to you if you are not interesting, unless you say things imaginatively, originally, freshly, which are important, because it is insight into human nature that is the key to the communicator's skill".

Advertisers strive to create a common ground with their audience. Most advertisements promote the sale of particular products or services. Some promote institutions (institutional goals), for example, Ghana Telecommunications Company. However, the most dominant type of advertising is commercial consumer advertising, which is the focus of the present study. Newspaper and radio advertisements in Ghana offer a particularly rich medium for understanding the linguistic means by which advertisers attempt to achieve persuasion and thereby motivate potential purchasers to become actual purchasers.

Advertisements, therefore, have a very dominant cultural purpose they do not only sell and promote a product but also sell and promote 'identities' and 'life-styles'. In particular, advertisements differ in their methods for targeting the various audiences. In order to promote and sell their merchandise, advertisers prescribe certain identities that appeal to a consumer's sense of self-worth in the misleading necessity and preference for certain products.

It must be mentioned that the preeminent means for effectively transmitting a persuasive message is language both verbal and nonverbal. This is not to deny that gestures, music and even art may have a persuasive appeal but rather to indicate that these channels are typically employed in much lesser degrees, and that their role is generally secondary to the verbal component that carries the message. Therefore, advertisers, knowing the importance of language in persuasion, orient language towards both retaining the memory of the product and changing purchasing behaviour.

As Agyekum, (2004) rightly observes, language used in business correspondence may, therefore, be expected to reflect both the relationship between the sender and the receiver. Advertising is built on common language; it has its own characteristics. First, the language in advertising is adapted to the needs of the audience, and secondly, advertising language mostly seems to be more artistic as it is used in a different way than everyday language. Language is therefore used in a way as to reflect the worldview of the audience. Thus, the advertising language is normally creative, glamorous, catchy and precise.

Furthermore, elements like lexical (vocabulary), stylistic and pragmatic devices features play an important role in advertising language. For instance, vocabulary expanded by creation are of completely new words and phrases. Adjectives and nouns often in compound forms are mainly used in advertising language as they carry most of the informative function.

Adjectives are therefore the most important words in the advertising language as they appear most frequently in advertising. As is generally known, in Ghana, a company is not allowed to directly compare its products with those of its competitors. For this reason, adjectives at the comparative and superlative levels are used frequently in advertising. They have the function of branding a product as being outstanding, extraordinary and unique. Adjectives are also used to create positive and implicit impressions in order to magnify the differences between the products of a company and those of its competitors.

Nouns (or nominals) also play an important role in advertisements. Nouns are used to name products in advertising. Syntactic features also play a very important role in advertising language. Advertisements are mainly written in short, simple and often elliptic sentences. Interrogatives and imperatives are very frequently used as well.

1.2 Problem Statement

Studies on advertisements have received scholarly consideration over the years. In Ghana, most studies on advertisements have focused mainly on commercials on non-prescriptive drugs, advertisements on the language of Akan herbal drug sellers and advertisers. Agyekum,(2017).

Preston (2013) conducted a research on the returns to advertising in the fashion retail industry. However, Adekoya (2011) also, wrote on the impact of advertising on sales volume of a product. My point of departure from Agyekum (2017)'s work lies in the fact that, whereas, his work focused on the kind of advertisement done by Akan Herbal drug sellers and advertiser, the present work focuses on discourse strategies that advertisers use in radio and newspaper advertisements and how elements in the target culture are exploited by advertisers to persuade their audience. There were also two undergraduate long essays on advertising at University of Ghana, English department: one was on the use of English on signposts and the other on the use of pidgin in advertisements today. At the University of Cape Coast, there were two undergraduate long essays on the language of advertising. The first was on language of advertisements in the Ghanaian Electronic Media written by Ben-Ayeh (2000). He discussed paralinguistic non-verbal modes of communications, which support the verbal modes to sell a product or service successfully.

Notwithstanding the plethora of works on advertising as discussed above, very little has been done on advertising language in Ghana at the postgraduate level, especially when it comes to form and function of newspaper and radio advertisements. It is in the light of this that the present work finds relevance, as it seeks to contribute to the literature on discourse strategies in advertising language in Ghana, paying particular attention to radio and newspaper advertisements.

Indeed, so far, at the post-graduate (Mphil thesis) level, the subject of discourse strategies in radio and newspaper advertisements has not received much scholarly attention in Ghana, at the time of the study, hence, the need for the present study seeks to fill the gap in the literature by examining the discourse strategies in advertising language in some selected radio and newspaper advertisements in Ghana, and how these advertisements are shaped by cultural factors.

1.3 Objectives

This study primarily seeks to

1. Identify the discourse strategies that advertisers use and how elements in the target culture are exploited by advertisers to persuade their audience.
2. Identify the elements in the Ghanaian culture and language which influence and shape radio and newspaper advertisements.
3. Examine the differences between written and spoken advertisements and between English and Akan advertisements, in terms of discourse strategies used.

1.4 Research Questions

1. What are the discourse strategies that are used by advertisers to persuade their audience?
2. What are the elements in the Ghanaian culture and language which are employed through advertisers to influence their audience?
3. What are the advertisers differences in the categories of discourse strategies used in newspaper and radio advertisements?

1.5 Delimitations of the Study

The following delimitations were necessary for establishing the boundaries for the present work. The concern of this study was advertising language in Ghana. This excluded foreign advertisements prepared outside Ghana, but shown in the Ghanaian media. The reason is that foreign advertisements reflect the culture of the countries of origin, since language and culture are inextricably intertwined. Since, the main concern of this study is to investigate how advertisements in Ghana reflect the Ghanaian culture, the inclusion of such foreign advertisements, in the data, will be irrelevant to the discussion.

Although, advertising language (especially, television advertising) is made up of both the verbal and nonverbal aspects, this study was limited to only the verbal (both written and spoken) language. As a result, the data for analysis did not include television advertisements as television advertisements effectively include both verbal and nonverbal language and paralinguistic features of the body through the use of facial expressions, like frown, smile and raise of our eyebrows on radio adverts.

Therefore, it is impractical simply to analyse the verbal language of TV advertisements. In addition, as Cook (2001) observes, marketing messages require an expanded discourse analysis that scrutinises the paralanguage accompanying the advertising. Since, the research aims to analyse only the verbal language of advertisements, television advertisements were not included in the analysis. The advertisements were also limited to only those in English and Akan languages. Though Akan is not the only language spoken in Ghana, from the results of a pilot study, the researcher realized that every advertisement that appeared in the other languages also had the Akan version but the reverse was not true, even in volta and the Northern region.

Finally, the study was further limited to lexical and syntactic levels of the verbal advertising language since time constraints did not permit the addition of the other levels of language analysis like the phonology and orthography. It was also felt that if the other levels of language analysis were added to the lexical and syntactic levels.

Though this study is limited to lexis and syntax, semantics will receive some level of attention.

1.6 Relevance of the Study

First, as far as advertising language is concerned, very little work has been done in Ghana the Ghanaian context, at the post-graduate level. Second, this work promises to enrich our understanding of the nature and role of language in advertisement. Advertisements use language which prioritizes the content of communication. Language symptom is not only limited to the meaning of written language or oral language but also all social phenomena of broader culture are society, such as clothes, food menu ritual and others. In this case, language has a role to reflect the naturality of use value towards product commodity or service which one advertised. It is true that, advertisement aims to persuade buyers to buy products, but we have to remember that in persuading people, we need to choose the right choice of language, which is considered as appropriate enough, in order to be accepted by consumers.

1.7 Chapter Summary

Language has always been the most effective way of transmitting a persuasive message. Advertisers, knowing the significance of language in determining the thinking of an audience, orient language towards both retaining the memory of the product and changing purchasing behaviour. Few studies on advertising language in

academic research works have been conducted, as this chapter has highlighted. This is what motivates the current study and its goal is to conduct a quantitative and qualitative examination of discourse strategies in advertising language of some selected radio and newspaper advertisements in Ghana.

1.8 Overview of Thesis

This section provides information on the chapters of the present work. Chapter 1 provides a general introduction and an overview of the study, highlighting critical aspects such as statement of the problem of the study, research questions, delimitation of the study and significance of the study. Chapter 2 is dedicated to literature review and theoretical framework. It reviews existing work so as to give a basis for the present study. Works reviewed take account of historical perspective on persuasion, dimensions of persuasion and linguistic violations in advertising. Chapter 3 discusses the methodological issues such as data collection, sampling procedure, procedure for the treatment of data and the limitations encountered in gathering the data. The chapter also discusses the limitations of the study and the chapter summary. Chapter 4 is dedicated to the analysis and discussion of data collected, where a corpus of two hundred and three (203) advertising texts is analysed to show how advertisers exploit language to persuade their audience. Chapter 5 contains the summary, conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introductory Remarks

This chapter is dedicated to the analysis and discussion of previous works which are relevant to the present study. The chapter foremost outlines the fundamental ideas in the history of advertising in Ghana and the theoretical framework. The chapter again discusses a few studies organized on topical lines. Issues discussed include the dimensions of persuasion, response-shaping processes, Response-Reinforcing processes, Response- Changing processes, Ego-involvement, among others. The chapter is also discusses the theoretical foundations of the study. In particular, we discuss two pertinent theories: Linguistic Relativity Theory and the Classical Conditioning Theory. The chapter is organized as follows: Section (2.1) examines the history of Advertising in Ghana, Section (2.2) looks at the Definition of Advertising, Section (2.3) discusses Classification of Advertising, and Section (2.4) examines Types of Advertising. Section (2.5) looks at the Functions of Advertising. Section (2.6) addresses the role of persuasion in advertising while section (2.7) summarizes the entire chapter.

2.1 Historical perspectives on Advertising and persuasion

2.1.1 The History of Advertising in GHANA

In fact, historical accounts of advertising in Ghana are scanty; there are few writings but are not streamlined and lack critical content assessment.

In the 1920s, advertising was a new phenomenon in Ghana, later it contributed to new attitudes and tastes of new elite at the time of independence. Advertising by means of magic was widely used in the past by indigenous sellers and *juju*-men “men vetted by

local traditions and well versed in traditional spiritual medicines,” to enhance the power of the seller-magician, a term borrowed from Asare (1980). According to Asare (1980), these *juju* men were itinerant Muslim herbalists from Northern Nigeria and Mali who migrated annually into Ghana to trade in medicine prepared from roots, leaves and powders.

In the late 1980s such medicine men could occasionally be spotted around Kumasi with their pythons surrounded by their wares, displaying wonders so as to convince prospective buyers of their potency, especially at twilight when one cannot see properly. A knife would put into a performer’s mouth that would be somehow shoved down the throat until it disappeared completely. Thus, a prospective buyer’s curiosity could be aroused. Inducements were carried out through the ‘Magic’ that was and still is, practised in Ghana. On other occasions the magician would try to cut any part of his body especially his bare stomach with his cutlass. The failure of the cutlass to harm him would then prove to spectators that his skin was too tough for the cutlass.

Again, he would pull out his tongue and cut it without shedding any blood. By these performances the confidence of the spectators in the supernatural powers of the *juju*-men was easily gained. Therefore, whatever, he told them about his medicine was wholly accepted. It is however, probable that such advertisements were mere trickery, but for the ignorance of the buyers, this method of advertising would have been very ineffective, since, there were tricks underlying these performances.

It is now well known that some of these knives and cutlasses were purposely made for such magical tricks in the Eastern countries like India and China. The deceptive knife was collapsible and therefore, could be compressed and kept in a leather and was made of lead and made blunt at both ends. The *juju*-man in the process of the

performance, would wave this cutlass so fast that nobody could detect the stuff of which it was made to cover the natural one. Had the observers been aware of such tricks, this method of advertising could not have been so effective. Christianity and formal education have exposed magical displays as superstitious and at best trickery. The appeal of television and other modern means of advertising including photography and sign painting are considered a smarter means of marketing.

2.2 Definition of Advertising

Many modern companies use different tactics to reach consumers since advertising has evolved into an immensely complicated type of communication. There are various ways that a firm can use to get its message across to consumers. History has it that the first type of advertising was cave paintings. Ancient description of advertising was done on papyrus by the Egyptians (Suggett, 2012)

The standard definition of advertising includes seven main elements:

- i. Paid form of communication.
- ii. The presence of an identified sponsor.
- iii. Distribution through the media.
- iv. The presence of a specific audience for treatment.
- v. Lack of personalization of distributed information.
- vi. Aimed action.

From this it follows that advertising is usually a non-personalized form of communication, paid by an identifiable sponsor, implemented in a certain way through the media and other legal means and aimed to familiarize with some products and its further acquisition by possibly large audience of consumers. In what follows,

we discuss classes of advertising (section 2.3) and methods of advertising (section 2.4), functions of advertising (section 2.5), so as to shed light on the nature and purpose of advertising.

2.3 Classification of advertising

Given that advertising is a sophisticated product for a diversity of consumer groups, and is used to implement a wide range of functions, it is not so simple to classify it.

Sandage (2001) classifies advertising into eight (8) main categories:

i. **Advertising by target market segmentation.** In this case, it should be clarified that the segmentation is a division of the consumer audience on segments by typical social, professional and other features. The more specific product or service is, the narrower is the segment of the audience, among which they can be advertised (Sandage, 2001).

ii. **Advertising by target impact** – commercial (goods and services) and noncommercial (political and social). Commercial advertising is used to create, maintain and increase the demand of certain products, creating the best conditions for sale. Non-commercial advertising can be used to attract attention and create a positive image of an entrepreneur or an enterprise (Sandage, 2001).

iii. **Advertising by distribution area** - global, national, regional, and local. Global advertising is a rapid development of economic globalization in general: interactive videos, world radio and satellite TV, the Internet and other latest communication tools. Three other types of advertising aimed at the population within the boundaries of a particular state, region, city, town or district (Sandage, 2001), were considered.

iv. **Advertising by the way of transmission** - printed, electronic, outdoor advertising (Sandage, 2001).

v. **Advertising by the method implementation** - textual, visual. Textual advertising is divided into simple and complex, and visual into statistical and dynamic. Simple text advertising is a regular wall advertisement. Complex text advertising includes a set of basic components - title, subtitle, main text module, slogan, etc. Example of statistical advertising can be an appropriate photographic image or picture, and dynamic advertising such as video, computer animation (Sandage, 2001).

vi. **Advertising by the method of impact** - direct and indirect. Direct advertising is an advertising that places us in front of the fact, this is the product, please buy it. Here is the price, phone number, etc. Indirect advertising is of a different kind. It operates almost on a sub-conscious level. So we do not even notice that we absorb the advertising information gradually (Sandage, 2001).

vii. **Advertising by the method of addressing** – an impersonal and personalized. Personalized advertising is represented by well-known personalities or experts of the advertised product, or consumers themselves (Sandage, 2001).

viii. **Advertising by the method of payment** – paid or free. Free advertising is rare. In the most cases it is a public or social advertising, not for commercial purposes (Sandage, 2001).

2.4.1 Modern Advertising Methods

Advertising and marketing have become an essential part of the business world. If a person has a good product or an efficient service to offer, he has to master the art of selling it. Some advertising agencies stick to conventional advertising methods; like

newspaper ads, Tv and radio advertisements, most of the leading players are resorting to fresh and modern advertising methods. There is a new cult of modern advertisers who are experimenting with ideas that are truly modern and innovative. Newspaper advertisements and colored fliers are so old-fashioned. It is the era of saying hello to instant, quick, smart and out-of-the box ideas instead of associating advertising with the newspaper advertisements, television advertisements and radio advertisements.

There are different types of advertising and advertising techniques that are available for promoting products and services. Many of the new-age advertising methods are a result of the advent of the Internet, while some of the trends are just novel ideas that have transformed mundane advertising media into brilliant and witty advertising methods. Internet advertising is a vast concept and it entails several sub-types, many of which have been recently introduced. Email advertising is one of the earlier trends, while the new ones include banner advertising, pixel advertising, blog advertising, keyword advertising and contextual advertising. The following are some of the most widely used modern advertising methods:

2.4.2 Bandwagon Advertising

In this type of advertising, the consumer is made to believe that everybody else is using the product or service and he is the only one left. This leaves the consumer with no other choice but to think about the product or service and try it to see whether what everybody is saying is true and thus the consumer jumps on the bandwagon too. This type of advertising has a psychological influence on people and is therefore an efficient method of advertising. The advert can be done in either the print or electronic media or any other type of media (Uttara, 2012)

2.4.3 Celebrity Advertising

This involves the use of celebrities in adverts. These celebrities could be used in advertisements in the television or print media. The effectiveness of these adverts is something that each consumer himself can determine. If a celebrity or public figure approves of a product or service, it attracts people to use that particular product. This makes this type of advertising effective. Since, a lot of people identify themselves with certain celebrities, using them in adverts would have a psychological influence on the people who identify themselves with them. This would make want to copy these celebrities and they might end up using the same products they see the celebrities use (Manali, 2011).

2.4.4 Mobile Advertising

One of the most widely used forms of advertising is through the mobile device. This type of advertising include advertising via cell phones, ipads, kindles, nooks as well as, any type of moveable electronic device that has internet connectivity. The most popular way to use mobile in advertising these days is via the social media which include Facebook, Twitter and whatsapp (Suggett, 2011). Most companies have developed a database on their customers and some even include prospective customers. This database includes the phones to their customers. This can be very irritating to customers but it is now one of the efficient means of advertising products and services of a company, since, these messages as seen by these customers (Uttara, 2012)

2.4.5 Online Advertising

It is also referred to as Digital advertising. It is advertisement through the internet (World Wide Web). A lot of adverts are displayed on various websites, as they are the chief income driver for the internet (Suggett, 2011)

2.4.6 BLOG ADVERTISING

A blog is an online journal. Because blogs are now very popular, companies have judiciously employed blogs as an efficient means of advertising. One of the brilliant means that firms use to get their customers is through the use of commercial blogs. These blogs employ the search engine selling method which yields good results on the web (Suggett, 2011)

2.5 Functions of Advertising

i. Economical function. The nature of the economical function of advertising is first of all to stimulate sales and increase the volume of profits from the sale of a certain product for a certain unit of time. Advertising informs, creates the need for a product or service, and encourages people to purchase. The more people have responded to the advert, the better it is for the economy and the economic well-being of society (Kotler, 2002).

ii. Social function. Advertising information has a significant impact on the formation of the consciousness of each individual. When advertising is addressed to consumers, besides the promotion of a product, it also

- ❖ helps to form ideological values of the society and at the end has an effect on the character of social relations
- ❖ causes consumer instincts, encouraging people to improve their financial state

❖ Improves the culture of consumption. Comparing different products and services, the consumer, in any case, tends to get really the best (Kotler, 2002).

iii. **Marketing function.** Advertising is an important component of marketing. Advertising entirely connected to the tasks of marketing, whose final aim is the full satisfaction of customer needs concerning goods and services (Kotler, 2002).

iv. **Communicating function.** Advertising is also one of the specific forms of communication. It is designed to perform an appropriate communicating function linking together advertisers and consumer audience by the means of information channels (Kotler, 2002).

2.6 On the role of Persuasion in Advertising.

Pragmatics and social interaction involve persuasion which calls for mutual understanding between interlocutors. Persuasive language should be based on politeness and respect for each other's face and devoid of face threatening acts Agyekum, (2004c). Persuasion forms an integral part of human communication and behaviour in day-to-day activities and social encounters. It is a mental transformation device by which the **Persuader----- Persuasive language-----Persuadee** To persuade somebody, one needs a strong and convincing language called persuasive language. The powerful language in pragmatics terms is referred to as MAND. The major persuasive and politeness strategies for perfect communication include honorifics and address forms, indirection including the use of circumlocution, idioms, metaphor, proverbs, propaganda and co-opting in advertising and humour. Experienced politicians employ these strategies even if they need to lie to the people and win their votes. If leaders either in governance or corporate bodies are able to use persuasion pragmatically, they will be able to move their people around them, and

productivity will increase. Persuader has the intention of inducing the recipient to view the world from the persuader's perspectives Agyekum,(2004c).Persuasion is most effective when it is based on a common ground between persuader and audience. Here, there is a notion of cooperation between the source and receiver. That is, both the source and receiver co-create meaning. This involves the source in a process of blending his intent with what is in the receiver. In this way, a source will be persuasive if receivers see him as having shared values, goals, interests and experiences with them. In the area of ethnopragmatics and politeness, there are research on the use of address forms, honorifics and deference popularly used among Africans, especially at the king's court. Among traditional African societies, there is a special type of court or palace language (called **ahemfie kasa**), which is characterised by politeness, formality, honorifics, appropriate address forms and titles. The palace is the traditional seat of justice, administration, power, arbitrations and societal norms and values. In all these cases, the use of appropriate persuasive and politeness language including address forms and honorifics can keep boiling hearts at bay Agyekum, (2011- 2003) on palace language. The use of titles, address forms and honorifics have infiltrated into our modern governance system where the titles, chief, Boss, honourable, **Oga, Nii, Nene, Naa, and Oba, Togbe, Oloye and Alaafin** among Ghanaians and Nigerians, etc are overly used.

At the shrines of traditional African religion, attendants and worshippers who seek protection, healing or justice, try to use persuasive language to have their MANDS fulfilled. Similarly, at the Christian worship and supplication towards God, persuasive language and praises are used. The most popular religious persuasive strategies are honorifics and appellations. In Ghana, some of the most common appellations

Christians use for God are **Nana**, ‘grandfather’, **Ɔbɔadeɛ**, ‘The Creator’, ‘The Gracious One’, ‘The Powerful’, **Nutsɔ**, **Mawu**, ‘The Mighty One’, etc.

In most “One Man Churches” in Ghana, the pastors have given themselves all kinds of titles and honorifics including, *Prophet, Apostle, Messiah, Redeemer, Computer-man, Jesus One-Touch, Obonsam Last Stop*, ‘Devil’s Last Stop’, **Ɔsofo Kyiriabosom**, ‘The Reverend that abhors Deities’, **Abonsamsuro, Abayifoɔsuro**, ‘Demons, Witches are Scared’, **Kumchacha, Aburuku-Abraka Osofo, Obinim**, ‘Nobody is Aware’, **Obofour**, ‘The Creator’, etc.

These persuasive titles, honorifics and appellations convince their followers to trust that they can solve all their problems including, sicknesses, marriage, visa acquisition, trading, childbirth, deliverance from witches and devils, and unemployment for them. Most of these pastors are very charismatic, and those who engage in occultism employ all kinds of persuasive language to influence their congregation.

In politics, governments use persuasion to secure their positions. Most authoritarian regimes use propaganda and political ideology to influence the people to accept, certain guidelines, policies and ideologies of their regimes. The propaganda strategies make the populace form positive and credible or negative concepts and images about politicians. The major inducements in African politics include set of economic inducements, bribery, pay increase, job, etc. Voters also demand set of physical infrastructure including good roads, hospitals, schools, electricity, water, etc. Some of the persuasive slogans that have cropped up in the 4th Republic of Ghana include **Edwo Bɔdɔɔ**, ‘Everything is Cool’, **Hwɛ w’asetanam na to aba pa**. ‘Consider your living slogan, *Positive Change and Zero Tolerance for Corruption, Yɛretoa So*, ‘We

are continuing’, **Idɛ Bii Kɛkɛ**, ‘It is very fine’, and **Yɛresesa mu**, ‘We are changing the status quo’.

These persuasive slogans were meant to persuade the masses to believe that the new government could revitalise the dying economy of Ghana by curbing corruption, which is the major canker of the economy. If the new government were waging war on corruption to the zero level, it would help develop the economy, since a lot of the national income and resources are siphoned through corruption. When persuasion and politeness are properly executed, there would be mutual respect, peaceful co-existence, social cohesion and comfortable atmosphere for productivity and nation building. If our governments, heads of institutions, CEOs and leaders adhere to the principles of politeness and face theory, conflicts and wars especially in African countries will cease. Religious, interethnic and interparty conflicts and conflicts between electoral commissions and parties in democratic countries will be avoided especially in an election year like 2020 in Ghana.

Knowledge about the configuration of ethnopragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, politeness, persuasion, humour and silence by politicians, CEOs, MMDAs, all leaders and administrators will foster good and peaceful relations and increase productivity. All office holders should know when and when not to comment on some important issues on governance and administration. They should know when to use humour and when to be serious with issues. Persuasion looks at co-opting and advertising. Co-opting is a technique frequently used in advertising. It consists basically in seducing the hearer and the viewer through promised identification with some prestigious environment or a set of right people, young, smart, rich, etc. Mey, 2001: 256). In advertising, the messages are both informative and persuasive to influence the would-be customers. The motive of the advertiser is to persuade the buyer to make a

particular purchase. Persuasion makes the consumer accept the projected image of the good presented by the advertiser.

It is the desired effect of a persuasive message which constitutes persuasion. Therefore, persuasion is not the message or the attempt to change attitudes, beliefs, etc., but rather a desired effect of the attempt to change beliefs, attitudes, etc.

In other words, the persuaders “speak the language” of the audience. That is, once an audience identifies with a world or worldview put across by the source, persuasion has occurred. Put another way, once the audience identifies with a set of values, beliefs or specific lifestyles the source wants it to like, there has been persuasion. Here, the focus is not on the source or the receiver or the message, it is on all of them.

2.6.1 Dimensions of Persuasion

Persuasive language occurs within a sociolinguistic and pragmatic context. Context is one of the central concepts of social and anthropological issues. According to Dilley (2002:438), 'ethnographic interpretation by social and cultural anthropologists relies on a sense of context'. Contextualisation is a form of social practice that has a performative character. The features and characteristics of the socio-cultural environment help us to understand things better. The context can have multiple interpretations: It can be linguistic, referring to parts of the utterance and the linguistic units that give a grammatical and semantic contribution to the interpretation. It can also be social, embracing the wider situation, either of the speaker or of the accompanying social activities (Dilley 2002:445)

i. Response-Shaping Processes

Persuasive language can, therefore, be considered as a key which should be custom-designed so as to fit well into the lock of the mental and cognitive complex state of the receiver. A wrong key would not normally open a lock. In campaigns meant to foster positive responses, the stimulus object could be a product being advertised or a political figure vying for political office. On the other hand, if the campaign is meant to foster negative responses, the stimulus object could be a competitive product or a political opponent. Persuasive strategies and utterances emanate from the persuader, then traverse a persuasive realm to the persuadee. The strategies, coupled with the physical scenario created, impinge on the psychological intellect of the persuadee, who may then react towards the persuader. In normal cases, the persuader expects a positive reaction, either in the form of an utterance, promise, activity, donation, etc., from the persuadee.

An example is behaviours designed to impress a job interviewer. Perhaps, the weakness of this dimension of persuasion is that it underrates the important role played by receivers in determining whether particular evidence affects their attitudes. Research indicates that messages receive different responses from audiences depending on, especially their level of education and their experiences. We agree with Larson's observation because whether a message is successful or not largely depends on the knowledge receivers bring into a piece of communication. Therefore, not all Americans supported the war against Saddam Hussein even after the massive campaign against him.

ii. Response-Reinforcing Processes

Persuasion is employed effectively in requests for favours and demands, where persuaders create the rhetorical impression that their arguments are logically incontrovertible. This aspect of persuasion is labelled *quasilogical persuasion*. The goal of the quasilogical persuasion is to convince, and make it impossible for the audience or addressee to refuse the persuader's demand or request; Insurance Companies advertise services that progressively increase the discount on premium paid by policyholders to make sure they stay with them.

This may explain why the Coca Cola Company, which is so popular all over the world, spends so much money on advertisements. They do this not necessarily to expand their market share, but to reinforce the salient qualities of Coca Cola to keep their existing market share. In other words, you have to motivate people to process information that will change their existing attitudes and hence the actions that flow from those attitudes.

iii. Response-Changing Processes

Response-changing processes involve a drastic shift in one's position on an issue and it is usually motivated by new information in the form of multiple messages from a variety of sources. It could be considered as a positive politeness strategy, used as a kind of social accelerator to boost the level of intimacy between the persuader and the persuadee. When such a stand is adopted in a persuasive communicative scenario, the speaker will be able to get the addressee to comply with his/her intentions.

For example, an undergraduate goes home on vacation and tells the father he needs a laptop computer. The father sits him down and politely tries to talk the son into teaching the younger sister who is preparing for her junior secondary school

examinations a refusal of this request is threatened if he does not teach his younger sister.

Persuasion avoids conflict and provides harmony among communicative participants and aim at politeness. The persuader needs various communicative skills and communicative competence to get his/her intentions fulfilled. These skills conform to politeness, one of the values associated with societal and socio-cultural norms. The strategies mentioned here are general conversational strategies of politeness, used in social interaction. This is so because social interaction is all about influencing people. All the excerpts discussed deal with persuasion within the context of social interaction. The effect of persuasive language will also depend on the credibility of the persuader and his or her position in the society

For instance, if a company launches an advertising campaign by rewarding customers to aid repeat purchases, factors like the customers' experience with the first purchase and existence or -existence of competing products will go a long way to determine the success or other wise of the campaign.

2.7 Ego-involvement.

It is assumed that, when ego- involvement contradicts one's attitude, value or identity will produce cognitive dissonance and thus spur motivated reasoning to reduce guilt and conversely, when ego-involvement is supported will enhance pride (Bergan, 2021). This shows how an attitude about an individual or members of audience feels strongly and incorporates as part of them.

ego – involvement “concern with the issue itself”, and “commitment to a position or concern with a specific stand on an issue”, respectively. In other words, ego– involvement is the level of a person's interest in an issue or a product. It is how much

a person cares about a product or an issue and the extent to which he identifies with the issue or product.

A person's level of involvement directly influences his attitude towards a position. That is, a person who has a high ego- involvement on an issue or product sees things as for or against can decide for him/herself.

Highly ego-involved people tend to hold extreme positions on issues and normally have little tolerance for diversity, and therefore it is very difficult to persuade them. For example, if a person, because of his/her religious background, feels very strongly about the need for abstinence from sex as a way of controlling Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), s/he may reject outright any message that tries to persuade people to agree to the use of condoms to avoid the disease. This is because when passions are deep, opinions are radical and everything is seen as a black – and – white issue. For such a person, the only way to avoid AIDS is through abstinence. As a result, the effect of persuasion on high ego - involved people.

On the other hand, a low ego – involved person does not polarise as much, and easily accommodates different shades of opinion on issues.

He/she does not care so much about the use of condoms to stop AIDS, because the wrongness of fornication is not closely tied to his/her identity and belief system like in the case of the high ego – involved person. Such a low ego – involved person represents a passive audience, and as a result, the effect of a persuasive message on him will be strong. So, with low ego – involved people, unlike high ego – involved persons, the latitude of acceptance and non – commitment grow larger. The first stage of persuasion occurs when a person hears or reads a message and automatically evaluates where he thinks the message falls vis-a-vis his own position. In the next

stage, a person may adjust his attitude toward or away from the message he hears or reads. If this shift in judgment is toward the person's anchor, it is known as assimilation. However, if the shift is away from the anchor point, it is called contrast. Contrast, on the other hand, is the exact opposite of assimilation.

2.9 Linguistic Violation in Advertising

i. Leech, 2001

Leech (2001) asserts that the aim of advertising is to change the will, opinion, or attitudes of its audience. To achieve these, language must be used persuasively, and this is done mainly by manipulating language --- breaking the rules of grammar and conventions in a way that calls attention to itself (Leech, 2001).

These include violations at the orthographic level, syntactic level, lexical level semantic level and contextual level. These have the effect of arresting the consumers' attention, putting them in a suitable receptive frame of mind and imprinting the message on the memory.

Leech (2001) also discusses orthographic violations that do not affect particular spellings, but rather the general rules of English orthography. For instance, *ScotTowel* violates the rule that capital letters do not occur in the middle of a word, with small letters on either side. In fact, this kind of violation is very effective in the sense that the anomaly is easily perceived by the audience and so helps in making such product names memorable.

The work also discusses grammatical violations that normally involve constructions that sound like *bad English*

Only two Alka-Seltzers ego
You were feeling downhearted and low
Who will ever know you were under the weather
Only two Alka-Seltzers ego? (Leech, 2001: 177).

In the above example, the violation occurs in the first and last lines. Leech explains that Alka-Seltzer, a proper name, is in a position where only nouns denoting periods of time are acceptable.

Leech, however, agrees that this kind of violation is not very obvious or difficult to understand, it may not be recognised by the audience and as a result, they will not be affected in the way envisaged by the advertiser.

The present work also discusses violations at the lexical level. According to Leech (2001), this kind of violation involves the invention of new lexical items - a kind of word formation, which would normally strike an audience as odd and beyond the normal process of word formation. For example, words like *peelability* as in *it's got peelability* with reference to orange, the chocolate that *outsparkles* them all, *unzip* a banana, outdoor *biteables*, and *ricicles* are *twicicles* as *nicicles*.

It is interesting to note that in the last example, the words *twicicles* and *nicicles* just like the trade name *Ricicles* are formed from blending which involves word formation using base forms of other words. In this case, the base item is *icles*, which has been attached to *Rice*, *twice* and *nice*, just as *ice* would be added to *icicles*.

The last kind of linguistic violation Leech (2001) discusses is contextual violation or role borrowing, which involves the use of language in a situation in which it is “inappropriate”.

Once upon a time, this pretty girl had dry, unimaginable hair – But then she discovered Bristow’s Lanolin Shampoo ... (Leech, 2001: 179).

The violation here lies in the fact that the advertisement begins with a formula that is appropriate to the start of a fairy tale, and not that of an advertisement. The effect is that it puts the audience in a receptive mood, knowing they are going to be told a story. However, the weakness of this technique is that when the audience gets to know that they have been deceived, there could be a psychological block to the message. Another example of contextual violation Leech gives is a thirty-minute television script, which, in its grammatical structure, resembles the format of an official form or health record card:

Her name: Elizabeth Eldon.

Symptom: Constant tiredness.

Cause: Night Starvation.

Recommendation: Horlicks.

Horlicks guards against Night Starvation (Leech, 2001: 100)

Leech (2001) explains that the effect of the above advertisement lies in its terseness and objectivity unlike what obtains in other advertisements, which are highly emotional. Also, lexical items like her name and symptoms suggest a context where the medical history of a patient is being recorded. It is, however, the case that in most of the instances of contextual violation, the allusion to other discourse situations is destroyed as the advertisement proceeds. For example, we are told that Horlicks guards against night starvation, and William Anderson knows he needs plenty of protein and that he gets it from eggs. Therefore, the deception in this technique is temporal as the audience is directed to the product being advertised at the end of the

advertisement. Contextual violation is effective as far as getting notice is concerned. However, it is also true that it involves deceiving the audience into thinking that what they are being exposed to is not an advertisement. This deception may in the end prove to be a disadvantage as the audience may be angered and decide not to see the advertisement at all or make a conscious effort to disregard the advertisement.

Leah (2001) also discusses rule-breaking as a persuasive device in advertising. Again, unlike Leech who concentrated on only English advertisements, Leah worked with both English and French advertisements with an in-depth analysis of the types of rule-breaking and their functions. In addition, just like, Leah's (2001) discussion of the use of linguistic violation to persuade in advertisements involves both verbal and visual text.

First, Leah (2001) discusses linguistic violation that pertains to reference. In natural language, when a pronoun is used in a sentence, the assumption is that there is an explicit linguistic antecedent to which the pronoun refers. According to him, this is a popular strategy used by advertisers to compel readers to reconstruct advertisements and insert referents, thus getting them involved. For instance, he discusses a two-page advertisement for Mc Naughton clothing in which a woman is seen dressed in a richly coloured brown turtleneck and skirt, lounging by a fireplace. The text that accompanies the picture reads: It just looks expensive.

Here, the use of *it* outside the advertising context would mean that the referent of *it* has already been mentioned in the discourse. Therefore, without the linguistic antecedent, such use of *it* seems to be a violation of this linguistic rule that referring expressions must have antecedent referents.

However, the danger here is that most people, left alone would not read or listen to advertisements at all.

This is why copywriters do all they can to attract and maintain the attention of the audience. Now, if the interpretation of an advertisement is made too difficult for an audience member, he may not read the advertisement at all and the purpose for which the advertisement was run on the medium would be defeated.

Therefore, as much as it is true that making an audience member work hard to interpret an advertisement is advantageous, it is also true that if the level of difficulty in interpreting the advertisement is beyond the audience's ability, the advertisement will not be effective.

It is interesting to note that the idea of a reader being rewarded for working out the meaning of an advertisement is supported. Readers of advertisements are incited to explore advertisements in order to discover its concealed meaning, and this has the eventual effect of positioning the audience as the owner of that meaning. The fact that most advertisements are imbued with a sense of personal accomplishment points to the fact that the reader is both rewarded for having worked out the meaning of an advertisement as well as discovering a possible avenue of personal satisfaction.

Thus, most advertisements are designed to be decoded like puzzles. However, the danger here is that it is not in all instances that the reader of the advertisement can resolve this puzzle and this can lead to the advertisement not having any effect at all.

This is because it is in the decoding of an advertisement that it attains its meaning. Therefore, most advertisements are designed to be decoded like a puzzle. In this way, the subject is initiated into particular channels of thought and association that ultimately lend significance and importance to the eventual consumption of a product.

This structure is described as hermeneutic or interpretative and it is often signalled by an apparent '*absence*' in the explicit logical structure of an advertisement or a contradiction or nonsensical construction of words and images.

In the Ghanaian context, if you do something for somebody and the person tells you in Akan language, *wo be ku me* or *wo aku me* (literally '*you will kill me* or *you have killed me*'), the person does not mean to say you have killed him/her. Rather, s/he means to say you have overwhelmed him/her with pleasure (Leah 2001).

Review of relevant literature particularly, those on dimensions of persuasion and linguistic violations, are very relevant to the present work on several grounds. First, the present study seeks to explore the strategies advertisers use to persuade their audience. Through the response-shaping, response-reinforcing and response-changing processes, and the explanation on Attitude scale. However, the present work is unique because, though persuasion is central to it, it is limited to persuasion through only linguistic means.

Secondly, the review on linguistic violation shows the large amount of work that has been done on the use of language to foster persuasion in an audience. Advertising language must among other things attract the attention of the audience and make the message memorable. The relevance of this discussion to the present work lies in the fact that, it provides background information on how language can be manipulated to have a persuasive effect. It however differs from the present study in the sense that, while Leech and the rest dealt with breaking grammatical rules to achieve persuasion, the present study focuses on persuading by exploiting the relationship between language and culture.

2.6 MEDIA THEORY OF ELABORATION LIKELIHOOD MODEL OF PERSUASION

The field of persuasion research and practice is constantly on the lookout for ways to develop and deliver message content that can effectively raise awareness, generate desired attitudes, build confidence, establish social norms, engage audiences emotionally, and ultimately influence behaviour. However, the large body of literature and case studies synonymous with this field highlight the challenges of such a task, with persuasive endeavours often generating a range of mixed results, specifically on matters of important public policy (Rucker & Petty, 2006).

Some of these results might represent a lingering artefact of the dominant thinking in persuasion research that occurred prior to the 1970s, involving variables and assumptions that investigators and practitioners continue to explore today as critical determinants of effective persuasion (which remains usually framed as positive and desired changes in audience attitudes and behaviour, although attitudes might just be one component of a behaviour change attempt). Such variables include characteristics of the message source (e.g., attractiveness, credibility), the message itself (e.g., level of complexity, number of arguments, rational or emotional appeals), the message recipient (e.g., mood, intelligence, involvement in the issue), and the context in which the message is presented (e.g., type of media, level of distraction in the communication environment) (Petty, Barden, & Wheeler, 2009).

For many of these variables, it was initially thought they had a single effect on persuasion—they either enhanced the success of a persuasion attempt or reduced it. For example, associating a message with an expert source, increasing the number of positive arguments in favour of the advocated position, and high recipient intelligence were all

intuitively expected to enhance persuasion efforts. While early research initially offered support for the notion that individual factors had a single effect on persuasion through a single process, it soon became apparent that the single effect “story” was not so simple. What emerged was a lack of consistent findings and agreement, casting doubt over some previous fundamental persuasion assumptions. For example, one study would support traditional assumptions and show that using an expert source enhanced persuasion. However, other studies would either show no such impact or, more alarmingly, a reduced impact on persuasion efforts. Similarly, some studies found that increasing the number of positive arguments in a message did not always lead to greater or more sustained attitude change, and that negative emotions could be used to increase persuasion rather than decrease it as previously thought. What made this particularly problematic was the uncertainty surrounding the conditions under which each of these effects was apparent and the processes involved in producing them (Petty, Rucker, Blizer, & Cacioppo, 2004; Wagner & Petty, 2011). The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion (ELM) is essentially a theory about the thinking processes that might occur when we attempt to change a person’s attitude through communication, the different effects that particular persuasion variables play within these processes. Unlike the “single effect story” of earlier models, the ELM believes that any one variable can influence attitudes in a number of different ways and can serve to either increase or decrease persuasion through several different mechanisms (Petty et al., 2004). At its core, and as the name suggests, the ELM assumes that individuals can differ in how carefully and extensively they think about a message and the position, object or behaviour it is advocating. That is, in any given context, the amount of elaboration or thinking a person does about a message or issue can vary from low to high along an “elaboration continuum”. Individuals can think a

lot, a moderate amount, or indeed very little about a message, and the amount of thinking they engage in goes a long way in explaining *how* people will be persuaded (if at all) (Wagner & Petty, 2011).

Where people fall along this continuum is determined by considering their *motivation* and *ability* to process the message presented to them. A person's motivation can be influenced by several variables, such as the perceived personal relevance of the issue, general enjoyment of thinking (some people simply like thinking more than others!), and being personally responsible for processing the message. For example, if a person has a family history of cancer, he or she might be particularly motivated to carefully consider information on new cancer screening technologies, especially if they are charged with passing this information on to other family members looking for guidance. Ability refers to an individual needing the resources and skills to understand and attend to a message. Several factors impact on this ability, such as intelligence, time available to engage in the message, a person's level of actual or perceived knowledge (e.g., an individual is likely to elaborate and respond more to messages when they are aligned to pre-existing knowledge structures), the amount of distraction in the communication environment (e.g., a noisy environment might inhibit a person's ability to think), and the number of message repetitions (i.e., with increasing amounts of message repetition, people are better able to comprehend, scrutinise and recall the arguments conveyed in a message) (Rucker & Petty, 2006; Wagner & Petty, 2011).

Factors that influence a recipient's motivation and ability may therefore be specific to the communication context or internal to the person. In combination, when motivation and ability to think are high, individuals are inclined to go down a "central route to

persuasion” (the left-hand-side of Figure 1), but when motivation is low or ability to process is hindered, people are more likely to go down a “peripheral route to persuasion”

The central route to persuasion

If a person is motivated and able to think carefully about a message (e.g., high personal relevance, few distractions), then he or she is likely to follow the central route to persuasion. In the central route, individuals carefully consider the elements of the message in order to determine whether its proposal makes sense and will benefit them in some way. Specifically, the central route to persuasion involves a focus on the strength of the *message arguments*, which are the pieces of information in the message intended to provide evidence for the communicator’s point of view. If the arguments are “strong”, then engaged individuals will generate predominantly favourable thoughts in response to the message and will experience attitude change in the advocated direction (as a result of more favourable thoughts being triggered than negative ones). However, if the message contains “weak” arguments, then thoughtful receivers may generate more unfavourable than favourable thoughts in response to the message (i.e., the weaker arguments “fail” under heavier scrutiny) and will experience either no attitude change or a change in the opposite direction. Whether an argument is strong or weak is largely an empirical question that can be explored through testing different message content and ascertaining whether favourable or unfavourable thoughts were generated (Petty, Briñol, et al., 2009; Wagner & Petty, 2011).

Peripheral route to persuasion

In our daily lives, we often lack the motivation or ability to carefully consider every piece of persuasive communication in the way characterised by the central route. Attitude (and even behaviour) change can occur nonetheless, as some persuasion processes require little consideration of the arguments contained in a message. In the

ELM, such processes are organised under the peripheral route to persuasion, and involve mechanisms where message recipients use simple cues or mental shortcuts as a means of processing the information contained in a message. For example, a cue might involve an emotional state (e.g., “happiness”) that becomes associated with the message’s advocated position in a positive way, or a recipient might simply agree with a message without any careful consideration of the arguments on the basis that it is being delivered by a perceived expert on the matter (activating a mental shortcut based on “experts are generally correct”). Other common shortcuts that people might take include counting the number of arguments (rather than scrutinising them) presented in a message, or looking at the responses of other people who are exposed to the same message as a cue to how most people respond. To this end, under the peripheral route, the strength of the message arguments can be of little consequence to forming or changing attitudes. Although these shortcuts do not involve thoughtful consideration of the content of a message, the peripheral route can nevertheless be effective in leading to persuasive impacts on attitudes and behaviour, at least in the short-term (Petty, Barden, et al., 2009).

Consequences of the route to persuasion

The elaboration route used to form or change an attitude has a number of ramifications, as attitudes shaped by the central route will have different consequences and properties compared to those shaped by the peripheral route. In general, attitudes that result from central route processes tend to be more stable over time, resistant to counter-arguments, are likely to guide (and bias) thinking in a pro-attitudinal way, and perhaps of greatest importance, lead to attitude-consistent behaviour. Taken together, these enduring and durable outcomes are considered to represent features of a “strong attitude”. As a result, attitudes produced through

central route processes increase the chances of eliciting sustained behaviour change (Petty, Barden, et al., 2009; Rucker & Petty, 2006; Wagner & Petty, 2011).

Despite the obvious benefits of shaping attitudes through the central route, they are typically more difficult to achieve given the higher elaboration demands that are placed on the target audience. As such, the temptation exists to focus on producing attitudes through the less demanding peripheral route. However, such attitudes are sometimes described as a “hollow victory”, as the elaboration short-cuts that are taken to create these attitudes mean that they tend to be less enduring, are vulnerable to counter arguments, and are less likely to lead to attitude-consistent behaviour (Rucker & Petty, 2006). While peripheral approaches can be quite powerful in the short term, especially when an immediate change is all that is required, the problem is that over time emotions dissipate, people’s feelings about sources can change, and cues can become disassociated from the message (Wagner & Petty, 2011). In combination, these factors can undermine the basis of weaker-natured attitudes shaped by the peripheral route.

Six steps for applying the ELM in practice

- ❖ **Consider the audience elaboration level:** Is the audience naturally prone to scrutinise the message carefully and able to do so?
- ❖ **Design and evaluate message characteristics:** Does the message contain information that can serve as cues, arguments, or both?
- ❖ **Message objectives:** Is immediate or enduring attitude change desired?

- ❖ **Evaluate fit between audience elaboration, message characteristics and objectives:** Is there consistency among audience elaboration level, message characteristics, and message objectives?
- ❖ **Test message effectiveness:** Experimentally examine whether the message is more effective under low or high elaboration.
- ❖ **Evaluate message effectiveness:** Was the message effective at the elaboration level specified? How was certainty of the attitude influenced?

2.7 CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (CDA)

According to Van Dijk (2006:252), critical discourse analysis is primarily interested in and motivated by the endeavour to understand pressing social issues. Wodak and Mayer (2009:7) argue that critical discourse analysis emphasises the need for interdisciplinary work in order to gain a proper understanding of how language functions in constituting and transmitting knowledge in organising social institutions. Rogers et al (2005:368) state that critical theories are generally concerned with issues of power and justice and the ways that the economy, race, class, gender, religion, education, and sexual orientation construct, reproduce or transform social systems. The Human subjects use texts to make sense of their world and to construct social actions and relations in the labour of everyday life while at the same time, texts position and construct individuals, making available various meanings, ideas and versions of the world (Lucke 1996:12). of analysis includes analysis of texts, interactions and social practices at the local, institutional and societal levels. Critical discourse analysis deals with long term analysis of fundamental causes and consequences of issues. Therefore, it requires an account of detailed relationships between text, talk, society and culture. Teaching and learning policies can be better understood by looking at the social issues of the community as well as the language

and type of texts used. McGregor (2010:2) argues that critical discourse analysis challenges us to move from seeing language as abstract to seeing our words as having meaning in a particular historical, social and political condition. Hence critical discourse analysis studies real, and often extended, instances of social interaction which take particularly in linguistic form (Blommaert & Bulcaen 2000:448). According to Locke (2004:1), critical discourse analysis aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between discursive practices, events and texts, and wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power. Critical discourse analysis is a tool to help members of a profession understand the messages they are sending to themselves and others and to understand the meanings of the spoken and written texts by others. The words of those in power are taken as “self-evident truths” and the words of those not in power are dismissed as irrelevant, inappropriate or without substance (McGregor 2010:2). This is an unacceptable perception since educators should also be engaged in the development of teaching and learning policies. Since texts are also located in key social institutions such as schools and offices of departments of education, critical discourse analysis emphasises the analysis of such original documents.

Critical discourse analysis is primarily positioned in the environment of language and its successes can be measured with a measuring rod of the study of languages. Language can be used to represent speakers’ beliefs, positions and ideas in terms of spoken texts like conversations. Written or oral messages convey meanings if we analyse the underlying meaning of the words. Analysis of underlying meanings can assist in interpreting issues, conditions and events in which the educators find

themselves. Using words can direct/assist those in control of the education system. Critical discourse analysis can only make a significant and specific contribution to critical social or political analyses if it is able to provide an account of the role of language, language use, discourse or communicative events in the production of dominance and inequality (Van Dijk 2006:279; McGregor 2010:2). The focus of the theory and practice of critical discourse analysis is on structures of texts and talk. Critical discourse analysis tries to determine the relationship between the actual text and the processes involved in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Thus, this provides skills in critically analysing written text, that is, the way we write and what we say. McGregor (2003:2) argues that given the power of the written and spoken word, criticaldiscourse analysis is necessary for describing, interpreting, analysing and critiquing social life reflected in text. Educators' understanding of the language of learning and teaching is imperative for them to implement policies on teaching and learning. According Rogers et al (2005:371), the first goal of the analyst is to describe the relationships among certain texts, interactions and social practices; the second goal is to interpret the configuration of discourse practices; and the third goal is to use the description and interpretation to offer an explanation of why and how social practices are constituted, changed, and transformed in the ways that they are. The aims, choices and criteria of critical discourse analysis are to monitor theory formation, analytical method and procedures of empirical research (Van Dijk 2006:253). Discourse analysis is meant to provide a higher awareness of the hidden motivations in others and ourselves and, therefore, enable us to solve concrete problems, not by providing unequivocal answers, but by making us ask ontological and epistemological questions (Olson 2007:29). Thus, it will not provide absolute answers to a specific problem, but enable us to understand the conditions behind a

specific problem and make us realise that the essence of that problem and its resolution lie in its assumptions, the very assumptions that enable the existence of that problem. It can be applied to any text, that is, to any problem or situation. Critical analysis reveals what is going on behind our backs and those of others and which determines our actions. It does not argue for or against the validity and truth of a certain research method, statement, or values, but focuses on the existence and message of texts and locate them within a historical overcome various forms of power over or to gain an appreciation and social context. The object of critical discourse analysis is to uncover the ideological assumptions that are hidden in the worlds of our written text or oral speech in order to resist and that we are exercising power over unbeknownst to use (McGregor 2010:4). It aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships between discursive practices, texts, and events and wider social and cultural structures, relations, and processes. According to Fulcher (2010:7), discourse analysis can be seen as a way of understanding social interactions. Furthermore, Fulcher (2010:4) states that a discourse is a particular theme in the text, especially those that relate to identities, for example, such as a statement that reiterates a view or claim that men find weddings dull. The research begins with a research question and not a hypothesis. A conversation or piece of text will be transcribed and then deconstructed. The investigator will attempt to identify categories, themes, ideas, views, and roles within the text itself. The aim is to identify commonly shared discursive resources, that is, shared patterns of talking.

2.8 PRAGMATICS ACT.

Mey (2001) underscores the importance of allowing socio-cultural context into linguistic analysis. Following the socio-cultural interactional line Mey claimed that the explanatory movement in a theory of pragmatic acts is from the outside in: “the

focus is on the environment in which both speaker and hearer find their affordances, such that the entire situation is brought to bear on what can be said in the situation, as well as on what is actually being said. Mey, 2001) considers pragmatics as “a general cognitive, social and cultural perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in forms of behavior Mey’s (2001) pragmatic act theory (PAT) originates in the socio-cultural interactional view emphasizing the priority of socio-cultural and societal factors in meaning construction and comprehension. He argued that the problem with the speech act theory is that it lacks a theory of action, and even if it does have such a theory it is individual- rather than societal-centered (Mey, 2001). In Mey’s opinion human activity is not the privilege of the individual. Rather the individual is situated in a social context, which means that s/he is empowered, as well as limited, by the conditions of her/his social life. This is quite a deterministic view that gives limited space for individual initiatives. For Mey it is the situation and extralinguistic factors such as gestures, intonation, rather than “wording” that defines pragmatic acts. He argued that “a fortiori, there are, strictly speaking, no such ‘things’ as speech acts per se, only acts of speech in a situation (Mey, 2006).” Further he claimed that “...indirect speech acts derive their force, not from their lexico-semantic build-up, but instead, from the situation in which they are appropriately uttered.” Mey is right emphasizing the importance of situation, environment and extralinguistic factors in meaning construction and comprehension. However, the “wording” of linguistic expressions is as important in shaping meaning as the situation in which they are used and supplemented by extralinguistic factors. Both sides are equally important contributors in meaning construction and comprehension. Words, expressions, speech acts encode prior experience of the individual with these linguistic elements in social situations. Mey’s (2006) pragmatic acts theory is an

ambitious approach to explain the way pragmemes are represented in pragmatic acts in speech situations. His main criticism against the speech act theory is that in order for speech acts to be effective they have to be situated: “they both rely on, and actively create, the situation in which they are realized” (Mey, 2001:218). “In short, there are no speech acts, but only situated speech acts, or instantiated pragmatic acts”. As a consequence, the emphasis is not on conditions and rules for an individual speech act, but on characterizing a general situational prototype (what Mey calls a pragmeme) that can be executed in the situation. Thus, a particular pragmeme can be substantiated and realized through individual pragmatic acts. In other words, a pragmatic act is an instance of adapting oneself to a context, as well as adapting the context to oneself. For instance:

(1) - She is after my money.

- Like I care.

“Like I care” is a pragmatic act that expresses the pragmeme “I do not care”, which can be also substantiated by several other concrete pragmatic acts such as “I do not care”, “I do not mind”, “it’s none of my business”, etc. According to Mey pragmatic acts are situation-derived and situation-constrained. There is no one-to-one relationship between speech acts and pragmatic acts because the later does not necessarily include specific acts of speech. For instance:

(2) Mother: - Joshua, what are you doing?

Joshua: - Nothing.

Mother: - Will you stop it immediately. (Mey, 2001:216)

The pragmeme represented by the pragmatic act “Nothing” can be described as “trying to get out (opt out) of a conversation” that may lead too far. Mey’s pragmatic

act approach is right in many respects. It is definitely true that speech acts never come alone, but carry always with them several other acts that also contribute to their success in conversation. Some of these other acts are strictly speech-oriented, while others are more general in nature, and may include, besides speech, extralinguistic aspects of communication such as gestures, intonation, facial mimics, body posture, head movements, laughter, and so on. Besides, the role of context is also inevitable. With Mey's words. "...No conversational contribution at all can be understood properly unless it is situated within the environment in which it was meant to be understood" (Mey, 2001:217). Mey also understands the dynamic and dialectical nature of conversation when he speaks about the fact that our acting is determined by what the scene can afford, and by what we can afford on the scene, that is to say, the scene not only determines our acting but also our actions determine and reaffirm the existing scene (Mey, 2001:218). Everything looks good with the pragmatic acts theory: relationship of pragmemes and pragmatic acts, understanding role of contexts and dynamic and dialectical nature of conversation. So is there any weak point in the theory? Before I answer this question we should look at situation-bound utterances. Mey's (2001) uses the term "pragmeme" in his PAT to refer to a generalized pragmatic act that is concretely realized by "practs" in situational use. Defining pragmemes Capone (2005) refers to Geis's view of speech acts, according to which there are broad mappings (or correlations) between sentence types and illocutionary forces (or types of illocutionary force). However, in addition to the defeasible aspects of meaning (identified as the 'point' of an utterance; Dummett (2003;210)), Capone also considers certain non-defeasible aspects of meaning deriving from the interaction between the context, the discourse type, and the utterance type in question, etc. He emphasizes that pragmemes involve both defeasible and non-defeasible inferences

(Capone, 2005). This is in line with Mey's approach (2001) that I also agree with. SBUs can be considered acts because they function as concrete realizations of a pragmeme that may refer to a general situational prototype, a socio-cultural concept that usually has several possible realizations. This is where SBUs may be used to clarify the relationship between pragmemes and practs. In my understanding pragmemes represent situational prototypes to which there may be several pragmatic access routes (practs). An SBU can be one of several possible pragmatic access routes to a pragmeme. For instance: Pragmeme: [inviting someone to take a seat] Practs: Why don't you sit down?; Please take a seat; Sit down, please, etc.

There are several practs through which this pragmeme can be realized. All these expressions can be considered SBUs. However, there are many cases where an SBU is only one of the possible realizations of the given pragmeme. See example, Pragmeme: [greeting a new employee] Practs: Nice to have you with us; Welcome aboard; Hope you will like it here.

Two of these expressions have some kind of pre-patterned structure in which elements can be changed. However, "Welcome aboard" appears to be an SBU with an unanalyzable structure, definitely tied to the situation represented by the pragmeme. According to Mey (2006:542):

The theory of pragmatic acts does not explain human language use starting from the words uttered by a single, idealized speaker. Instead, it focuses on the interactional situation in which both speakers and hearers realize their aims. The explanatory movement is from the outside in, one could say, rather than from the inside out: instead of starting with what is said, and looking for what

the words could mean, the situation where the words fit, is invoked to explain what can be (and is actually being said).

As I said in the abstract, the problem with this definition is that it emphasizes that the explanatory movement should go from the outside in. I argue that the explanatory movement in any pragmatic theory should go in both directions: from the outside in (actual situational context → prior context encoded in utterances used) and from the inside out (prior context encoded in utterances used → actual situational context).

2.9 Cultural Linguistics.

Cultural Linguistics is a multidisciplinary area of research that explores the relationship between language, culture, and conceptualisation. Originally, this area grew out of an interest in integrating cognitive linguistics with the three traditions present in linguistic anthropology, namely, Boasian linguistics, ethnosemantics, and the ethnography of speaking. In the last decade, Cultural Linguistics has also found strong common ground with cognitive anthropology, since both explore cultural models, which are associated with the use of language. For Cultural Linguistics, many features of human languages are entrenched in cultural conceptualisations, including cultural models. In recent years, Cultural Linguistics has drawn on several disciplines and sub-disciplines, such as complexity science and distributed cognition, to enrich its theoretical understanding of the notion of cultural cognition. Applications of Cultural Linguistics have enabled fruitful investigations of the cultural grounding of language in several applied domains such as world Englishes, intercultural communication, and political discourse analysis. This contribution elaborates on these observations and provides illustrative examples of linguistic research from the perspective of Cultural Linguistics. Sharifian (2011, 2017). Cultural Linguistics explores, in explicit terms,

conceptualisations that have a cultural basis and are encoded in and communicated through features of human languages. The pivotal focus on meaning as conceptualisation in Cultural Linguistics owes its centrality to cognitive linguistics, a discipline that Cultural Linguistics drew on at its inception. The term Cultural Linguistics was perhaps first used by one of the founders of the field of cognitive linguistics, Ronald Langacker, in a statement he made emphasising the relationship between cultural knowledge and grammar. He maintained that “the advent of cognitive linguistics can be heralded as a return to cultural linguistics. Sharifian (2008b, 2009b, 2011) offers a model of cultural cognition that establishes criteria for distinguishing between what is cognitive and what is cultural and the relationship between the two in the domain of Cultural Linguistics. Cultural cognition embraces the cultural knowledge that emerges from the interactions between members of a cultural group across time and space. Apart from the ordinary sense of emergence here, cultural cognition is emergent in the technical sense of the term. Cultural Linguistics has offered a ground breaking approach to the exploration of varieties of English, based on the premise that varieties of English may be distinct from each other when their respective cultural conceptualizations are taken into consideration (Sharifian 2005, 2006). Malcolm and Rochecouste (2000) identified a number of distinctive cultural schemas in the discourse produced by a number of speakers of Australian Aboriginal English.

These schemas included: travel, hunting, observing, scary things, gathering, problem solving, social relationships, and smash (an Aboriginal English word for a fight). Wolf (2008: 368) maintains that this “cultural model involves a cosmology and relates to such notions as the continuation of the community, the members of the community, witchcraft, the acquisition of wealth, and corruption, which find expression in African

English”. For example, by examining a number of expressions in Cameroon English, e.g., they took bribes from their less fortunate brother, Wolf observes that the central conceptual metaphors in that variety of English are kinship is community and community is kinship (Wolf 2008: 370). From the perspective of Cultural Linguistics, making indirect inferences during intercultural communication is largely facilitated by the cultural conceptualisations shared by the interlocutors. Cultural conceptualizations provide a basis for constructing, interpreting, and negotiating intercultural meanings. These conceptualisations may be the ones that are associated with their L1, or they may be others that the individuals have had access to as a result of, living in a particular cultural environment, or even new ones that they have developed from interacting with speakers from other cultures.

2.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter was divided into two parts: review of related literature and theoretical framework. The first part is the review of related literature. This part of chapter two discussed three traditions of scholarly work. These were definitions of persuasion, . First, studies on persuasion by earlier scholars like Leah (2001) rule-breaking persuasive device in advertising, Critical Discourse Analysis, Pragmatics Act and Cultural Linguistics. Their works offer a description of various angles from which persuasion can be studied. The social judgement theory was however receiver-based and mostly tended to down play the role of the source in making persuasion effective. The theory has two key concepts, attitude scale and ego-involvement, both of which are internally based on the receiver.

The third body of work reviewed borders on the use of linguistic violation to persuade in advertising. It mainly concerns how advertisers break the rules of grammar, and conventions in order to persuade their target audience.

Leah, (2001), examples of such violations include violations at the orthographic level, which involves misspelling words for the purpose of drawing attention to themselves; at the syntactic level, where there are violations that normally involve constructions that sound as *bad English*; the lexical level, where violations involve the invention of new lexical items or word formation which would normally strike an audience as odd and beyond the normal process of word formation; the semantic level where we have infringements on the semantic code of language like contradictions which are meant to be interpreted by readers in a way that will reconcile the seemingly incompatible meaning; the morphological level where morphemes are paired with non-grammatical counterparts; and lastly, the contextual level which involves the use of language in situations to which it is inappropriate.

The theory proposes that language is not simply a tool by which people communicate their thoughts, but also, mold ideas and programme mental activity. Thus, people with different native languages will not have the same view of the universe.

However, the evidence from research indicates that language does influence thought and perception of reality to a degree, but language does not govern thought or reality.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introductory Remarks

This chapter discusses the methodological issues in the present study such as data collection procedures, sampling procedures and data analyse procedures. In this chapter, I present the general plan by which the work was carried out and also take a look at data collection procedure (section 3.1). Based on the procedure, I present the sampling procedure stages (section 3.2.1- 3.2.2) and finally analyze the data (section 3.2.3).

3.1 Research Approach

The method used in this study was qualitative content analysis, which according to Priest (1996: 250) is any method for doing social science research that uses general observations, depth, and verbal descriptions in place of numerical measures. However, Nassaji, (2015), assert that, the goal of a descriptive research is to describe a phenomenon and its characteristics. The qualitative approach to research looks at describing the data of the study whether in written form or the oral form. Certain concepts that relate to the research by this approach are explained using words instead of number measurement. The choice of this analytic procedure was informed by the fact that the present study deals with soft data (expressions, words, sentences, symbols) rather than hard data, and therefore the emphasis is on discovering meaning embedded in the advertising texts studied. The qualitative method of analysis is therefore the most suitable for such a study. Another reason why the researcher used the qualitative design is that the present study is nonlinear. That is, it does not follow a fixed sequence of events and involves the analysis and interpretation of texts which

may involve different shades of meaning, subtle connotations or contextual distinctions.

This study sought to discuss the use of discourse strategies in advertisements and how the cultural elements are exploited to bring about persuasion. Specifically, the framework for the analysis was dual faceted, comprising discourse analysis and rhetorical analysis methods.

First, discourse has been used to refer to written texts, but it has also been used in connection with audio-visual media and oral discourse. Media studies grew out of semiotic studies attempting to assess the meaning of language in terms of its implicit ideological assumptions, and discourse analysis pays specific attention to the linguistic component of language use in the media, which is the focus of the present work. Discourse analysis therefore looks for the purpose behind the way something is said or presented. The main aim of the present study was to analyse advertisements to reconstruct their underlying persuasive purpose.

The researcher was interested in assessing how advertisers, through various discourse strategies and other language forms exploit elements in the Ghanaian culture to persuade their audience. Since this involved specific linguistic analyses of choice of words and thematic analyses, the researcher felt the discourse analysis procedure is relevant. Through examining the rhetorical devices employed in advertisements, some researchers have argued that it is possible to dissect the contents of commercial messages to understand better how their persuasive purpose is achieved.

One such study identified five rules of interpretation of advertising. Under the framework of rhetorical analysis, commercial messages were examined for their use of exhortations to buy or use a product or service and for their use of other devices

often linked to human drives to persuade consumers to choose the advertised brand over others. In addition, guidelines were drawn up for reading the text of the advertisement, its subtle use of words, phrase and images.

The justification for the choice of the rhetorical analysis is that the present study, apart from examining discourse strategies and the cultural elements exploited in commercial messages, also discusses linguistic items that are used in advertisements to persuade consumers.

3.2 Sampling Procedure

Sampling in most media studies is multi-staged. Multistage sampling is an extension of cluster sampling in which sampling is done in stages with smaller units being defined and selected at each stage within the units selected at the prior stage. Multistage sampling is used to reduce data collection cost. However, its use usually results in larger sampling errors than would result from simple random samples of the same size. The present study adopts and illustrates the application of multistage sampling in terms of two-stage samples. In two-stage cluster sampling, a simple random sample of clusters is selected and then a simple random sample is selected from the units in each sampled cluster. Below is how the sampling procedure was applied; sampling was made up of two stages.

3.2.1. First Stage

First, the researcher took a sample of content sources, which included all in Ghana Frequency Modulation (FM) stations and all newspapers, both privately-owned and state-owned. In selecting the audio sources, the researcher was interested in popularity and reach.

In addition, these FM stations were selected because they have affiliate FM stations all over the country through which they broadcast some of their programmes. In all, four radio stations, Peace FM, Joy FM, Adom FM and City FM were selected for the collection of data. This was chosen, due to, the way many Ghanaians listen to it on daily basis than print media because it does not face the same literacy and language barriers and also, as their prime news source. On the other hand, only two sources of print advertisements were selected namely Daily Graphic and Ghanaian Times. The basis for the selection of these two newspapers is that they are the two biggest circulating newspapers in Ghana, also being a state owned and its authenticity, therefore can be said to be representative of all newspapers in terms of advertisement placement.

The view above is supported by results of a casual survey of newspapers in Ghana by the researcher. The survey revealed that advertisements that appeared in any other newspaper also appeared in one of the selected two, but the reverse was not true. The researcher therefore felt that the inclusion of other newspapers will be time wasting as it would not make the content sources more representative.

3.2.2 Second Stage

The second stage of sampling involved a random selection of a pool of advertisements from audio and print media selected. In all, two hundred and three (203) advertisements were collected with fifty-five (55) from the electronic (audio) media and eighty-seven (87) from print (newspapers) media, between January, 2017 and May 2021.

It is important, however, to mention that the two hundred and three advertisements recorded do not include repeated advertisements. That is, because the advertisements (those recorded on radio) were played in groups within and between programmes, it was not possible for the researcher to take out already recorded advertisements either at the point of recording or after recording. In addition, the period selected for the collection of data was influenced solely by the limited period within which the research should be completed.

Out of the two hundred and three advertisements recorded, one hundred and forty-two advertisements (both audio and print) were purposively selected for transcription and analysis. The researcher used this method to ensure that only advertisements that fall within the scope of this study are selected. For example, some of the advertisements were foreign and therefore were not likely to reveal the Ghanaian culture.

3.2.3 Data

The data used for the study were made up of all radio advertisements that were aired between January, 2017 and May 2021, on the selected radio (FM) stations and newspapers. The Daily Graphic and Ghanaian Times were selected because of their popularity and reach. Another qualification was that the advertisements must be Ghanaian, that is, the advertisements should have been made in Ghana and by Ghanaians, and were in either the English language or any of the Akan language dialects.

3.3 Procedure for the Treatment of Data

Out of the one hundred and forty-two (142) advertisements, fifty-five were audio-recordings, which were made from the five FM stations. These advertisements were

recorded randomly from source onto the hard disk of a computer with a Fujitech TV and Radio Tuner Card installed in the computer.

That is, as and when a particular group of advertisements was aired by any of the five stations, the researcher recorded it. The data were then transcribed for analysis. On the average, it took the researcher an hour to transcribe five minutes of recorded data.

The remaining eighty-seven advertisements were selected from the Daily Graphic and Ghanaian Times, the two biggest circulating newspapers in Ghana. After transcription, the scripts were scrutinized by the researcher to identify the prominent linguistic features for analysis. Specific aspects of the data sought for include samples of culture-specific language, repetition, apposition, implicature, and conversational tone. The purpose was to investigate how these discourse strategies were used by advertisers to persuade their audience.

The main goal of the study was to describe how culture influences the linguistic devices that advertisers use to persuade their audiences in Ghana. This research also sought to explain some of the syntactic and lexical devices that are used to persuade in the Ghanaian media.

The researcher started with how advertisers exploit the relationship between language and culture to persuade their audiences with reference to specific instances in the data where the choice of certain linguistic elements (sentences, phrases and words) reflects and endorse certain cultural values and ideologies.

First, forms of culture-specific language like language of identity, ideologically loaded language and intertextuality were analysed to find out how they have been used to create common grounds and thus identify with the audience.

Apart from the analysis of the influence of culture on the linguistic devices used to persuade in the advertisements, syntactic and lexical devices in the data were identified and explained, especially, with regard to how they had been exploited to make the advertising message more persuasive. This part of the analysis focused on the following: repetition, apposition, inference-making, hedges and conversational tone.

Under repetition, the researcher examined repetition of lexical items like product names, and syntactic items like repetition of phrases and clauses with the same word order, to examine how these grammatical devices have been exploited to make the advertising message more persuasive.

In addition, the subtle use of appositive constructions to sway consumers to buy products, by enhancing memorability, was also examined. Furthermore, the researcher examined the use of implicature, where weak and unsubstantiated product claims are reworked into convincing sales statements that have the potential to mislead consumers to infer beyond the information stated and thus construct a stronger interpretation to aid persuasion.

This included the use of hedges, elliptical comparatives and implied causation. Last, the researcher examined the use of personal pronouns (*your, you*), interrogatives and colloquial language to create conversational tone to create the consumers' everyday reality to mark a relationship of intimacy, trust and confidence.

3.4 Limitations

There were limitations to the present research and these were in the area of data collection. First, the most convenient way was to get the advertisements from the media houses for transcription and analysis.

However, the media houses were not willing to give out the advertisements. Even those who were willing were quoting prices ranging from two hundred and fifty thousand cedis (¢250,000) to three hundred and fifty thousand cedis (¢350,000) per advertisement.

This, the researcher could not afford and so had to resort to recording the advertisements on a computer hard disk using a Fujitech TV and Radio Tuner Card installed in the computer, as and when the advertisements are played.

First, it took the researcher about five months to record enough advertisements. Though, fieldwork takes time, the researcher feels the five months used to gathering enough advertisements could have been cut to about a week if the advertising agencies had given out the advertisements to the researcher.

Second, the process of recording with a radio card installed in a computer is a very complicated one, which often results in data loss. For instance, at a point, the researcher lost about a hundred advertisements and most of these advertisements were never recovered as the radio stations had stopped playing them then. The lost data, it is felt by the researcher, could have made the data richer.

Furthermore, there were difficulties in the transcription of data. Apart from the fact that it took long a time to transcribe an advertisement, parts of some advertisements were not audible. As a result, some of the otherwise good advertisements could not be included and analysed.

3.5 Chapter Summary

In chapter three, the methodologies used were discussed. The methodology was discussed and then the framework.

First, the approach used was qualitative content analysis made up of discourse analysis and rhetorical analysis methods. The reason for the choice of this method is that the work deals with general observations and verbal descriptions in place of numerical measure, which makes the use of qualitative analysis more suitable.

Second, the procedure for the selection of data was explained. The first stage involved the selection of content sources, which included Peace FM, Joy FM, Adom FM, Citio FM and Star FM, on one hand and Daily Graphic and Ghanaian Times on the other hand.

The criteria for the selection were popularity and reach. At the second stage, a pool of advertisements was randomly selected out of which one hundred and forty-two were purposely selected and transcribed for analysis.

The chapter also discussed the procedure for the treatment of data. After transcription, prominent linguistic features like samples of culture-specific language, repetition, apposition, implicature, and conversational tone.

These were then analysed qualitatively to explain how they have been used by advertisers to persuade their audience. The chapter ends with a description of some of the limitations to the work. These were mainly limitations connected with data collection.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introductory Remarks

Language has a powerful influence over people and their behaviour, especially in the field of advertising. This chapter deals with the analysis and discussion of data obtained from print and electronic media in Ghana. This chapter explains how advertisers, through various discourse strategies, exploit elements in the Ghanaian culture to persuade their audience. The analysis focuses on thematic areas including culture-specific language (section 4.1), language of identity (section 4.2), ideologically-loaded language (section 4.3), intertextuality (section 4.4), and (section 4.5)

4.1 Culture – Specific Language

According to Schwartz (1973) it is better to get a message out of an audience than to try to put one into them. In other words, it is better for advertisers to rely on the set of experiences and memories that people have stored inside them. Also, people in everyday linguistic exchanges act out social structures, affirming their own statuses and roles, establishing and transmitting the shared systems of value and knowledge. Thus, the subtle incorporation of culture-specific elements in advertisements plays a very central role in the success of advertisements in Ghana.

4.2 Language of Identity

Linguistic identity refers to a person's identification as a speaker of one or more languages. The linguistic identity is part and often an important part of our identity. And this is especially true for multilingual individual.

The data studied revealed that one of the strategies that advertisers use to persuade their audience is the use of language forms that help them to identify with their audience.

This was explained by Aristotle (384-322 BC).

The following are examples from the data.

(1) *Yes bra. Bra Kwame, εε me de paa se woafre oo. Mese, wo fie no deε, bra Kwame, wo nye easy (you are on top)*

(2) *Wo bra, yefre me Adade oo. Nansen Guinness Extra
°Smooth ara na menom oo... Aa! εman adehyeε, wei deε
εnye me na mekaεε. Moara mo aso mu a.*

(3) *Charlie, filla ooh filla.*

What's that?

Buzz G.S.M. is ninety – nine thousand cedis.

(4) *First African Financial Services, Ghana sika manεε mu Piesie.*

In the above example, the advertiser tries to identify with the audience by using certain address forms and expressions that invoke in the audience a feeling of intimacy and solidarity.

For example, expressions like *wo nye easy* (the nearest translation in English will be, *You are on top*) and *wo bra* (literally translated as *Your brother*, but closer to *my brother*) belong to the middle and lower working classes in Ghana,

so that through the use of these expressions, the copywriter tries to identify and establish rapport with those classes of people in the society.

Likewise, in (3), the copywriter uses a jargon like *Charlie, filla oh filla*, obviously, to target a youthful audience. This expression is normally used on university campuses to announce newsy events to fellow students.

The persuasiveness of using language to identify with an audience lies in the fact that such expressions are similar to or the same as those used by the audience and so they come to recognise part of themselves and/or their experiences in such words and expressions.

Allied to the use of familiar expressions is the use of endearment, which means a word or an act such as, expressing affection forms whose connotative meanings evoke favourable disposition thereby putting the audience in a receptive mood for persuasion to take place?

These endearment forms are likely to immediately strike an intimate relationship between the copywriter and his audience. The point is that each of these forms carries a connotative meaning, which in itself is enough motivation for people to respond positively to the advertising message. For instance, *ɔman adehyee* in example (ii), apart from denoting royals, also connotes the privileged, the favoured, etc. Therefore, to call people *ɔman adehyee* in Akan is to elevate those persons and those persons attain the status of royals. So that, by extension, *adehyee* refers to the important, adorable, and privileged persons and also, *adehyee* can refer to fellow citizens.

This is in consonance with Agyekum's (2003) observation that Akan is a traditional society that attaches greater importance to address forms, honorifics and politeness in speech situations. Here, *honorifics* refer to specialised address and deference forms

used to show politeness and competence in language and culture. They also point to various aspects of social identity and are status-indexing speech forms reflecting social asymmetries.

Agyekum (2003) notes, knowledge of honorifics and their usage depend on the demographic and ethnographic background of the speaker; important here are place of birth and residence, age, family, class, education and profession. In Akan, people who grew up in royal families or who stayed at the chiefs' courts are conversant with such terms and usages, acquiring mastery as part of their socialization and enculturation. In general, people who grew up in rural areas have better skills in honorific usage than do purely urban dwellers. Since Kumasi (the second largest city in Ghana) is the citadel of Akan culture, residents there also have knowledge of honorifics, which are used constantly at durbars of chiefs, funerals and arbitrations at the chiefs' courts.

In the same vein, the denotative meaning of *Piesie* in (iv) is *first born*, but more importantly, it connotes affection. So that no Akan speaker will make a statement like, *me piesie yi deɛ ɔyɛ akwadaa bɔne* translated *this first born of mine is a bad boy*.

This is because by the nature of the term, *Piesie* cannot collocate with *bad*. The copywriter uses words and expressions in such a way that their associative meanings are evoked to facilitate persuasion. What makes these familiar expressions and endearment forms persuasive is that they have important meanings for the target audience and also signal a high degree of intimacy between the advertiser and the audience.

Such expressions and endearment forms therefore help the copywriter to mark solidarity, and identify with the audience. Refers to these language forms as casual language and this, according to him, involves dialect restrictions like slang expressions that are limited to small classes of people, and private words and phrases

having a particular meaning only for the members of a family or a group of intimate friends.

However, in spite of, the fact that, this discourse strategy is associated with a limited social group and obviously has a narrow appeal, such language forms foster a sense of identity and evoke the most favourable responses from the audience, because the words and phrases used by the advertiser refer to a specific group of receivers' language experiences. This is because, language forms show where one belongs and that our perception of our own and others' language can become a source of pride, pleasure, and anxiety.

4.3 Ideologically-Loaded Language

Ideology refers to the body of ideas reflecting the social needs and aspirations of an individual, group, class, or culture or a set of doctrines or beliefs that forms the basis of a political, economic, or other system.

In other words, it is a culture-specific system for understanding meaning or a people's worldview or mind set concerning how things are and ought to be. The emphasis here is on the active role played by the listener or reader of a message in the construction of the world that is evoked by the text in his or her mind. In this way, the choice of linguistic items in an advertisement contributes to the creation of specific worldviews, and this ultimately facilitates persuasion. Advertisements are constructed with the basic aim of selling products or services to people.

This means that the linguistic symbols employed in advertisements need to have significant meaning for the target audience to be able to influence their thoughts and actions. Examples of such language forms in the data include the following:

- (1) You just can't live like that. *A man* must be responsible.

Plan for the future.

(2) Hello, *Awura Adjoa nie?* (Hello, is this *Awura Adjoa?*) *onio*

bra, meretie wo na kasa. (Yes brother, I am listening, so

speak) *Mese, ma manie wo sika nti kɔ na gye.* (I have

sent you some money so go and take it)

(3) *Efua, me se, sika manee adwuma foforo bi a aba nie.* (Efua,

a new money transfer business has come to town) *Ei, nti eho*

na wo kɔ gyee wo sika a Kwesi de manee wo no?

(So that is where you went for the money Kwesi sent you?)

(4) *Ei Prophet Ozert, meda wo ase. Me a kane no*

me mfefo totome ape fre me Nkyanga, hwe se

seesei wodi me mprehwe fre me Obolo. Kane na

mayiyi nkasee sei gyengyen. Na nso prophet Ozert

adaworoma, ene maye kama. (Prophet Ozert, thank you. I

used to be mocked and called names like Nkyanga, but now

People admire and call me Obolo).

Example (i), *a man must be responsible*, reflects and endorses the notion of the man as the breadwinner or leader in a marriage and in society in general.

That is, the choice of *man*, and not *woman* or say, *parent (s)*, is very significant, because the choice of *man* among the other possible choices reflects and endorses a certain Ghanaian belief: that the *man* is the head of the family and the *man* as the bread winner who is responsible for the upkeep of the family. The point is that the copywriter, by choosing *man*, portrays an entrenched Ghanaian ideology to attract the audience.

In the Ghanaian traditional marital setup, it is the *man* who matters. The woman is more or less an appendage. What makes the choice of *Man* persuasive is that the copywriter is selling a message to an audience and he has draped the message in the values of the group he is interested in. The message then becomes more appealing and the audience responds to it in a positive way. Also, a look at examples (2) and (3) reveals that in both advertisements, money is sent from *Bra* (brother) to *Awura Adjoa* (sister) and from *Kwesi* (husband) to female *friend of Afua* (female), respectively.

The issue is that the choice of males as senders and women as receivers is not accidental. The copywriter made these choices in order to make the worldview he is painting fit into the belief system or reality of the audience he is interested in – Ghanaians - so as to get them to identify with the product.

In (4), *Nkyanga* and *Obolo* refer to a thin or slender person and a plump person, respectively. According to the advertisement, the narrator was mocked by her colleagues and called *Nkyanga*, because she was lean. But now, with the help of the product, Prophet Ozert, she is now fleshy (*Na nso, prophet Ozert adaworoma, enne maye kama*) and so her colleagues now admire her and call her *Obolo*, which refers to a plump person.

The assumption here is that to be considered an attractive Ghanaian, a woman must be larger- waisted and hipper, whilst a lean person is considered unattractive and becomes an object of mockery. Therefore, once the advertiser knows the beliefs and values of the target audience about attractiveness, he adapts his message to those beliefs and values and this makes persuasion most successful.

This is significant as it explains why advertisements often reflect the culture of an audience so as to be meaningful. That is, each society determines what to consider as

beautiful about a woman to the extent that a society's notion of beauty may vary from time to time.

It is however acknowledged that contrary to the research finding, exotic literature from the West indicates that larger-waisted females are also adored. This technique facilitates persuasion greatly, because by the use of the terms *Nkyanga and Obolo*, the advertiser has naturalised or made "common sense", the standards for determining beauty, and this certainly leads the target audience to pursue those standards out of desire or necessity.

The point is that the technique prescribes what is to be done to attain the "common sense standards". In this particular case, buying Prophet Ozert will make one *Obolo* and thus avoid being mocked by people.

It has therefore become common for advertisers in Ghana to indicate the country of origin or the make of certain products, not just to give information about a product's source, but more importantly, to empower the product by increasing its appeal.

Examples from the data include

(5) *Made by Pharmacist Ultimate Health in the U.S.A.* Men's Ultimate Formula and Women's Ultimate Formula are both Natural supplements formulated for the needs of different Working men and women.

(vi) The world's best Genets at the world's best prices *British Technology*

(vii) *Wɔɔyɛ no abɛɛfo nsaano de fi aburokyere tɔn na aba.* (It was manufactured using modern technology and it has been imported all the way from abroad)

Examples (v) *Made by Pharmacist Ultimate Health in the U.S.A* and (6) *British Technology* bear evidence to this fact. The point is that by using such expressions, the advertiser is exploiting the beliefs of the audience to sell his products.

The audience believes that goods and services from U.S.A. and Britain are of high quality: so Men's Ultimate Formula and Women's Ultimate Formula were *made in the U.S.A.*, therefore they are of high quality; Broad crown Generating Sets were made with *British Technology* therefore they are of good quality.

What is important here is that *Made in U.S.A* and *British Made* evoke a perception that fits into the prevailing cultural reality, and in so doing, maintain a particular pattern of consumption?

Furthermore, advertisers use language to cast a myth around a product or create an air of superiority around it by characterising it as being environmentally friendly, energy saving, first on the market, being natural, etc.

Though these characterizations are not uniquely Ghanaian, they create credibility and power, and thus make the product more appealing to the audience. It is this tendency to react in certain ways to language forms that advertisers exploit to persuade their audience. These patterns of responses then form the premises for persuasion.

For instance (i) White – Westinghouse CFC – Free and *environmentally Friendly* R407c split Air – conditioners. This is just what the Environment needs from a cooling device. So with White –

Westinghouse *you don't have to destroy the environment to stay cool!*

Technology for life.

(ii) The Samsung range of next generation Air-conditioners, is a Revolution in air-cooling, purifying and *energy saving* technology.

Environmentally friendly and *energy saving* create credibility and power in the products they characterise, R407c split Air – conditioners and Samsung Air Conditioners, thus giving these products an edge over others that are not environmentally friendly and energy saving.

Here, the advertiser has exploited the concern of most Ghanaians over the high energy cost of air conditioners in general and also endorsed the struggle of most environmentalists to educate Ghanaians on the ozone-depleting tendency.

In this way, the product is put at the “top” of the audience’s mind, where they (products) hold their attention and become distinct from other brands vying for the audience’s attention and commitment. This feature was found in most of the advertisements studied and this is significant in the sense that most of the statements in the advertisements studied are expressive of and organised by Ghanaian belief systems.

This concept is, however, grounded in the Social Judgment Theory (Sherif and Carl, 1961) which among other things, says that for a message to be persuasive it must fall within the target audience’s latitude of acceptance.

In this case, the person will adjust his/her attitude to accommodate the new idea and the persuasive effect will be positive. Thus, so long as the message falls within the latitude of acceptance of the target audience there will be some measurable movement from the hearer’s perceived position to that of the speaker.

4.4 Intertextuality

Derived from the Latin word, “intertexto”, meaning to intermingle while weaving, intertextuality is a term first introduced by French semiotician Julia Kristeva (1980:66). Intertextuality could therefore be described as texts recognised in terms of their dependence on other relevant texts (Gully 1994). So that in any given text, a continual “dialogue” is being set up with other texts that exist outside it, both currently and historically. The argument here is that in trying to persuade an audience, an advertiser may exploit the underlying relationship between the presentation of certain words and phrases in the text, and a literary association familiar to the target audience.

In this sense, the role of shared knowledge becomes particularly significant, because of the play with intertextual references to other text types such as songs, poems, films, political campaign slogans, etc, and to other advertisements - which build upon the shared experiences of interlocutors. The primary function of this technique is to generate interest in the message and enhance its memorability. Examples include the following:

(i) Galilee Adom Bitters, *maaso menom bi*. (Galilee Adom Bitters let me also drink some).

(ii) *Charlie Pusher*, why you dey do so?

Chatsu, Chatsu, Chatsu. *I go Celine in house last week, wey im pọpee dey chase us ooh. Oh, I jump the wall noor, I sprain my knee den ankle oo.*

(iii) Na wo ama no Tida?

Wo se sen?

Me se, wo ama no Tida, mmofra Commando?

Dabi oo.

Oh, enee wo ato Pɛtɛ tuo. Tida deɛ, *eye one touch*. (As for

Tida, it is one touch).

(iv) Me kunu se, “Wo Ba Ada Anaa” deɛ, *scent no ye good*. (My

Husband says *the scent* of “Wo Ba Ada Anaa” is good).

Advertisement (1) suggests that the speaker is also a person and so what is good for everyone is also good for her. Therefore, she will also drink Galilee Adom Bitters.

By means of the apparent association with the *Printex* advertisement with the end line *Printex, maaso mashe bi* (Printex, let me also wear some), which featured Madam Rama Brew of *Ultimate Paradise* fame, the copywriter has borrowed a structure which is already very familiar and popular with Ghanaians. This creates interest in the advertisement and enhances its memorability.

Also (2) is an advertisement for Radian B, a product used for muscle aches and pains, stiffness, etc. and with the youth as the main target. Now, one may ask, why the name *Pusher*, and why would Celine’s father chase him out? Answers to these questions are not provided in the advertisement, but are very significant in the sense that they are provided in the Television series *Things We Do For Love*, which was aired in Ghana a few years ago on T.V. 3, Ghana. The name *Pusher* and what made him sprain his ankle are reminiscent of the escapades of the main character in *Things We Do For Love*. **Implicatures** are non-stated information that can only be inferred from texts/utterances. They help us to make meanings out of texts. If individuals are able to make right inferences, texts or utterances will be more meaningful. There is always a gap between **what is said** and **what is meant** and to some extent, we **say less** and

mean more. The bridge from what is said or written and what is communicated is built through **implicatures.** “Implicature is a component of speaker meaning that constitutes an aspect of what is **meant** in a speaker’s utterance without being part of what is **said.** What a speaker **intends to communicate** is characteristically far richer than what s/he directly expresses; linguistic meaning radically underdetermines the message conveyed and understood.” In communicative interaction, it is the duty of the speaker to use pragmatic principles to bridge the gap between what s/he intends and what s/he says. S/he also expects his /her addressee(s) to explore the same **bridging inferences** to get to the meaning and interpretation of the utterance. Anytime the tools for bridging the gap are absent, there is wrong interpretation resulting in miscommunication.

Due to the popularity of the Television series among Ghanaians, *Pusher*, the name of the main character and the expression, *I go Celine in house last week wey impɔpee dey chase us oh*, are enough to evoke in the minds of the audience, images from *Things We Do For Love*.

This is what refers to as “inter-discoursal” technique, which occasions an advertisement containing the voice of another discourse type by evoking knowledge of that discourse type, in this case, a movie.

What makes this technique effective in persuading the audience is that the advertiser, through the use of these expressions, associates the product, Radiant B, with a film (*Things We Do For Love*) which is so popular with the target audience that a lot of interest is generated in the advertisement and this makes the message memorable.

Advertisement (3), uses the expression, Tida deɛ, *eye one touch* (as for Tida, it is One Touch), to refer to a ruling New Patriotic Party's slogan at the 2004 general election.

The slogan makes reference to the fact that the elections will be *one touch* meaning, the New Patriotic Part (N.P.P) was winning the elections first round. Interestingly, this slogan originally belongs to the mobile phone service of the Ghana Telecommunications Limited, which used the slogan *one touch* to mean that with their network, the first dial puts you through.

Therefore, in the context of the advertisement, *one touch* means Tida is a one-time treatment for fever. In (4), "*scent no*" (the scent), is a phrase from a popular hip pop song in Ghana: *scent no oo... scent no, agye baabiara/ negative* (the scent is everywhere). *Scent no*, in the context of the song, refers to unpleasant smell from the armpit, used socks, etc.

As a result of the popularity of the song, the then opposition party, the New Patriotic Party (N.P.P.) chanced on the structure, *scent no, agye babiara* and used it as a slogan in the 2002 general election in Ghana. Interestingly, the meaning of "*scent no (agye babiara)* shifted to *the feeling of positive change* (is everywhere), obviously, in reference to the general cry for political change. The slogan generated a lot of interest and worked very well for the N.P.P. It is important to note that, there is a further shift in the meaning of *scent no*, to "the pleasant smell" of Alomo Gin Bitters in the context of the advertisement.

Therefore, as a citation or quote is moved from one text to another, its social, political, and economic context is cut off in ways that transform its meaning in radical ways. What makes the advertisement effective is that the advertiser has cashed in on

the wealth of interest generated by the expression by associating the product with the catch phrase, *scent no*.

The importance of intertextuality in facilitating persuasion in advertising cannot be underrated. Expressions and structures like *Pusher*, *One Touch*, *Maaso ma she bi* etc, (conditioned stimulus) naturally generate interest (conditioned response) among the youth. Now the products: Printex, Radiant B, and Tida (unconditioned stimulus) are simply associated with the expressions and structures that are already familiar with the audience so that after some time, the products acquire the power to generate interest in the youth like the expressions in their original context. This will inevitably ensure memorability of the products.

Advertisement is therefore, to be taken as a puzzle, presenting an audience member with a personal challenge. In this way, the interpretation of an advertisement is not something produced by the subject, but rather something consumed by them. The fact that consumers are encouraged to explore an advertisement in order to discover its concealed meaning has the eventual effect of positioning the subject as the owner of that meaning. The fact that most advertisements are imbued with a sense of personal fulfillment means that the subject is both rewarded by him having “worked it out” as well as discovering a possible avenue for personal satisfaction.

The sense of reward felt by having worked it out has the result of naturalising that which has been worked out, thereby fulfilling the advertisement’s highest ideological function. This relationship between the ‘objective’ and the ‘subjective’ emergence of meaning in advertisement is what makes them effective; through the clouding of our perceptions of ourselves. Apart from exploiting the relationship between language and culture to persuade their target audience, advertisers in Ghana also exploit certain

grammatical features like repetition, implicature and conversational tone to persuade their target audience

4.5 Repetition

Repetition refers to the technique of repeating the same word or set of words at the beginning or end of successive clauses or words. That is, it is employed as an associative mnemonic device to aid the recall of product names, key phrases and messages in general. Leech (1966:29), for advertising to make a lasting impression, its message must be memorable. And it is through repetition of the advertising message that the consumer becomes and stays familiar with a product and its claims. Repetition therefore helps the potential consumer to remember both the product and the advertising message.

i. Lexical Repetition

When proper names and other lexical items are repeated in other types of discourse, it is for the purpose of lexical cohesion. However, , repetition of brand names and other items in advertisements has a more obvious function than that of providing continuity.

In the data, it was realised that the repetition of brand-names often occurs in neighbouring clauses, where in normal circumstances the repetition would be avoided by the use of a pronoun. The following extracts from the data bear evidence to this fact. (1) But there is one place you can get all you need

..... Swanzy Shopping Arcade

The Swanzy Shopping Arcade has over fifty

..... The Swanzy Shopping Arcade is easily
accessible

Come to the Swanzy Shopping Arcade located at

(2) Hi Honey! Have you heard the news? (female)

Aah. There she goes again. News? What is it this
time? (male)

It's about Globitin.

So you never knew about Globitin? It is a
supportive herbal preparation.....

That's true! Globitin relieves you of rheumatism
and menstrual disorders.

Globitin gives you appetite and clears insomnia and relaxes you for a good night's
sleep. For clear eyesight, take Globitin
and you will be one of the numerous clients who have
testified about the potency of Globitin. Globitin is available in all licensed pharmacies

(3) Whenever headache, tooth ache ... strike, match them
with Rapinol. Yes, quick action Rapinol makes pain
go. Rapinol is for fast and effective relief of pain and other feverish conditions. Grab
Rapinol today and make your pain go. Not
for use for children and adolescents. Rapinol is another quality product from starwins
products limited.

(4) Malaherb, aduro mapa a etumi Malaria ntem so.

Wo nom Malaherb a, wo ho nkeka wo. Malaherb
ebibiduro, eye ma mpaninfo ← ne mmofra.
Sesei wo ye Malaherb yie. Ne bo ← no nso da efem
kora. Wo benya Malaherb w ← ...Malaherb,
papa no no.

(5) Ingram comphor cream esiesie amanfo, nti wo
nhuu ye? Ingram Comphor Cream, se wo nantin

apaepae, sra bi.

Ingram Comphor Cream nti no, wo nepadua be da

wo ase. Se wo abatwe, beda wo ase a, na efi

Ingram Comphor Cream. Ingram Comphor Cream

siesie honam biara ema ne ye

tokotoko...

Ingram Comphor Cream, skin Doctor.

In the first extract, the company name *Swanzy Shopping Arcade* is mentioned six times. The second, third and fourth repetitions could have been avoided, because they could have been substituted by pronouns like *it*, *we* or *us*.

In the second, *Globitin* is mentioned seven times, in the third, *Rapinol* is mentioned five times, in the fourth, *Malaherb* is mentioned six times and in the last extract, “Ingram Camphor Cream” is mentioned six times.

This is done on purpose to ensure that the product name is repeated as many times as possible within an advertisement, for it is a general principle that if a piece of language is repeated often enough, it will stick. And advertising gains nothing unless the product name is remembered.

So this is done in order to enhance the memorability of the product name. Repetition of product names therefore plays a vital role in the success of an advertisement. It must however be mentioned that while there is abundance use of this device in the radio advertisements, it is almost non-existent in print advertisements. This situation is obviously due to the transient nature of messages in radio advertisements. Members of the target audience in radio advertisements have just an opportunity to hear the product name unlike in print advertisements where due to the permanent nature of the

printed word, readers have unlimited access to the product name. The advertiser wants the audience to remember the product name and therefore the pronoun is often sacrificed for the repetition of the product name.

ii. Syntactic Repetition

Syntactic repetition is another common form of repetition used in advertisements in Ghana. The main effect of this device is that it reinforces the qualities of a product in a mnemonic fashion. In effect, it makes the message more forceful and memorable. As stated earlier, memorability is important in advertising.

To affect buying behaviour, an advertising message must make a lasting impression on an audience. There are many examples of syntactic repetition to be found in Ghanaian radio and print advertisements. It is common, for example, to find a word or phrase repeated in several successive clauses with similar word order. This may take a number of forms. Consider, for instance, the following example taken from an advertisement for Unique Insurance Company.

(1) You cannot predict,
But you can prepare!

In (1), the sentence is divided into two balanced parts and the two halves are opposed or contradictory, creating antithetic parallelism. That is, two contrasting views about the problems of life are contrasted and the parallelism underscores that contrast.

The subjects in both clauses are pronouns, and that is parallel structure. What makes the device effective is that both subjects are followed by verb phrases, *cannot predict* and *can prepare*.

Also, the mnemonic effect of the parallel structure is reinforced by the repetitious pattern of the consonant sound [p] in predict and prepare so that while the semantic

content pushes the two words apart, the pattern of consonant sounds links the two words or ideas together. This in effect increases the memorability of the message.

Sometimes too, the second half echoes or develops the first and this is called synonymous parallelism. An example is the Poly Sack advertisements:

(2) Double the capacity

Double the satisfaction

(2), the effect of placing together messages with similar word order, verb(+noun) phrase, and the repetition of the verb *double*, enhances memorability of the product attributes – *capacity* and *satisfaction*. Also, the repetition of Double at the beginning of the two clauses creates anaphora. This, apart from making the message memorable, also tends to produce a strong emotional effect. and which is a good device for building climax.

Another type of syntactic repetition found in the data is *epiphora* which is the repetition of a word or a phrase at the end of a clause or sentence. An example is Ecobank's investment advertisement:

(3) We worry about *what you invest in,*

Where you invest

How you invest

(4) The world *is changing*

Technology is changing

In (3) and (4), the ideas of *investment* and *change* are emphasised and by placing the ideas at parallel positions, memorability of those ideas is enhanced.

4.6 Apposition

Apposition is a construction made up of two noun groups, one of which names the product, and the other, a quality of the product. In the data, approximately, every three out of four advertisements contain this kind of construction, and it almost always occurs as a signature line. The function of apposition in advertising is to associate the brand name with a tag line expressing an appealing and distinctive image of the product or company. For example,

(1) Kimo, House of Tiles and Style

(2) Ingram camphor cream, skin doctor.

(3) Esso, the universal symbol of protection.

(4) Fralina, Onyame ehyira so←.

In examples (i), (ii) and (iii), each product name is paired with an attribute or a quality and such pairing, according to Leech (ibid: 29), has the potential to bring the consumer to the point where the brand – name and a catch-phrase associated with it are mutual recall stimuli.

In this way, the product is stored in the consumer's mind with a permanently attached label. The practice of associating an idea (appealing image of product or product claim) with a product name in advertisements, reflects the significance of Pavlov's Stimulus-Response Theory in the world of advertising.

By associating a product (unconditioned stimulus) to an idea (conditioned stimulus), any time an audience member is able to recall a quality or an attribute of a product, he also remembers the product. In this way the product name alone may come to connote the attribute and therefore elicit the appealing image originally elicited by the appositive.

4.7 Implicature

Implicatures are non-stated information that can only be inferred from texts/utterances. They help us to make meanings out of texts. If individuals are able to make right inferences, texts or utterances will be more meaningful. There is always a gap between **what is said** and **what is meant** and to some extent, we **say less** and **mean more**. The bridge from what is said or written and what is communicated is built through **implicatures**. Horn (2006: 3) states that “Implicature is a component of speaker meaning that constitutes an aspect of what is **meant** in a speaker’s utterance without being part of what is **said**. What a speaker **intends to communicate** is characteristically far richer than what s/he directly expresses; linguistic meaning radically underdetermines the message conveyed and understood.”

In communicative interaction, it is the duty of the speaker to use pragmatic principles to bridge the gap between what s/he intends and what s/he says. S/he also expects his /her addressee(s) to explore the same **bridging inferences** to get to the meaning and interpretation of the utterance. Anytime the tools for bridging the gap are absent, there is wrong interpretation resulting in miscommunication.

Through implicature, weak and unsubstantiated product claims can be easily reworked into convincing sales statements that can mislead consumers to infer beyond the information stated and thus construct a stronger interpretation. Put another way, advertisers use language forms that entail very little, but implicate a lot. There are a number of reasons for using covert inferences: first, they are usually processed unconsciously and therefore can affect the audience without them noticing it.

Second, such claims can be easily denied by a copywriter without logical contradiction. The fact that the potential consumer is incited to explore the

advertisement in order to discover its implied meaning is very important, because usually people do not make distinctions between what people assert and what they imply. They accept all together as “what they said”.

Advertising may persuade either by increasing a consumer’s false belief or by exploiting, a true belief in ways designed to sell the product. There are several types of linguistic structures (both syntactic and lexical) that are used to embed and transfer underlying, yet unasserted meanings to the audience, and thus construct much stronger interpretations.

4.8 Elliptical comparatives

A comparative adjective or adverb is one of the linguistic constructions used in the process of inference-making. A comparative adjective or adverb necessarily involves some sort of standard to which something is compared.

Examples from the data include

- (1) It stands to reason, MTN truly gives you *more*.
- (2) You will find it *easier* to manage your finances.
- (3) For only thirty – three thousand dollars, the Suzuki Excel 7
Delivers far superior value than any other 4×4 in its class

When a product is said to give more, the statement is largely vacuous without knowing the basis for comparison. In (1) and (2), the basis for comparison is obviously other producers of mobile networks in Ghana and other financial institutions, respectively.

But since no comparison is practically made, the claims are not considered to be false.

Now, does MTN give you more than what it used to give, or gives you more than

what you pay for, or the more obvious interpretation, gives you *more* than the other network services give?

Also, will the customer of Barclays find it *easier* to manage his finances than before, or find it easier with Barclays than with other banks? Just like (i) and (ii), (iii) also makes a comparison, but unlike (i) and (ii), the advertiser has provided a basis for the comparison, *other 4×4 in its class*. However, it is interesting to note that it is very difficult, if not impossible, to determine the class of cars (*other 4×4 in its class*) against which he is comparing the Suzuki Grand Vetara Excel 7. Because the audience cannot determine the range of 4x4s in the range of the Vetara Excel 7, they may infer that the Vetara Excel 7 delivers far superior value than all 4x4s, which is not necessarily true.

In fact, what makes elliptical adjectives persuasive in advertising is the fact that they invite the consumer to infer beyond the information stated, and thus construct a stronger and more favourable interpretation.

4.9 Implied Causation

Often a causal relationship may be implied when there exists only a correlational one. One particular technique copywriters use to achieve this is the juxtaposition of two imperatives or what is known as calls “a pair of imperative clauses in apposition”. It could also be an imperative and an affirmative or a question and an affirmative.

For example

(1) *Ko to bi. Mmofra no bedidi.* (Go and buy one. The children will eat.)

(2) *Prevent the flow of confidential information outside the office.*

Use a Shredder!

(3 Be Smart!! Use Smart Look Spray Starch

(4) Beware of imitation!!! Prevent Malaria!!! Perfumed new

Angel Jumbo Mosquito coils Insist on the original

(5) Looking for longer, straighter hair? The search is over

Venus hair relaxer. Fulfilling your dream of beautiful hair.

(6) Worried about persistent cough? Discover pectoral.

In examples (1), (2), (3) and (4), it is not clearly stated that buying the product will have the stated effect, but the causal inference should be drawn normally by a customer, because the tendency in humans to infer beyond the given information is very strong. In other words, the assumed relationship between the clauses is that the second action guarantees the first. Advertisers are able to exploit this inference-making tendency, because human beings are inference creatures trained to “read into” what is said, as much as it is consistent with the literal meaning of what is said and the context in which it is said.

This could have been expressed by using subordination. For example, *se woKɔ tɔ bi a, Mmofra no bedidi* (If you buy one, the children will eat).

Then the condition for buying the product could be challenged. However, because the product claim cannot be substantiated, the audience is left to arrive at the assumed relationship.

In (5) and (6), the causal relationship is implied by way of putting side by side an interrogative and an affirmative(s). In (5),

Looking for longer straighter hair?

The search is over

Venus Hair relaxer

It is not stated that if one buys Venus Hair Relaxer, he will get longer and straighter hair. However, by the mere arrangement of these clauses side by side, the consumer is encouraged to infer this meaning.

There is not even a directive as to what the customer should do with the product: whether he should buy it, try it, look for it, etc. This enables the advertiser to distance himself from the intended product claim.

Also, in (6),

Worried about persistent cough? Discover pectoral.

the interrogative clause is immediately followed by an imperative. However, it is not stated that buying Pectoral will put a stop to the persistent cough. Even the invitation to buy the product is blurred by the hedge word *discover*.

The importance of the use of inference in advertising lies in the fact that advertisers routinely exploit people's tendency to draw inferences so that the burden of interpretation is left on the audience who in most cases will make inferences in ways favourable to advertisers.

Secondly, because more effortfully processed information is more readily retrieved from memory than less effortfully processed information, putting the burden of interpretation on the audience leads to higher memorability (Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984) Furthermore, by using this technique, advertisers are able to save space and time in Newspapers and Radio respectively, to save money as wording is reduced to the minimum.

4.10 Hedging

Hedges or what Crystal (1991) calls inexplicit grammatical constructions, are words or expressions that lend an air of vagueness to product claims. A hedge expression therefore blurs a copywriter's intent with regard to the claims he makes about a product. Hedges allow copywriters to seem to say something without ever really saying it, thereby allowing them to weasel their way out of promises they make to target audiences about products. The following are among examples:

(1) Fill the coupon in the pack and you *could be* the winner of a dazzling, brand new Alfa

147. (Print).

(2) Men's Ultimate Formula and Women's

Ultimate Formula combines the finest natural herbal extracts, vitamins and minerals that *will help* you restore lost energy and vitality. (Radio)

(3) Plus a coupon that *could make* you win part of our attractive two hundred million cedis scholarship package on City Fm (Radio)

(4) Adom Bitters, *etumi* ye waist pains ho adwumma sen (Adom Bitters can work on Waist pains effectively).

In (1), it is said that in filling the coupon, one only stands a chance of winning the Alfa 147. The hedge phrase *could be* suggests that filling the coupon does not guarantee winning the Alfa. So one only stands the chance of winning if he buys the coupon and that it is not a certainty that buying the coupon will make one win. What

the hedge does here is that it blurs the difference between the two different meanings and in so doing encourages the audience to infer that buying a coupon will lead to winning the Alfa.

In (2), the audience is assured that Men's Ultimate Formula and Women's Ultimate Formula *will help* restore lost energy and vitality, but does not necessarily restore them. Here, the hedge expression seems to offer a cure and not an aid. The point is that the audience is encouraged to believe that the drug actually restores lost energy and vitality.

In (3), it says that buying a coupon *could make* one win the money. *Could make*, takes away any causal relationship between buying a coupon and winning the money. However, the causal inference should be drawn, normally by the audience. Also, the careful reader would understand that even if the coupon buyer is lucky and wins, it is only *a part of* the two hundred million cedis scholarship package that would be won.

Lastly, in (4), *etumi* means, *it can*, and therefore the message does not say Adom Bitters *works well* on waist pains, but rather, *can work* well on waist pains.

Also, the expression *ye waist pains ho adwuma se*, translated, *works on waist pain effectively*, is vague. This is because *Adom Bitters works well on waist pains* does not necessarily mean it cures waist pains. However, it is only natural that the audience infers this misleading, but favourable interpretation, because that is the meaning consistent with the advertising context.

4.11 Conversational Tone

Conversational tone refers to the character, style and atmosphere created by the language used and normally marks a relationship of intimacy, trust and confidence. It also draws the reader nearer into the creation of the text. Rothschild. (1987: 274-

277). Advertising copy must simulate speaking, even in written texts, because a conversational tone is easy to read and digest than a more formal tone.

A conversational tone has the effect of directly involving the addressee in the discourse situation, appealing directly to his or her knowledge, interests and emotions.

In the data, there were a number of devices that copywriters have used to create a conversational tone.

KNUST

4.11.1 Personalisation

Personalisation is simply the way in which an advertisement attempts to address the individual, and this is one way by which a conversational tone is created in advertisements. Indeed, advertising language, at its best, is woven from real notions of who is out there listening.

“The only kind of language that can effectively persuade in advertisement is that which is targeted at the consumer as an individual and not just as one of the masses.”

The following are examples from the data:

(1) *You* better believe it it's 100, it's 100

(2) *You've* invested in Luxury. How secure is it? Be absolutely
sure

Choose Cross links that cover three uprights for increased
strength

(3) *You owe it to yourself* to get the power!

Fanyogo. Power packed

(4) Gutta, the Champion Roofing Sheets. *Dear valued
customer,*

Gutta used to have 10 years Guarantee but due to its

endurance, durability and performance in all continents over a long period of time, we are happy to extend this guarantee to 15 years.

The use of the second person, *you* or *your*, in advertising language as second person singular, immediately builds a notion of personal interaction between the advertiser and each audience member.

First, it has the effect of making every individual in the target audience feel that he/she is being talked to. Second, it directly involves each audience member in the discourse situation, appealing directly to his or her knowledge, interests and emotions, And these may cause him/her to respond to the message more positively than in situation where he is addressed as just one of the masses.

In (1) and (2), it is as if the advertiser is engaged in a private conversation with each audience member separately, directly appealing to his/her interests. Here, the *you* and *you've*, in (1) and (2), respectively, represent the consumer, a unique individual with whom the copywriter carries on an interpersonal dialogue and this captures and maintains his interest in the "dialogue".

In (3), the idea of the advertiser having a dialogue with an individual is enforced by the reflexive pronoun *yourself*. That is, if the advertiser is just interested in the masses out there, he would have used *yourselves* rather than *yourself*.

The other party is regarded as a person rather than as a people. This technique eventually encourages him to respond positively to the message, and this facilitates persuasion greatly.

Extract (4) presents another interesting example of personal language from the data. The use of the salutation, *Dear valued customer*, addresses the consumer much more personally than any of the other forms of personal address.

The technique is enhanced by the apparent association between the advertisement and a business letter from a company to a client. It gives the consumer a sense of exclusiveness and this will,

Without any doubt, generate a more favourable response from him.

4.11.2 Interrogative Clauses / Rhetoric Question

Interrogatives in advertising are questions asked not to gain information per se, but to assert more emphatically the obvious answer to what is asked. The use of questions as a technique to bring about a conversational tone usually demands a mental response from the audience.

A question is asked and the reader or listener is supposed to answer in such a way as to affirm a product's goodness or to affirm a need for a product. Thus, through the use of this device, a conversational tone is often present even when the text is in a monologue. For example,

Stop dumping old outdated technology,
Secondhand computers in Ghana!!! *How long*
Should we clean the garbage dump of some one
else's country?

By the use of the interrogative, *how long should we clean the garbage dump of someone else's country*, the copywriter taps into the popular Ghanaian opinion that Ghana has become a dumping ground for developed nations.

It must also be noted that the conversational tone is reinforced by the choice of *second-hand*, thus making the message more persuasive.

The term, *second-hand computers* could have been substituted with *used computers* or better still, *slightly used computers*, but the fact that is *second-hand* is a more familiar term in Ghana and also has negative connotations in the minds of Ghanaians, especially, in association with *second-hand clothing* (obroni w'awu). In this way, there is an implicit attempt to associate *second-hand* computers with *second-hand* clothing by way of evoking the negative connotations of the word in the minds of the audience. Another example of the use of the interrogative in bringing about a conversational tone is an extract from an advertisement by Providence Insurance:

Providence Insurance *ekae amanfoɔ se, abrabɔ mu ne esan*
asem nti enna Providence Insurance erefre wo se hwɛ obi
agyapadeɛ na ahye no. Wo dwen se entumi ento wo da.

(you think it cannot happen to you.) *Akorɔnmfoɔ akɔ wia obi*
basaa. Accident ebubu obi pɔtɔɔ. Na se ekɔ to wo a? (What if it happens to you?)

The device is illustrated in the following sentence: *Na se ekɔ to wo a?* (What if it happens to you?). Even though, this advertisement is in monologue, it is made to resemble a dialogue through the use of interrogatives.

It is as if the copywriter is engaged in a face-to-face conversation with the potential customer to the point that the audience is forced to make an input to the message by mentally answering the question in such a way as to affirm the need for an insurance policy. In other words, this is a technique to grab attention, to engage people who are likely to have the problem or a similar problem or are concerned about a similar problem. In this way, the customer is not just informed about the need to buy a policy,

but more importantly, he is brought to a point where he gets the conviction that it is in his own interest to buy the policy.

4.11.3. Colloquial Language

Another way advertisers achieve a conversational style is through the use of colloquial or informal language. The vocabulary of advertisements is very informal and is drawn from everyday speech to appeal to ordinary people. The colloquial is used when an advertiser wants to establish or make contact with the audience, regardless of educational standards.

First, colloquial style is normally associated with the use of contracted forms like *can't*, *it's*, instead of *cannot* and *it is*, respectively. Examples are

(1) You better believe it

If *it's* 100, *it's* 100

(2) 147 reasons to buy a Snap Starter Pack ... and wear a smile
that'll last for miles.

(3) Welcome to the house of Everlast Vinyl

Doors and windows. They: *won't* wrap, *won't* corrode, *won't*
need maintenance, *won't* discolour (U.V. protected)

Contracted forms are normally associated with informal settings and deemed inappropriate for formal ones. However, in advertising, especially, in print advertisements, the use of contracted forms is a common place as it helps in the creation of a conversational tone. For instance, in (1), we have *it's* for *it is*, in (2), we have *that'll* for *that will*, and in (3), we have *won't* for *will not*. Their use suggests a friendly and intimate relationship between advertiser and the audience as it establishes a rapport between the advertiser and the audience.

Another characteristic of colloquial style is the use of phrasal verbs consisting of verbs of very high frequency and unspecific meaning like *get*, *take*, *put*, etc, and prepositional adverbs such as *find out*, *get out*, *fill in*, *call in*, *talk (things) over*.

Examples are

(4) *Get* the superior quality of Krif Money Counting Machines.

(5.) *Get over* the hustle. Come to the Swanzy Shop Arcade

Located at the -----for your one stop convenience shopping

Experience.

(6) *Go for* the name you trust. Naco

The point being made is that in formal English, a single verb of more specific meaning is preferred. For instance, *choose the name you trust*, is preferred to the informal, *go for the name you trust*. In other words, *choose* has approximately the same semantic function as the colloquial combination of the verb and the preposition, *go* and *for*, respectively.

However, in advertising, the colloquial expression is preferred because of its persuasive capacity. As said earlier, a colloquial style is preferred to a formal style, especially, if it is the aim of the advertiser to establish intimate or friendly relationship with an audience. Examples from the data are

(4) New *Kids* Computers

(5) The world's most sleek and sophisticated pocket PC and

Integrated mobile phone! Stylish, simple to use and *seriously advanced*.

In (4), the advertiser could have used *children* instead of *kids*, but for the fact that it is more informal than children and will appeal more to the common person. The point is

that though both *children* and *kids* have almost the same semantic meaning, *kids* conveys a conversational tone, which is more appropriate for the advertising situation.

Seriously advanced in (v) is another instance of the informal use of language. Strictly speaking, the adverb, *seriously*, does not collocate with the adjective *advanced*. *Seriously* means gravely, fatally, dangerously, badly, etc., and *advanced*, on the other hand, means being ahead of others in terms of progress, (Britannica, 2003). However, when put in the advertising Context, the expression can be understood in an informal sense, to mean *highly advanced*.

This is because in Ghana, it is commonplace to hear people, especially the youth, use expressions like “Charlie, the wedding was *serious*”, or the lady is *seriously attached*, to mean “the wedding was a success” and “the lady has a steady relationship”, respectively. Thus, *seriously* is to be understood as a jargon or slang employed to create a rapport with the audience.

4.15 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the discourse strategies and linguistic items used to persuade in advertisements were identified and discussed. They were then classified according to the various functions they perform. These were language of identity, ideologically-loaded language, intersexuality, lexical repetition, syntactic repetition, apposition, elliptical comparatives, implied causation, hedges, personalisation, interrogative clauses and colloquial language. In addition, advertisers use ideologically loaded language to create specific worldviews similar to those of the target audience to facilitate persuasion. Furthermore, there was the use of intertextual references to exploit the underlying relationship between the presentation of certain words and phrases in the text, and literary associations familiar to the target audience. The

effectiveness of this technique was based on the role of shared knowledge in generating interest in the advertisements and thus enhancing the memorability of the advertising message. Apart from the use of culture-specific language to persuade, advertisers also used linguistic devices like repetition, apposition, implicative, and conversational tone. The first category was repetition.

It was realised from the data that both lexical and syntactic repetition were used to enhance memorability of the advertising message so as to persuade target audiences.

There was also a heavy use of apposition as a final opportunity to associate product names with tag-lines expressing appealing and favourable images of products.

The next category was implicatures where advertisers used hedges, elliptical comparatives and implied causation.

Through these language forms, advertisers reworked weak and unsubstantiated product claims into convincing sales statements with the potential to make consumers infer beyond the information stated, and thus construct a stronger interpretation.

There was also the use of conversational tone in the advertisements studied. Linguistic forms like personalisation, interrogative clauses and colloquial language were used in the advertisements to mark a relationship of intimacy, trust, confidence, and also to create the effect of directly involving the audience in the discourse situation, appealing directly to their knowledge, interests and emotion.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introductory Remarks

This thesis aimed at using discourse strategies in advertising language: a case of some selected radio and newspaper advertisements in Ghana. In this chapter, I summarise the main issues dealt with in this thesis. In section (5.1) I provide conclusions arrived at in the analysis. In section (5.2) I then summarise the study in this thesis. Appropriate recommendations on possible areas of future studies based on the findings of the study is proffered in section (5.3.)

5.1 Summary of chapters

Chapter one gave an overview of the thesis. In this chapter, I explained advertisements, particularly, the language use in some selected advertisements on television and radio. On the background of the study, this chapter looked at the importance of advertisements in our everyday life, highlighting techniques of language use in persuading customers. I further outlined the objectives of this study and finally relevance of this study.

In chapter two, I delved into the theoretical framework for this study. I touched on how the theory works, its strength and how it can be applied. I also looked at the history of advertising in Ghana. This section finally reviewed some works relevant to the subject of discourse strategies in advertising language.

In chapter three, I discussed and analysed the methodological approach adopted for the research. I further delved into data collection procedures

Chapter four explored how advertisers, through various discourse strategies, exploit elements in Ghanaian culture to persuade their audience. It focused on culture-specific language, language identified and others.

5.2 Summary of findings

This section summarizes the entire research work, from the introduction to the analysis. The study had the aim of identifying and explaining the discourse strategies and elements in the Ghanaian culture that are exploited by advertisers to persuade their audience. The fact is that advertisers are always exploiting different ways to influence the buying behaviour of their audience. As a result, they employ a number of discourse strategies which are rooted in elements in the Ghanaian culture.

The objectives of the study included identifying and explaining the discourse strategies and elements of culture, which are exploited by the audience, finding out whether there are differences between spoken advertisements and written advertisements and whether there are differences between the English advertisements and Akan advertisements.

The data revealed no differences between spoken and written advertisements in terms of discourse strategies used except in the use of repetition of product names where it was abundant in the spoken advertisements and almost non-existent in the written advertisements.

There were, however, no differences between the English and Akan advertisements studied. The literature review discussed three traditions of scholarly work. These were definitions of persuasion, dimensions of persuasion and studies on linguistic violations in advertising.

The data used in the research were collected from the mass media in Ghana and the method used was the qualitative content analysis.

The choice of this method was informed by the fact that the present study deals with soft data (expressions, words, sentences, photos, symbols) and the qualitative method of analysis is the most suitable for such a study. In all, two hundred and three (203) advertisements were recorded from five FM stations and two newspapers between July 2019 and December 2021.

Out of this number, one hundred and forty-two advertisements (142) were purposely selected for analysis to ensure that the advertisements selected will give special insight into the exploitation of language to perform a persuasive function.

That is, the researcher used this method to ensure that only advertisements that fall within the scope of this study were selected. For example, some of the advertisements were foreign and therefore were not likely to reveal the Ghanaian culture.

The discourse strategies identified in the data include of culture-specific language like language of identity, ideologically loaded language and intertextual references; repetition, apposition, implicature, hedges, and conversational tone. These were then analyzed qualitatively to show how they have been used by advertisers to persuade their audience.

The thrust of the study was to explore how the language-culture relationship was exploited by advertisers to persuade their target audience. Through the use of culture-specific language, advertisers are able to identify with the audience and achieve common grounds by using language forms that are similar to those used by the target audience.

Secondly, there was the use of ideologically loaded language to create specific worldviews similar to those of the target audience in order to facilitate persuasion.

Furthermore, there was the use of intertextual references to exploit the underlying relations between the presentation of certain words and phrases in the text, and literary associations familiar to the target audience.

5.3 Conclusion

This study acknowledges advertising as a persuasive discourse and proposes the view that the advertisements in Ghana are often a reflection of the culture of the audience. Though, most of the strategies discussed in the data studied are also used in other cultures, these strategies are unique in the sense that they exploit the dominant elements in the Ghanaian culture to persuade. It has therefore, been shown in the discussion that, the discourse strategies that are used in advertisements like culture-specific language, repetition, implicature, hedges, apposition and conversational tone play on elements in the Ghanaian culture to persuade. The data analysis points to the fact that advertisers in Ghana choose words and expressions that reflect society's beliefs, values, aspirations and experiences concerning what are right and what is wrong.

It is evident that the language of the advertisements reflects the present-day ideology of the target culture. Thus, the advertiser, through the use of language constructs a contemporary identity of the target audience so that the audiences are able to see part of them and their experiences in the words and expressions used in the advertisement. Apart from techniques that border on the language-culture relationship, other discourse techniques bordering on language structure were also used in the advertisements studied. In fact, the data reveal that repetition is indispensable, especially in radio advertisement where, because of the transient nature of the message, there is urgent need to create enough opportunity for a product name or

some catch phrase to stick in the minds of the audience. Repetition provides this opportunity. This explains why the device is used in almost all the radio advertisements, but is almost non-existent in the print advertisements.

Another feature of the data analyzed in the present work was the use of appositives, significantly, as taglines. The main function of this technique in the data analyzed was to associate the brand name with a tag line expressing an appealing and distinctive image of the product. The fact that this device was used abundantly in both the audio and print advertisements is indicative of its importance in performing a persuasive function.

The data studied also revealed that the use of covert implicature is very prominent in advertisements in Ghana. The reason is that in a bid to sell their products, advertisers sometimes make unsubstantiated claims for their products. The heavy use of implicature affords them the opportunity to deny such claims without logical contradiction. Furthermore, it was realized that a large chunk of the language used has a conversational tone. This situation is explained by the fact that, language with a conversational tone, reflects the consumer's everyday speech experience and this affords the advertiser the opportunity to establish a relationship of intimacy, trust and confidence.

Most of the messages in the advertisements studied are addressed to individuals rather than groups, are therefore framed as questions, and are in the form of contractions. The language used in the advertisements was therefore, very informal, even with the print advertisement. This is to ensure that the consumer is engaged at a more personal level thereby inciting him to take interest in the advertisement.

.Last but not least, advertisers exploit endearment forms and familiar expressions to persuade their audience. The data studied showed that these endearment forms and familiar expressions are used by advertisers to achieve common grounds with the audience.

Almost all the discourse strategies identified in the data were used in both forms of advertisements. There were, however, a few instances where the two forms of advertisements differed with regard to the frequency of occurrence of certain strategies.

On the other hand, the permanent nature of the written word makes it unnecessary to repeat product names and this accounts for the almost non-existence of the device in print advertisements.

Another point worth taking note of is the fact that linguistic items that bring about conversational tone like contracted forms, colloquial forms and interrogatives, which are normally associated with spoken advertisements, were used in the written advertisement too.

This situation is accounted for by the fact that many advertising authorities have come to believe that advertising works best when it most closely approximates a dialogue between two human beings. As a result, many advertisers try to make their copies simulate conversation, even in print advertising.

However, there is no one to one correspondence always between the discourse strategies used and the advertising functions. That is, in terms of function, a particular strategy may overlap with others and therefore there is no one to one correspondence found between the use of a particular discourse strategy or linguistic item and an advertising function. For instance, the use of intertextuality may serve to arouse

interest and enhance memorability. In the same vein, the use of language of identity may stimulate desire, create conviction and enhance memorability, while repetition also leads to enhanced memorability.

All the different devices mentioned above contributed to achieving the five functions of advertising.

5.4 Recommendations

There is, however, enough scope for undertaking further research in the area of language of advertising in Ghana.

1. Sociolinguistic research on this area could throw more light on the socio-political profile of the Ghanaian society. A systematic stylistic study of words and structures used in the three media may also throw light on the exact differences of language choice among the three print media.
2. Each major linguistic aspect could be studied in isolation in relationship to its psychological impact on the consumers.
3. The difference between language use and non-linguistic aspects of advertisements such as typography, visuals, audio and video effect are another possible research for future research. In the case of magazine advertisements, the role of punctuation marks can be explored and errors related to grammar identified.
4. A comparative study could also be done where advertisements from different countries are compared. This means this area of study needs to be explored to get more students to be interested in the area of study and also to open up the advertising space.

REFERENCES

- Adekoya, O. A. (2011) *The impact of Advertising on sales volume of a product*
- Agyekum, K. (2003). Honorifics and Status Indexing in Akan Communication, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 24:5, 369-385,
- Agyekum, (2004). *Pragmatics and cognition* 12 (1):71-92 DOI:10.1075/PC.12.1.06agy
- Agyekum, Kofi. 2017. "The language of Akan herbal drug sellers and advertisers" *language and Dialogue* 7 (3): 361-387.
- Agyekum, Kofi, 2004a. "The sociocultural concept of face in Akan communication" *Journal of pragmatics and cognition* 12(1): 71-92.
- Akonnor, G. (1992). "The Role of Research in Advertising: a Case Study of Lintas Marketing and Social Research Institute". Project work presented to the Ghana Institute of Journalism.
- Andren, G., Ericsson, L.O., Oldsen, R. and Tannsjö, T. (1978). *Rhetoric and Ideology in Advertising*. Stockholm: Liber-Forlag
- Anim D. W. (1989). "Akan in Radio Advertisements" Project work presented to the Linguistics Department, University of Ghana, Legon.
- Arens, W. F. (2001). *Contemporary Advertising*. 8th ed. Irwin/McGraw Hill
- Aristotle, (1924). "The Rhetoric", in *The Works of Aristotle*. Trans. R. Robert. Oxford: Clarendon Press, section 1355b.
- Benback, W. (1980). "Facts Are not Enough: Speech Presented to the Engineering Society of Detroit". <http://www.ucad.fr/pubgb/virt/mp/bernbach/bernbach.html> Detroit, Michigan.
- Ben-Ayeh. (2000) *Paralinguistics non-verbal modes of Communication to sell a product or service successfully*

- Boje, D. M. (2001). *Narrative Methods for Organisational and Communication Research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Brembeck, W. L. and Howell, W. S. (1952). *Persuasion: A Means of Social Control*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, p.24
- Cook, G. (1992). *The Discourse of Advertising*. London and New York: Routledge
- Cook, G. (2001). *The Discourse of Advertising*. New York: Routledge
- Corbett, E.P.J. (1971). *Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student*. 2nd edition. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Crystal, D. (1991). *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language*. Cambridge University Press: U. S. A.
- Dijk, V. T. (1977). *Text and Context: Explanations in the Semantics and Pragmatics of Discourse*. London: Longman.
- Dijk, V. T. (1991). *Racism and the Press*. London: Routledge.
- Fatihi, A. R. (1991). *The Advertising language and T.V. Commercials*. New Delhi: Bahri Publications
- Fulcher, R. (2010). *Critical Discourse Analysis*. London and New York: Longman.
- Fotheringham, W. C. (1966). *Perspectives on Persuasion*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, p.7.
- Fowler, R. (1991). *Language in the News: Discourse and Ideology in the Press*. London: Routledge.
- Fries, P. (1992). "The Structuring of Information in Written English Text" In *Language Sciences 14:4*, Oxford, New York: Pergamon Press, pp. 461-488.
- Geis M. L. (1992). *The Language of Television Advertising*. New York: Academic Press Inc.

- Greenwald, A. G. and Leavitt, C. (1984). "Audience Involvement in Advertising: Four Levels," *Journal of Consumer Research* vol. 11 p. 581-592.
- Gully, A. (1994). "The Discourse of Arabic Advertising: Preliminary Investigations". *Journal of Arabic and Islamic Studies*.
- H. Nassaji, 2015. *Language teaching research 2015- journals*. Sgepub.com
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as Social Semiotic: The Social Interpretation Of Language and Meaning*. Baltimore, MD: University Park Press.
- Harris, C. A. (1989). "Semiolinguistic Manipulation in Print Advertising". Unpublished Article. Los Angeles: University of California.
- Harris, R. J. (1999). *A Cognitive Psychology of Mass Communication*. Mahwah, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Jackson, H. (1997). *Grammar and Meaning: A Semantic Approach to English Grammar*. New York: Addison Wesley Longman Inc.
- Kerby, J. K. (1975). *Consumer Behaviour: Conceptual Foundations*. New York: Donnelley Publishing Corp.
- Kristeva, J. (1980). "Word, Dialogue, and Novel." *Desire and Language*. Ed. Leon S. R. Trans. Thomas G. et al. New York: Columbia UP. P. 64-91
- L.Horn- *Routledge Companion to philosophy of language*, 2013-taylor francis.com.
- Larson, C. A. (1973). *Persuasion: Reception and Responsibility*. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company
- Leathers, G. (1986). *Successful Nonverbal Communication: Principles and Applications*. New York: Macmillan.
- Leech, G. N. (1966). *English in Advertising: A Linguistic Study of Advertising in Great Britain*. London: Longman, Green and co. Ltd.

- Leah (2001) Rule-breaking as a persuasive device in Advertising
- Lucas, S. E. (1998). Public Speaking. 6th edition. United States of America: McGraw-Hill Companies.
- MaGregor, S.L.T. 2010. Critical Discourse Analysis. A primer. Halifax. Maint Saint Vincent University.
- Mey,(2001) Concise Encyclopedia of pragmatics
- Miller, Joseph, M; Michael H; and Prosser (1973). Readings in Medieval Rhetoric. Bloomington: Indiana UP
- Newcomb, T. (1953). "An Approach to the Study of Communication Acts." Psychological Review 60, p. 393-404
- Nortsu-Kotoe, A. (1999). "A Linguistic Analysis of Ewe Advertisements" Project work presented to the Linguistics Department, University of Ghana, Legon.
- O'Toole, J. (1985). The Trouble with Advertising. New York: Times Books, Random House. P. 19.
- Obeng, K. N. (1994). "Viewer's Perception of and Response to T.V. Commercials on Non-prescriptive Drugs: a Case Study of Kokomlemle Area". Project work presented to the Ghana Institute of Journalism.
- O'Keefe, D.J. ((2002). Persuasion: Theory and Research. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage,p. 5.
- Perloff, R.M. (1993). The Dynamics of Persuasion. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum p.15
- Petty, R. E., Barden, J., & Wheeler, (2009). The elaboration likelihood model persuasion: Developing health promotions for sustained behavioral change. In R. J. DiClemente, R. A. Crosby & M. C. Kegler (Eds.), *Emerging theories in health promotion practice and research* (2nd ed., pp. 185-214). San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

- Priest, S. H. (1996). *Doing Media Research*. New Delhi: The Sage Publications.
- Robertson, T. S., Zielinski, J., and Ward, S. (1984). "Consumer Behaviour" Glenview Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- D. D., & Petty, R. E. (2006). Increasing the effectiveness of communications to consumers: Recommendations based on elaboration likelihood and attitude certainty perspectives. *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, 25(1), 39-52.
- Rothschild, M. L. (1987). *Advertising*. Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company.
- Sapir, E. (1958). "Selected Writings of Edward Sapir in Language". *Culture and Personality*. ed. David G. M. University of California Press, p. 69.
- Schwartz, B., & Reisberg, D. (1991). *Learning and Memory*. New York: W. W. Norton and Company.
- Sherif, M. (1965). *Attitude and Attitude Change*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company.
- Solomon, Michael R. (1992). *Consumer Behaviour: Buying, Having, and Being*. Boston, MA: Simon & Schuster, Inc.
- Taylor, P. M. (1995). *Munitions of the Mind: A History of Propaganda from the Ancient World to the Present Era*. Manchester University Press.
- Uttara, M.(2011). *Types of Advertising*. Boston: Net Industries Ltd pp 89.
- Van Dijk, T.A. 2006. *Principles of Critical Discourse Analysis*. Amsterdam. University of Amsterdam.
- The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language. (2000). 4th Edition. Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Wagner, B. C., & Petty, R. E. (2011). The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion: Thoughtful and non-thoughtful social influence. In D. Chadee (Ed.), *Theories in social psychology* (pp. 96-116). Oxford: Blackwell.

Wallace, C. (1992). "Reading". Language Teaching: a Scheme for Teacher Education Series. Oxford: University Press.

Williamson, J. (1978). Decoding Advertisements: Ideology and Meaning in Advertising. London: Marion Boyars.

Wolf, N. (1990). The Beauty Myth - How Images of Beauty Are Used Against Women. London: Vintage

KNUST

