Running head: THE EFFECT OF ENGLISH VERSUS NATIVE LANGUAGE IN ADVERTISING



English as a superior language in advertising?

The effect of English presence in foreign advertising on advertisement attitude and purchase intention combined with slogan length

Danique Rautert

ANR: 977229

Master's Thesis

Communication and Information Sciences

Specialization Business Communication and Digital Media

Faculty of Humanities

Tilburg University, Tilburg

Supervisor: R.N. Tillman MA

Second Reader: dr. J.P.M. Arts

July 2016

2

Abstract

The increasing presence of the English language in foreign advertising has been documented in many corpus studies from all over the world. The audience's reaction to this, however, has been studied to a considerable lesser degree. Furthermore, English in advertising appears for a great part in the accompanying slogan, which is a means for expressing the organization's extended message. To convey a message in a slogan, the organization can either choose a long or a short slogan. To this day, prior research has mainly focused on recall associated with slogan length. The current study examines in the first place which effect English compared to the native language has on advertisement attitude and purchase intention. Secondly, the present research examines the role of slogan length in the process of forming an attitude towards the advertisement and intention to buy a product. The results show that the use of English in advertising lead to the same outcomes in attitude and purchase intention as using the audience's native language. Following the results, slogan length can enhance the intention to buy a product and can increase advertisement attitude, when incorporating long slogans in advertising for a young audience. Prior research has suggested that short slogans, on the other hand seem to influence slogan recall. Organizations benefit from these findings and should find a way to combine these outcomes, by inventing slogans that support recall, but also lead to positive advertisement attitudes and high purchase intentions. Another effect of age was revealed after a secondary analysis of the results, indicating that younger people appreciated the use of English more than the older age group. Future research should examine in a longitudinal study whether this is a specific finding for the current young generation or an ongoing trend.

Keywords: advertising, slogans, language, English, Dutch, attitude, purchase intention

Abstract	2
Introduction	5
Conceptual Framework	6
English as a foreign language in advertising	9
Slogans	
Slogan length	11
English slogans in a foreign context	
Current study and hypotheses	13
Method	15
Participants	16
Design	
Materials and pre-test	
Procedure	
Measures	
Advertisement attitude	
Purchase intention	
Modernity	
Analysis	
Results	23
Judgments for advertisement attitude	
Judgments for purchase intention	
Secondary analysis for age	
Effects of age on advertisement attitude	
Effects of age on purchase intention	27
Effects of age on perceived product modernity	
Conclusion	
The research question	
General Discussion	
Limitations	
Practical and scientific implications	
Suggestions for future research	34
References	
Appendix A – Pre-test	

Table of Contents

Appendix B – Critical advertisements	45
Appendix C – Filler items	50
Appendix D – Questionnaire (Dutch)	53

Introduction

English as a lingua franca, English as an international language or World Englishes are ways of referring to the rising presence of English in a foreign context. In general, these terms refer to the use of English between non-native English speakers, making English a contact language (Seidlhofer, 2007). English is the most spoken language in the world, with 1.5 billion speakers, however only a quarter (375 million) are native English speakers. This means that the majority uses English as a contact language. In comparison, 1.1 billion people speak Chinese worldwide, but the majority (982 million people) speak Chinese as their native language (Statista, 2016).

Over the past decades, the English language has to an ongoing extent become increasingly present in living rooms all over the world, with television commercials that are (partially) in English varying from English background music to full phrases in English. There has also been an increase in English presence in print advertising and media over the course of the past twenty years. Several corpus studies found that English is present in more than two thirds of the advertisements in Dutch, Spanish, Italian, French, Belgian, German but also Brazilian magazines and newspapers (Friedrich, 2000; Gerritsen et al., 2007; Piller, 2001). English in advertising mainly centers around the brand name, slogan and sometimes the logo (Hornikx, van Meurs, & de Boer, 2010). The choice for English in these positions has multiple reasons, although a recurrent theme is that it attracts the audiences' attention (Martin, 2002; Piller, 2001).

Although the increase of English in an international context is undeniable, there are contradictory positions about this development. Some argue that English in a foreign context serves as a language for communication, rather than a language for identification (House, 2003), whereas others fear its threat to multilingualism. Eckert et al. (2012) for instance, positions English as a killer language, in a context where other languages (e.g. Dutch or German) absorb parts of English, resulting in an evaporation of these autochthonous languages. Which elements, then, underlie the unique position English currently has as the language of the world? The 16th century British colonial power spread the English language all over the world, then followed by international trading conversations by the United States as the leading economic power in the 20th century. Several theories provide contradicting views of the spread of English after the 20th century. A recent theory for instance claims that English no longer serves as an imperialist language, but is instead a neutral language, which stands for modernization and globalization (Eckert et al., 2012). Especially the association with modernity has been repeatedly named when discussing the role of English in the world (Baumgardner,

2006; Friedrich, 2002; Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008; Piller, 2001, 2003;).

The existence of English in a foreign context is a development that is welcomed by some, while disapproved by others. The phenomenon of an increasing English presence has been documented in the past decades, such as the existence in advertising circumstances. Although there are many reasons to use English in advertising, prominently its association with modernity, it is yet unclear whether it has more positive outcomes than using the native language. The present study will focus on the use of English in a foreign advertising context. The aim is to provide insight into the effect of using a non-native language in advertising on the attitude toward the advertisement and the likeliness of buying a product. More specifically, the current study will empirically test whether language and slogan length have an influence on the advertisement attitude and the purchase intention. Slogans play a leading role in the experiment, as they are indissolubly associated to advertising and represent textually what is visually shown and can for that reason play a key role in the persuasion process. Besides focusing on the language use in advertisements, slogans will therefore be of particular importance in the current research.

Conceptual Framework

In western European countries where English is not the nation's first language, English is very prominently apparent in advertising. In the Netherlands, one of the countries in Kachru's (1992) Expanding Circle, globalization plays an increasing role in everyday life. Table 1 shows some examples of English slogans one comes across when surfing the web, reading the newspaper, scrolling down Facebook or other social media accounts and while reading a magazine in the Netherlands.

<i>Table 1</i> . Some slogans taken from advertising for a Dutch audience in different product
categories.

Brand	Original	Translated
Vodafone	Power to you.	De macht ligt bij jou
Lancôme	Life is beautiful. Live it your	Het leven is prachtig. Leef het
	way.	op jouw manier.
TUI	Discover your smile.	Ontdek je glimlach.

Independent Films:	Nothing can prepare you for	Niets kan je voorbereiden op
	the end. The Hunger Games:	het einde. De Hongerspelen:
	Mockingjay Part 2.	Spotgaai Deel 2.

Table 1 demonstrates the use of English in Dutch advertising for different product categories, while differentiating in the length of the English utterance. From travelling agencies (TUI) to telecom providers (Vodafone), the use of English in Dutch advertising is a common sight. A corpus study conducted by Gerritsen et al. (2007), investigated issues of Elle Magazine for Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Spain and found that two thirds of the advertisements featured in these issues contained at least one word in English. Interestingly enough, only 13% of the ads that contained English were fully in English, whereas almost 90% of the ads was a mixture of English and the native language. A more recent cross-country corpus study by Raedts, Dupré, Hendrickx, & Debrauwere (2015) revealed the same pattern, less than two percent of the commercials were completely in English. The majority of the commercials in the investigated countries, among which the Netherlands, France and Spain, mixed the local language with English. Piller (2001) found similar results when exploring a corpus of German advertisements. A study in Brazil by Friedrich (2002) revealed the same pattern. Two thirds of the advertisements contained English, although in half of the cases English was present in the brand name, a third of the instances were found in the advertisement text and the remaining number of English instances were English sounding brand names. Also the French, which have had laws defending their native language dating as far back as 1635, have lost their grip on the English domination of advertising in their country (Reullot, 2011). The French' languageprotection system has shrunk from banning foreign languages as a whole, to allowing foreign language if there is no native equivalent, to the current requirement of having a French translation in a small font at the bottom of the advertisement. Reullot (2011) analyzed French magazines that were featured between 1999 and 2007 and found that the presence of English has increased with more than 15% in the investigated eight-year period alone.

Even though the presence of English in advertising may be increasing, research by Puntoni, de Langhe, and van Osselaer (2009) points out that marketing messages in the native language are perceived as more emotional than the same messages in the second language of the perceiver, which was English in their study. Additionally, research by Noriega and Blair, (2008) shows that native advertising cues more thoughts related to family, friends, home and homeland, compared to a foreign language (English). More generally, they found that the

engagement with the native language is the reason for generating thoughts related to family and friends. Jia-Ling (2008) found contradicting results on the appreciation of English in a foreign context. English-literate respondents in Taiwan reported positive attitudes about the increase of English in advertising, acknowledging that it contributes to the internationalization of Taiwan. English-illiterate participants on the other hand have in general more negative attitudes about these developments and feel excluded (Jia-Ling 2008). Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008) found that the use of English in advertising has a positive effect for luxury products when advertised by multinationals. Necessity goods, such as soap, received more favorable evaluations when advertised for in the native language by multinational organizations. For local firms, however, no effects were found for language choice in advertising. All in all, Krishna and Ahluwalia's (2008) study showed that language choice in advertising can be an important factor in positioning a product for multinational companies. Also Piller (2003) states that organizations use English in their (foreign) advertising to be perceived as a global and international institution, but expresses her concerns about the phenomenon of homogeneous consumption and a diminution of diversity in the advertising landscape. As a consequence of using English in advertising, Gerritsen et al. (2010) found that almost 40 per cent of young, highly educated females were unable to indicate the meaning of the English used in advertisements targeted towards them and their peers. An example taken from Gerritsen et al's. (2010) study is that respondents believed Absolut Vodka to be made from grapes, instead of grain. Moreover, some respondents didn't understand the meaning of 'contemporary', mistakenly interpreting it as cooperating or seductive. This was most likely not the intention of marketing agencies when developing the campaign. The implications of these findings are that less educated and/or older consumers are able to an even lesser extent to grasp the meaning of comparable ads. Age seems to be a factor that has an influence on the appreciation towards the use of English in advertising. Gerritsen, Gijsbers, Korzilius, and van Meurs (1999) found an age difference for the appreciation of English in Dutch advertising. Young adults, aged 15-18 had a more positive attitude about the use of English in commercials than the adult group, aged between 50-57 in this study. The explanation for the choice of using English in advertising is that young people account for the target group in most cases, according to Gerritsen et al. (1999). Moreover, for young people especially, English plays an increasingly important role as international means of communication (Seidlhofer, 2007).

The prior literature on the use of English as a foreign language in advertising reveals its ambiguous role, with positive and negative effects. For that reason, it is worth wondering why

brands choose to use the English language to the extent that they do in their marketing campaigns.

English as a foreign language in advertising

Using English in advertising is a marketing strategy for targeting audiences from all over the world and has the added benefit of not restricting the advertisement to only those regions where English is the native language. As Piller (2003) explains, English is the most frequently used language for advertising in a foreign context, which is caused by globalization and multilingualism. Compared to other languages, English has become a non-national language that is not used to elicit associations with native English countries, but rather to symbolize social stereotypes. Friedrich (2002) stresses the unique position of English compared to other languages, as it symbolizes modernism, is comprehensible and has a connotation to Westernization. Piller (2003) acknowledges that English is used to symbolize modernity, progress and sophistication for the products or brand and adds that this also goes for the consumers who are associated with them.

According to Kuppens (2010), there are several reasons for using English in marketing campaigns. First, it can be part of a larger marketing strategy of an organization, where the brand wants to enforce a consistent image globally or save expenses by using the same campaign in several regions. Using English in advertising can also have a "creative-linguistic reason". For example, English can close a lexical gap if there is no precise equivalent for a certain term. In Dutch, for instance, there is no native word for *computer*, neither is there for airbag, tabloid and outlet, just to name a few. The use of English in advertising can also be a tool to attract consumers' attention. Martin (2002) proposes that the success of an ad depends on whether or not it is noticed by the intended audience. Using more than one language in an ad, such as English in combination with French can be a tactic to draw attention to the ad or the product depicted in it, (Martin, 2002). Piller (2001) mentions that the use of English in a foreign context leads to salience of the English message, which is also a way to attract attention to the advertisement. An addition to this is that a message in a foreign language requires more thorough information processing, and may for that reason be better recalled (Hornikx, van Meurs, & Hof, 2013). A third set of reasons that Kuppens (2010) proposes for the use of English in foreign advertising are the "cultural connotations" that the English language consists of. This means that a language is used for its symbolic meaning, which are the associations with modernity and having an international appeal in the case of English. Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008) found that consumers use the perceptual associations of a language to evaluate the product category. English is perceived as a sophisticated language in some countries, which

makes advertisements (partially) in English for products that are associated with modernity more persuasive in that case. Moreover, English, other than German or French for example, is not used to elicit associations with English-speaking countries (e.g. the U.K. and the U.S.), but rather to create an international and modern image (Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Piller, 2003). A corpus study by Piller (2001) also showed that English is rather used as the language of the world in foreign advertising, than to elicit associations with British or American values. German and French, on the other hand, are used in advertising for their stereotype associations as a country, whereas English is used to form associations with social stereotypes. The French beauty brand L'Oréal Paris, for example markets their products by using French names, such as "La Palette Nude", "Color Riche Les Ombres" and "L'Extraordinaire" to use the connotations of elegance and style that France is known for (Hornikx, van Meurs, & Starren, 2007; Martin, 2002). The above is also an example of using a language's symbolic meaning, in this case French to activate a certain perception. Kelly-Holmes (2000) adds that there should be a connection between the type of product, the foreign language and certain competences that the language or the originating country (implicitly) consists of in order to be effective in advertisement use. In the French case this could be elegance, style and charm, but also references to the French cuisine can be used as connotations. Also Hornikx et al. (2013) examined the effect of language-display for congruent or incongruent products. They found that the use of a foreign language for congruent products, such as wine for France, leads to a higher perceived product quality, higher purchase intention and a better product attitude. **Slogans**

A slogan is a short, memorable phrase that is used in advertising and forms an important part of an organizations' brand positioning (Dass, Kohli, Kumar, & Thomas, 2014). The slogan serves as a brand's trademark that should make a connection between the brand name and the associations to the brand (Keller, 1993). Positive, strong and unique associations to the brand lead to a higher degree of brand familiarity, which in turn positively affects brand recognition and recall (Keller, 1993). Piller (2001) also stresses the importance of slogans, explaining that it serves as the master voice of the advertised brand, to express authority and expertise.

Associations to a brand are primarily formed when having a direct experience with the product or service delivered by the brand. Secondary associations to a brand, on the other hand, consist of how information regarding the brand is communicated by the organization itself, external sources or (electronic) word-of-mouth (Keller, 1993). In other words, a slogan primes brand associations and perceptions (Kohli, Thomas, & Suri, 2013). As the brand name is limited in expressing what the brand represents, typically composing of one or just a few words, the

slogan serves as a supporting factor. The slogan can, for example, be adjusted more easily than the brand name and the logo but is at the same time used for the long- and medium-term positioning of the brand (Dass et al., 2014).

Slogans, unlike the accompanying text in advertisements, develop their meaning in accordance with the context in which they are shown (Fuertes-Olivera, Velasco-Sacristán, Arribas-Baño, & Samaniego-Fernández, 2001). An example of how slogans can assign meaning in association with a context is shown in a 2003 advertisement of the beer brand Heineken. Two bottle openers, that have been given anthropomorphic features resembling humans, are holding a bottle in an adoring, crowd surfing way. The accompanying slogan reads "It could only be Heineken", implicating that only Heineken is worshipped in such a way that it is being put on a pedestal by its audience.

Dass et al. (2014) studied which features determine the extent to which a slogan is liked by the perceiver. It was for example expected that slogans resulting from higher advertising budgets, brand appropriate slogans and slogans with jingles would result in higher likeability. The results, however, did not support these expectations. They did find that message clarity, emphasis on the products' benefits, creativity, rhyme, absence of the brand name and product appropriateness of the slogan had a positive influence on slogan liking.

Slogan length.

Dass et al. (2014) expected that short slogans would score higher on likeability than longer slogans, based on the notion that humans have limited cognitive abilities. However, no effect for slogan length on liking was found. Slogan length did, however, have an influence on recall of the slogan. Shorter slogans (with an average of 3.9 words) were recalled more readily than longer slogans. Dass et al. (2014) therefore concluded that shorter slogans are better than longer ones, at least for recall. For liking, on the other hand, shorter slogans aren't necessarily better than longer slogans. The Nike slogan "Just do it" was highly recalled, whereas the modern recruiting slogan of the United States Marines "The few, the proud, the marines" was found to be of the most liked slogans. The US Marines' slogan also happens to follow the "rule of three", or the "power of three". This phenomenon has proved to work in order to get a message across, as the human brain can remember three things easily (Vining, 2008). Examples are "Family, Faith and Flag" by George W. Bush and "Blood, Sweat and Tears" by Winston Churchill, which was in fact "Blood, Sweat, Toil and Tears", but only three words stuck in society's memory. Another famous slogan that follows the rule of three is "Liberté, Égalité, Fraternité", which dates back as far back as the French revolution (1789 – 1799). This slogan,

which now serves as the French' national motto, was introduced to create fellowship in tumultuous times.

Kohli et al. (2013) also examined the effects of slogan characteristics, including slogan length, complexity and age of the slogan, advertising budget and use of rhyme and jingles on recall. The length of a slogan was determined by simply counting the number of words in every slogan. Equal to Dass et al. (2014), the experiment by Kohli et al. (2013) showed that shorter slogans were recalled more often than longer slogans were. Unlike Dass et al. (2014), however, Kohli et al. (2013) found a positive influence of financial investment on the recall of slogans; slogans originating from high budgets were recalled more often than slogans proceeded from brands with a smaller budget. Additionally, Kohli et al. (2013) found that slogans that existed longer were recalled more often than newer slogans. All in all, Kohli et al. (2013) advise that brands should use short slogans and exploit them for long periods of time, referring to Nike's "Just do it" slogan that was found to be the most recalled slogan and that has existed for almost thirty years. However, this suggestion regarding slogan length was initiated based on recall, rather than on evidence for higher appreciation for short compared to long slogans.

English slogans in a foreign context

Using English in foreign advertising is a tool to combine global with local appeal (Vettorel, 2013), which is a common sight all over the world. As Raedts et al. (2015) mention, this phenomenon has been reported from South-America, to Asia and Europe.

In Spanish-speaking Mexico, English slogans are a common sight in advertising. Mexico is one of the countries that belongs to Kachru's Expanding Circle, where English has an influence on the native language. Baumgardner, (2006) found that English serves as a symbol of modernity and prestige in Mexico. More importantly from a commercial point of view, Mexicans perceive products and brands that use English in their slogans as more reliable and of more superior product quality (Baumgardner, 2006). This indicates the profound role language-use can have on consumers' perception.

Also in Italy, the use of English in advertising is a common sight. English slogans in Italian advertising campaigns have proven to increase the impact of the message, compared to slogans fully in Italian (Tosi, 2001). Vettorel (2013) argues that the use of English in Italy today is an everyday practice, causing a loss to its ability to attract attention and is therefore transforming into a new role. English in Italian advertising is now being extended in such a way that English is mixed with the native language, making it both entertaining and manipulative.

Hornikx et al. (2010) researched the appreciation of English slogans in advertisements that were aimed at a Dutch audience and compared difficult and easy-to-understand slogans.

They found that comprehension plays a role in the appreciation of and preference for the use of English in advertising. English slogans were preferred to Dutch slogans when they were easy to understand. Interestingly enough, when the slogans were difficult to understand, the English versions were appreciated equally to their native (Dutch) equivalents.

Current study and hypotheses

Overall, the role of English as a language that symbolizes modernity seems to be a theme throughout the literature. The aim of the current study is to provide more insight into the effect of using English as a foreign language in advertising. For that purpose, modern products (e.g. an espresso machine and an e-reader) will be used as stimuli, rather than necessities (e.g. soap and bread) in order to gain more insight into the influence of the symbolic connotations of English. To measure the effect of the use of English compared to Dutch, the advertisement attitude and the purchase intention will be measured. In research directed towards advertising, advertisement attitude and purchase intention are key variables in measuring the effectiveness of an advertisement (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999). Li, Daugherty, & Biocca (2002) agree that requesting the attitude towards the advertisement, followed by questions regarding the intention to buy the product is an effective manner of measuring the effectiveness of an advertisement. For that reason, advertisement attitude and purchase intention will be the dependent variables in the current research. Moreover, slogans will be an important factor in the current study. Research on slogan length, which is brief in itself, has mainly focused on recall rather than examining differences in appreciation. The current study examines the relationship between slogan length with advertisement attitude and purchase intention. The research question that arises from the literature is: What is the effect of the use of English in advertising for a Dutch audience on purchase intention and advertisement attitude and does slogan length have an influence in this process?'. Several expectations are made in order to answer the research question.

The use of English in advertising for an audience which does not speak English as a first language is believed to attract attention (Martin, 2002; Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Piller, 2001). Messages in a foreign language may require deeper information processing, which may enhance recall. However, this does not explain why English advertisements are evaluated differently compared to native ads. The current experiment will differentiate between Dutch and English slogans. Slogans are, amongst other functions, also used as a tool to attract attention (Dass et al., 2014). Attention-attracting mechanisms are needed for the audience to be aware of the advertisement and to process it (Martin, 2002). As English in a foreign context has been

believed to attract attention, (partial) English ads may be processed more thoroughly than fully native ads. This may lead to a better evaluation towards products advertised (partially) in English, than in the native language. The first expectation is therefore that English slogans lead to more positive evaluations and higher purchase intentions than Dutch slogans do.

H1a: English-language slogans in advertising lead to a better advertisement attitude than Dutch-language slogans for a Native-Dutch audience.

H1b: English-language slogans in advertising lead to a higher purchase intention than Dutch-language slogans for a Native-Dutch audience.

Research that has examined slogan length, has for the greatest part directed attention towards recall. Shorter slogans are recalled more frequently than longer slogans (Dass et al., 2014; Kohli et al., 2013), however, shorter slogans do not necessarily score higher on liking. To cover this gap in the literature, the current study differentiates between short and long slogans, which are either presented in English or in Dutch. As has been mentioned, research has focused on recall in combination with long versus short slogans. Kohli (2013), however, advises to use short slogans in advertising, referring to the success of Nike's "Just Do It". For that reason, the current study examines whether advertisements that contain short slogans are liked better than ads incorporating long slogans and whether short slogans lead to higher purchase intentions than long slogans.

H2a: Short slogans lead to a better advertisement attitude than long slogans in an advertising context.

H2b: Short slogans lead to a higher purchase intention than long slogans in an advertising context.

Moreover, an interaction effect is expected for presented language versus slogan length. As the study by Hornikx et al. (2010) showed, native Dutch respondents liked English slogans more than Dutch slogans when the slogans were easy to comprehend. Even more interesting though, are their findings that whenever the slogans were difficult to understand, respondents liked the English and the Dutch equally. The current study examines the effect of slogan length, rather than comprehension. Based on previous research however, it is expected that the short English slogans are liked best and lead to the highest purchase intention compared to the other three options (short Dutch slogan, long Dutch slogan, long English slogan).

H3 Short English slogans score the highest on attitude compared to both short and long Dutch slogans and long English slogans.

H3a Short English slogans lead to the highest scores on purchase intention compared to both short and long Dutch slogans and long English slogans.

In summary, the current research examines the effect of using English compared to the native language (Dutch) in advertising with either long or short slogans on the attitude toward an advertisement and the intention to buy the product depicted in the ad. It is expected that the use of English leads to higher advertisement attitudes and purchase intentions compared to when the native language is used. Additionally, it is expected that using short slogans compared to longer slogans lead to a higher intention to buy and more positive advertisement attitudes. Finally, an interaction effect between language and slogan length is expected. It is hypothesized that the advertisements that use short, English slogans result in better advertisement attitudes and higher purchase intentions compared to the other advertisements.

Language is manipulated in such a way that the participants will be shown only English or Dutch advertisements. Slogan length is operationalized by showing either advertisements that have long slogans or showing advertisements that incorporate short slogans. This results in four conditions, on which is elaborated more extensively in the method section.

The participants will be asked to evaluate multiple advertisements and indicate their attitude towards the advertisement and their intention to buy the product displayed in the ads. The intention is to find out on the basis of the obtained judgment scores whether language and slogan length influence consumers' appreciations for advertisements and intentions to buy certain products.

Method

To answer the research question, an experiment was created to investigate the effect of language and slogan length on advertisement attitude and purchase intention. Dutch participants indicated their attitudes and intentions to buy the products depicted in advertisements that either incorporated English or Dutch slogans that were short or long. This section includes the methodology of the study, starting with information about the participants, the experimental

design, the material and pre-test section, the latter on the basis of which the definitive materials were constructed, followed by the experiment's procedure. Finally, the measures that were used to operationalize the dependent variables are reported and information about the statistical analyses is provided.

Participants

A total of 143 people participated in the study. One of the participants was found to be an outlier when checking for the assumptions. This person scored each item with a '1' and was removed from the study as her results endangered the assumptions of normality and homogeneity. The remaining 142 participants were divided equally among the four conditions. There were 37 participants in the first condition, 32 participants in the second condition, and 37 in the third and fourth condition.

The sample consisted of 53 males and 89 females, with a mean age of 30.9 (SD = 13.41) that ranged from a minimum of 18 years to a maximum age of 62 years. No significant difference was found between age and gender (male: 33.5, female: 29.4, t(140) = 1.79, p = .08). A significant difference was found for level of education and age. Participants with a higher level of education were significantly younger than participants with a lower level of education (high education: 29.6, low education: 36.0, t(140) = 2.32, p < .025). Furthermore, there were more participants with a high level of education in the sample, which were 113 participants, compared to participants with a low level of education, which were the remaining 29 people. Finally, no significant gender difference was found for level of education. The men and women in the sample were comparable on educational level, 84.3% (n = 75) of the females were highly educated and 71.7% (n = 38) of the males had a high level of education.

An independent samples t-test revealed that the younger age group reported to speak English on a more frequent basis (M = 3.76, SD = .80) than the adult age group (M = 3.39, SD = .84), t(140) = 2.62, p < .01. No significant difference was found when comparing high and low educated participants on their reported frequency of speaking English, t(140) = -.60, p = .55.

Design

The study had a 2 (language: English vs. Dutch) x 2 (slogan length: short vs. long) between-subjects design. The online questionnaire consisted of four different versions and the participants were randomly assigned to one version. Each participant evaluated eight advertisements, four of these ads were critical items and the remaining four were filler ads. The critical advertisements contained a double manipulation and differed on both language and slogan length. The filler items differed solely in language and were presented in either English

or Dutch. Slogan length was not of importance for the filler ads and was not taken into account to distract the attention from the true goals of the experiment. Table 2 shows the division of the independent variables among the conditions, with the critical items in condition one consisting of Dutch ads with short slogans, in condition two the ads were in Dutch with long slogans, condition three had English ads with short slogans and condition four consisted of English ads with long slogans. The filler ads consisted of Dutch slogans in the Dutch-language conditions, one and two and were English in the English-language conditions, three and four. The critical items were always the first, second, fourth and seventh advertisement shown to the participants, whereas the filler ads were always shown in the third, fifth, sixth and eight position. The dependent variables in the study were advertisement attitude and purchase intention.

Table 2:

Distribution of Language and Slogan Length over the four versions of the questionnaire.

Condition		Ad 1	Ad 2	Ad 3	Ad 4	Ad 5	Ad 6	Ad7	Ad 8
1	Language	Dutch							
	Slogan	Short	Short	N.A. /	Short	N.A. /	N.A. /	Short	N.A. /
	length			Filler		Filler	Filler		Filler
				ad		ad	ad		ad
2	Language	Dutch							
	Slogan	Long	Long	N.A. /	Long	N.A. /	N.A. /	Long	N.A. /
	length			Filler		Filler	Filler		Filler
				ad		ad	ad		ad
3	Language	English							

	Slogan	Short	Short	N.A. /	Short	N.A. /	N.A. /	Short	N.A. /
	length			Filler		Filler	Filler		Filler
				ad		ad	ad		ad
4	Language	English							
	Slogan	Long	Long	N.A. /	Long	N.A. /	N.A. /	Long	N.A. /
	length			Filler		Filler	Filler		Filler
				ad		ad	ad		ad

Materials and Pre-test

Seven advertisements were made for modern, innovative products using Adobe Photoshop Elements. The products that were featured in the advertisements were gender neutral, such as an espresso machine, a box-spring bed, a camera and an e-reader. A pre-test was conducted to find out whether the stimuli used in the experiment matched the aim of having an association with modernity. Two short tasks and two conditions were created for conducting the pre-test. In the first condition, participants indicated which products had an association with modernity according to them, secondly they assessed which Dutch slogans were short in their opinion. In the second condition, participants were asked to indicate which of the presented products had an everyday and plain association according to them. In the second task, participants indicated which of the English slogans appeared to be long to them. By testing the stimuli in two different conditions, it could be determined which of the products or slogans were best suited for the experiment. Five males and five females participated in the pre-test and were shown eleven products. See Appendix A for the pre-test questionnaire and the product stimuli. The four products that were chosen most during the pre-test as depicting modern products were chosen for the main study. The results showed that the espresso machine, the hybrid car, the e-reader and the box-spring bed were most frequently chosen as modern products or as products that were simple and not common.

Each advertisement had a principal form with a background image and a product in a fixed position. Depending on the condition for which the critical advertisement was designed, English-language or Dutch-language slogans were incorporated that were either short or long in amount of words. This resulted in four different versions for each of the critical

18

advertisements. Figure 1 shows an example of one of the quartets of advertisements that was used in the experiment, see Appendix B for the critical stimuli that were used in the experiment.



Figure 1. An example of a quartet of ads with a Short Dutch Slogan in the upper left corner, a Long Dutch slogan in the bottom left corner, a Short English slogan in the upper right corner and a long English slogan in the bottom right corner.

The data was collected in collaboration with another study that looked at the difference between English and Dutch slogans for everyday, plain products. These four ads, depicting everyday products such as a water bottle, Band-Aids and toothpaste were used as fillers for the current study, to divert attention from the true goal of the experiment. The pre-test revealed that these products were distinguished as everyday, non-modern products, which makes them suitable as a filler. There were two versions of the filler items, the corresponding advertisements either consisted of Dutch or English slogans. In the process of creating the slogans for these items, slogan length was not a variable of interest as this study looked at language differences solely. The slogans corresponding to the filler items were deployed as a means to differentiate in the presented language, which was English or Dutch. The filler items were designed in a similar manner as the critical advertisements were. The principal form consisted of a background image with a product in a fixed position. The slogans were incorporated in English or in Dutch, leading to two different versions for each filler item. Figure 2 shows an example of a pair of filler ads. For a complete overview of the filler items, please consult Appendix C.

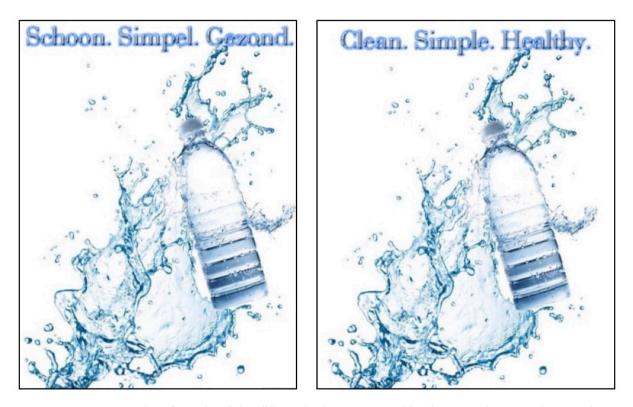


Figure 2. An example of a pair of the filler ads that was used in the experiment. The Dutch version is shown on the left, which was incorporated in condition 1 and 2. On the right the English version is shown, that was used in condition 3 and 4.

The products for the current study were chosen based on prior research by Pillar (2001) who found that English was used mostly for products that had an international, sophisticated and modern appeal. Examples of modern products in Pillar's study were electronic devices such as a camera and products in the travel branch. However, in the pre-test, these products were not unanimously picked as modern, which can be explained regarding the age of Pillar's (2001) study.

The slogans were inspired by online slogan generators (www.slogangenerator.co, https://www.shopify.com/tools/slogan-maker), but were adjusted and altered in order to fit the experiments' goal. This goal was to make slogans differentiate on their language and length, rather than on their content. The content was therefore very simple and straightforward, simply using some of the products' characteristics or associations, as in "*your dreams come true*" (version: English, short slogan), for the box-spring bed and "*have the world at your feet after a cup of freshly, home brewed coffee*" (version: English, long slogan), for the espresso machine.

Using product appropriate slogans enhances slogan liking, Dass et al. (2014). The length of the slogans was determined on the basis of previous research (Dass et al., 2014), which found that the average short slogan consists of 3.9 words. As no research to date has focused on long slogans, there was no default for a long slogan yet. The pre-test, however, showed that slogans consisting of nine words were not unanimously classified as long slogans, whereas ten-word long slogans were. Therefore, the long slogans in the experiment all consisted of at least ten words.

Procedure

A survey was created as this research method was most suitable to measure the effect of language and slogan length on advertisement attitude and purchase intention. Prior research on the appreciation of the use of foreign languages in advertising was conducted in a similar manner (Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Hornikx, van Meurs & Hof, 2013).

An online survey was constructed in the Tilburg University Faculty of Humanities Qualtrics environment based on the stimuli described in the materials section. Participants were recruited via social media and could fill out the survey on their laptops, mobile phones or tablets after clicking on a link that led them to the survey. The participants were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions. The survey first showed an introductory text, which named features such as why and by who the study was conducted, the amount of time it took to finish the survey, included privacy and anonymity statements and the experimenters' contact data. If participants wished to continue with the survey, they could do so by clicking on a button that started the questionnaire. The introduction was followed by the demographical questions, which included age, gender and level of education. Next, participants were given task instructions, which stated that they were about to view eight advertisements, each followed by three sets of questions. It was stressed that there were no right or wrong answers and that the first impression is most probably the best answer. See Appendix D for the full Dutch questionnaire.

After this, the advertisements were shown, followed by the attitude, purchase intention and modernity questions. The language and length of the slogans differed, depending on the condition the participant was in. Each participant was shown eight advertisements, four of these consisted the critical items and the remaining four were the filler ads. After evaluating the last advertisement, two additional demographical questions were asked. The first question concerned the participant's mother tongue and the second asked for the degree of English the participant speaks in general. These questions were asked after the experimental tasks in order to prevent the participants from suspecting the true goals of the experiment.

Measures

The current study assessed the effect of language and slogan length on consumers' purchase intention and advertisement attitude. An additional question was asked regarding the modernity of the products depicted in the advertisement in order to divert attention from the two main questions and to create some variation in the questions. To verify that the used scales were reliable measures, the Cronbach's alpha test was conducted.

Advertisement attitude.

For measuring attitude, an existing, respected scale by Spears and Singh (2004) was used that was created specifically for measuring attitudes in an advertising context. This resulted in a seven-point semantic differential scale that consisted of five concepts. Participants indicated for example to which extent the shown advertisement was unattractive or attractive, impersonal or personal. Other anchors were uninteresting – interesting, restraining – inviting and monotonous – varied. The scores of the five items could be aggregated into one average score for overall advertisement attitude, Cronbach's alpha (α) was .90. This indicates that the items in the attitude scale are reliable measures for measuring the advertisement attitude, enhancing the internal consistency.

Purchase intention.

In order to measure the purchase intention, three seven-point semantic differential scales were used that were proposed by Hornikx et al. (2013). This scale was a suitable measure because Hornikx et al. (2013) conducted a similar study where participants rated different ads and this scale resulted in a reliability of $\alpha = .82$. The header question was 'buying the product is...', followed by statements such as *something I will never do* ranging to *something I definitely want to do*. The other two items ranged from *something I will not recommend to my friends* to *something I will definitely recommend to my friends*, and from *definitely not something for me* to *definitely something for me*. The scores of these three items could be aggregated into one average score for overall purchase intention, Cronbach's alpha (α) was .83. The Cronbach's alpha indicates a high internal consistency, which means that the items in the purchase intention scale measure the same construct and is therefore a reliable measure.

Modernity.

Finally, it was tested whether the advertised products were linked to modernity by the respondents. This was also done with the help of a seven-point semantic differential scale that queried three elements. The main question was what the participants' general impression of the advertisement was, which could be scored on the items ranging from not innovative to innovative, old-fashioned to modern and not trendy to trendy. This scale originates from the

study by Gerritsen et al. (2007). The scores of the three items could be aggregated into one average score that represents the overall modernity for the products, Cronbach's alpha (α) was .88.

The scales that were mentioned in this part can all be found in Appendix D, which includes the response items and the instructions.

Analysis

The data was analyzed by conducting multiple statistical analyses in the statistical software program IBM SPSS version 22. The analyses that were conducted were mainly two-way factorial ANOVA's and in some cases one-way factorial ANOVA's. For the analyses in the participant's subsection, multiple independent sample t-tests were conducted.

Results

This section provides the results of the statistical analyses for both dependent variables, advertisement attitude and purchase intention. Table 3 shows the correlations among and the descriptive statistics for key research variables.

Table 3

	M (SD)	Age	Sex	Educ.	Att.	PI
Age	30.9 (13.4)	-				
Sex	1.63 (.49)	15	-			
Education	1.80 (0.41)	19*	.15	-		
Advertisement Attitude	3.88 (0.89)	25**	04	.02	-	
Purchase Intention	3.67 (0.96)	25**	.02	.05	.71***	-

Correlations, Mean Scores, and Standard Deviations for Key Study Variables

Notes. For sex 1 = male, 2 = female; for education 1 = low, 2 = high. Educ. = education, Att. = advertisement attitude, PI = purchase intention. ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05.

Judgments for advertisement attitude

To test the hypotheses concerning the advertisement attitude, a two-way factorial ANOVA was conducted. The first two assumptions for two-way factorial ANOVA's have been met, the dependent variables were measured at a continuous level and the independent variables

consisted of two categorical, independent groups. The independence of observations assumption has also been met; participants that were in the first condition were never also in condition 2, 3 or 4 or in any other combination. This means that participants in the third condition were only shown short English slogans and were never shown short Dutch slogans (condition 1), long Dutch slogans (condition 2) or long English slogans (condition 4). One outlier was detected in the dataset; the boxplot belonging to the Dutch, short slogan condition revealed that one person scored each item a '1'. After this participant was removed from the dataset, the assumption of normal distribution was met. Finally, Levene's test for homogeneity of variance was not significant, F(3, 138) = .18, p = .91. Therefore, the assumption of homogeneity was met; the variances were equal for the four groups.

The first expectation was that the English slogans would lead to a better advertisement attitude than the Dutch slogans. However, no significant main effect was found to support this hypothesis: F(1, 138) = 0.05, p = .83, $\omega = -.08$. The advertisement attitude after viewing advertisements in English (M = 3.87, SD = 0.87) did not differ from advertisements that were presented in Dutch (M = 3.90, SD = 0.92). Secondly, it was expected that short slogans would lead to a better advertisement attitude than long slogans. This hypothesis could not be confirmed based on the results: F(1,138) = 1.01, p = .32, $\omega = -.03$. Participants who were presented with the advertisement more than participants who were shown the advertisements with long slogans, (M = 3.96, SD = 0.93). Finally, it was expected that advertisement attitude would be highest for short English slogans, compared to other three conditions. The results of a one-way factorial ANOVA, did not support this hypothesis, F(1, 140) = 0.19, p = .66, $\omega = -.45$. The judgments for advertisement attitude were not higher when the advertisements that incorporated short English slogans (M = 3.82, SD = 0.81), compared to the advertisements that incorporated short English slogans or long English slogans (M = 3.90, SD = 0.92).

The results in this section show that using English versus native language and differentiating in slogan length do not influence the judgments of advertisement attitude.

Judgments for purchase intention

In order to test the expectations concerning the purchase intentions, a two-way factorial ANOVA was carried out. First, the assumptions for two-way factorial ANOVA's were tested. The dependent variable purchase intention has been measured on a continuous level, the independent variables both consist of two categorical, independent groups and the assumption for independence of observations was also met. One outlier was found in the dataset, which was the same person that was found when checking the assumptions for advertisement attitude.

The data of this person was excluded to improve the reliability of the dataset. The assumption for normality was met. Levene's test revealed that the assumption of homogeneity was met after removal of the outlier. The variances were equal in the four groups, F(3, 138) = 2.56, p = .06.

The first expectation was that the advertisements in English would lead to a higher intention to buy the product than in the Dutch advertisements. Based on the results, hypothesis 1b could not be confirmed: F(1, 138) = 0.64, p = .43, $\omega = .05$. The purchase intention after viewing English advertisements (M = 3.60, SD = 1.01) did not differ compared to viewing the Dutch advertisements (M = 3.73, SD = 0.90). The second expectation was that short slogans lead to a higher purchase intention than long slogans. This hypothesis can not be confirmed based on the results, participants in the short slogan conditions (M = 3.65, SD = 0.82) did not indicate higher intentions to buy the products presented in the advertisements than participants in the long slogan conditions (M = 3.68, SD = 1.09), F(1, 138) = 0.04, p = .84, $\omega = .08$. Thirdly, an interaction effect for language and slogan length was expected, where it was hypothesized that short English slogans would lead to the highest purchase intention compared to the other combinations. A one-way factorial ANOVA could not confirm this expectation: F(1, 140) = .26, p = .61, $\omega = .07$. Purchase intention was not higher when advertisements featured short English slogans (M = 3.60, SD = 0.81), compared to when advertisements consisted of short Dutch slogans and long Dutch or English slogans (M = 3.69, SD = 1.01).

The analysis of the results for purchase intention did not reveal significant results. The use of English compared to the native language (Dutch) and showing either short or long slogans did not lead to differences in the judgments for purchase intention.

Secondary analysis for age

Effects of age on advertisement attitude.

A small secondary analysis revealed significant differences between the age groups for advertisement attitude. A two-way factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that the adolescent group (n = 93), consisting of participants aged 26 or younger appreciated both Dutch and English advertisements significantly more (M = 4.54, SD = 0.95) than the adult age group, aged 27 and above (n = 49), (M = 3.65, SD = 1.14): F(1, 138) = 7.17, p < .01, $\omega = .17$. A two-way factorial ANOVA with split results based on slogan length conditions (short vs. long) revealed that there was a significant effect for slogan length when comparing the age groups. The adolescent (M = 4.15, SD = 0.80) and adult (M = 3.54, SD = 1.08) age group indicated different advertisement attitudes after viewing ads with long slogans: F(1, 67) = 7.04, p < .01, $\omega = .25$. Young participants indicated higher attitudes for advertisements that incorporated long

slogans compared to the older participant age group. Figure 3a displays the significant difference between the age groups, adolescents appreciated the products in both the Dutch and the English version more than the adult group. Figure 3b visualizes the finding that adolescents reported significantly higher attitudes for advertisements incorporating long slogans, compared to the adult age group.

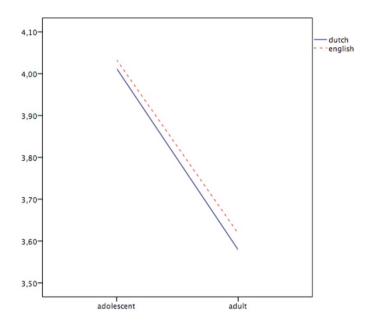


Figure 3a. Adolescents indicated higher preferences for both English and Dutch advertisements compared to the adult age group.

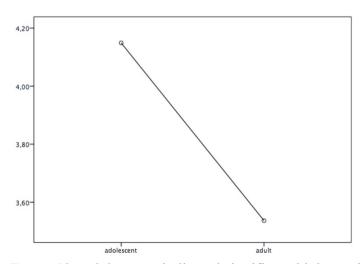


Figure 3b. Adolescents indicated significant higher attitudes than the adult age group for advertisements with long slogans.

A secondary analysis of the results for age was conducted for purchase intention as well as was done for advertisement attitude. A two-way factorial ANOVA showed that the younger age group was more inclined to buy the products (M = 3.82, SD = 0.90) portrayed in the advertisements, compared to the adult age group (M = 3.38, SD = 1.00), F(1, 138) = 6.34, p <.020, $\omega = .18$. A two-way factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) with results split on the basis of slogan length condition (short or long) was conducted to test whether both age groups had different judgments about the purchase intention when confronted with either short or long slogans. A significant effect was found based on slogan length and age group. The adolescent group indicated a significantly higher intention to buy the product shown in the advertisement when advertised using long slogans (M = 3.86, SD = 0.96) than the adult group (M = 3.30, SD= 1.27), F(1, 67) = 4.23, p < .05, $\omega = .23$. Figure 4a visualizes the significant effect of language on purchase intention for the two age groups. Figure 4b shows the significant relation between slogan length and age group.

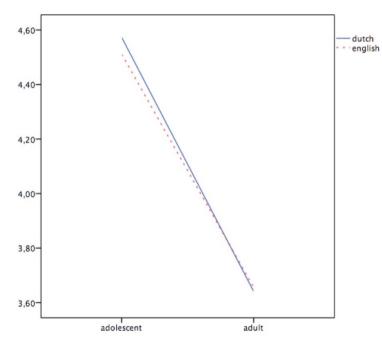


Figure 4a. Adolescents were significantly more inclined that the adult group to buy the products, either shown in a Dutch or English advertisement.

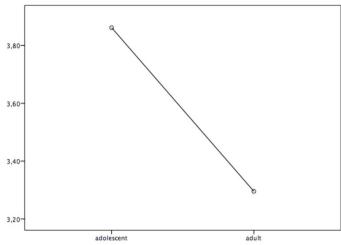


Figure 4b. Adolescents indicated a significant higher intentions to buy the products advertised for in the advertisements incorporating long slogans than the adult age group.

Effects of age on perceived product modernity.

Another significant result for age was found when conducting an extra analysis for the construct of modernity. Adolescents scored the products higher on modernity (M = 4.54, SD = 0.95) than the older age group (M = 3.65, SD = 1.14): F(1, 138) = 23.56, p < .001, $\omega = .38$. See Figure 5 for a visualization of this significant effect.

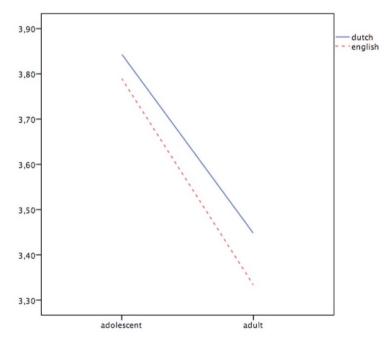


Figure 5. Younger participants significantly perceived the product stimuli as more modern than the older age group.

The results in this section reveal significant differences for advertisement attitude and purchase intention when compared on the basis of age group. In general, younger people indicated higher judgments for the advertisements than the older age group. For language, adolescents indicated similar judgments on advertisement attitude and purchase intention for both English-language and Dutch-language ads, these scores were significantly higher than the judgment scores of the adult age group. However, for slogan length a significant result within the groups was revealed. Young participants indicated higher scores for both dependent variables than adults when confronted with advertisements incorporating long slogans. For short slogans, no significant result was found between the age groups and within the age groups. In addition to this, the results indicate that young participants perceived the products as more modern than the older age group. The means and standard deviations for language and slogan length for both dependent variables are given in Table 4.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Language and Slogan Length per age group (Standard Deviations in parentheses, judgment scores have a minimum of 1 – maximum of 7)

English $(N = 74)$	Dutch	Short	Long	
(N = 74)			Long	
(14 - 74)	(N = 68)	(N = 73)	(N = 69)	
<u>M (SD)</u>	<u>M (SD</u>)	<u>M (SD)</u>	<u>M (SD)</u>	
4.03 (0.83)**	4.01 (0.83)**	3.89 (0.84)	4.15 (0.80)**	
3.62 (0.89)**	3.58 (1.09)**	3.66 (0.88)	3.54 (1.08)**	
<u>M (SD)</u>	<u>M (SD)</u>	<u>M (SD)</u>	<u>M (SD)</u>	
3.79 (0.98)*	3.84 (0.84)*	3.77 (0.85)	3.86 (0.96)*	
3.33 (1.01)*	3.45 (1.01)*	3.44 (0.72)	3.30 (1.09)*	
	4.03 (0.83)** 3.62 (0.89)** <u>M (SD)</u> 3.79 (0.98)*	4.03 (0.83)** 4.01 (0.83)** 3.62 (0.89)** 3.58 (1.09)** <u>M (SD)</u> <u>M (SD)</u> 3.79 (0.98)* 3.84 (0.84)*	$4.03 (0.83)^{**}$ $4.01 (0.83)^{**}$ $3.89 (0.84)$ $3.62 (0.89)^{**}$ $3.58 (1.09)^{**}$ $3.66 (0.88)$ $\underline{M(SD)}$ $\underline{M(SD)}$ $\underline{M(SD)}$ $3.79 (0.98)^{*}$ $3.84 (0.84)^{*}$ $3.77 (0.85)$	

Note. **p < .01, *p < .05.

Conclusion

The current study investigated whether the use of English in advertising for a Dutch audience has an influence on advertisement attitude and purchase intention, compared to advertising in the native language. As slogans are a key location in advertisements for using English, it was also examined whether slogan length had an influence on the advertisement attitude and purchase intention. Participants were divided amongst four conditions where they either saw English or Dutch advertisements, containing short or long slogans. It was expected that the use of English compared to Dutch would result in better advertisement attitudes and higher purchase intentions for the products portrayed in the advertisements. However, no significant differences were found that supported this notion. For slogan length, it was expected that shorter slogans would lead to higher intentions to buy and a more positive attitude towards the products depicted in the ad, compared to long slogans. However, no main effects were found to support the corresponding hypotheses. Finally, an interaction effect was expected for language and slogan length. The hypothesis in which was stated that short English slogans would result in better advertisement attitudes and higher purchase intentions could not be supported on the basis of the results and needs to be rejected for that matter. However, age was found to be an important determiner in the preference for the advertisements. The younger age group, consisting of participants aged 26 or under, had significantly more positive advertisement attitudes and higher intentions to purchase products displayed in Dutch and English advertisements compared to the adult age group. Moreover, young participants indicated significant higher advertisement attitudes and purchase intentions compared to the adult participants when the advertisements incorporated long slogans.

The research question

The central research question for this thesis was: "What is the effect of the use of English in advertising for a Dutch audience on purchase intention and advertisement attitude and does slogan length have an influence in this process?". The dependent variable advertisement attitude showed significant different results based on age. People under 26 indicated higher attitudes and higher purchase intentions for both English and Dutch advertisements compared to people aged 27 or above. Moreover, young people indicated higher attitudes and higher purchase intentions for advertisements that incorporated long slogans compared to the older age group. This means that language and slogan length have an influence on how the advertisement is perceived by different age groups and whether or not this leads to a decision of buying the product.

30

General Discussion

The present study sheds a new light on the influence of the increasing presence of English in a foreign context. Previous research found that the use of English language in advertising in regions where it is not the first language can have different outcomes. On the one hand, it seems that English can contribute to a global image, with close links to modernity (Baumgardner, 2006; Friedrich, 2002; Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Krishna and Ahluwalia, 2008; Piller 2001, 2003), but on the other, using a regions' native language can have positive implications, such as increased emotionality (Puntoni et al., 2009) and thoughts related to family, friends, home and homeland (Noriega & Blair, 2008). However, most studies in the field are quite dated, and for that reason no longer serve the purpose of mapping the developments of the Anglicization in regions where English is not the nation's first tongue.

The results of the current study show that a native Dutch audience does not prefer English over Dutch, or vice versa when evaluating their attitude towards advertisements and indicating their intention to buy the products portrayed in the advertisements. These results differ from prior findings that English in advertising leads to more positive evaluations when used for luxury products (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008) and findings that language-congruency, in this case the connotations linked to modernity that English has combined with modern products, lead to higher purchase intentions and more positive attitudes associated with the product (Hornikx et al., 2013).

Besides examining the influence of using the world's lingua franca compared to the targeted audience's native language in advertising on advertisement attitude and intention to buy products, the current study also examined whether slogan length had an influence in the process of liking and buying. The results indicate that slogan length does not have an influence on how consumers perceive an advertisement and the product portrayed in it. Previous research on slogan length was devoted mainly to recall (Dass et al., 2014; Kohli et al., 2013), where short slogans seem to be more appropriate than longer slogans. For liking however, the current study showed that the audience does not indicate higher attitudes for short compared to long slogans or vice versa. Moreover, no indication was found that slogan length has an influence on purchase intention. It is likely that slogan length has a contribution on the recall of the advertisement, rather than on its persuasiveness.

As previous research showed that short slogans improve recall (Dass et al., 2014; Kohli et al., 2013) and that these preferences could be linked to comprehension (Hornikx et al., 2010), it was expected that the short, English slogans (condition 3) were preferred when compared to the other versions and would lead to higher purchase intentions. As Hornikx et al. (2010) found,

English slogans are liked most by a native Dutch audience, especially when they are easy to understand. The current results, however, did not find indications that the participants in this specific condition scored higher on advertisement attitude and purchase intention.

Significant results were found when comparing different age groups. Young people that were aged under 26 had a more positive attitude about both the Dutch and the English advertisements, compared to the adult group, which was aged 27 and over. The younger age group also indicated significant higher purchase intentions in both the English and Dutch conditions, compared to the older age group. This indicates that the advertisements or the products that were used in the study may have been more appealing to younger people compared to the 27-plus age group. The pre-test that was conducted for this study solely focused on the modernity of the products and on the length on the slogans. The products used in the study were unanimously chosen as modern products in the pre-test. The choice for modern products was made based on prior research that showed that English has an influence when used in combination with modern products (Pillar, 2001). Significant differences between the age groups were found based on their attitude towards the advertisements and purchase intentions. Young participants indicated significantly more positive advertisement attitudes and higher purchase intentions for advertisements that incorporated long slogans compared to the adult participants. This finding does not correspond to the expectations. As prior research has indicated that short slogans lead to better recall (Dass et al., 2014; Kohli et al., 2013), it was expected that participants also appreciated short slogans more than long slogans. However, the current findings show that slogan length can be implemented as a marketing tool.

Limitations

The products that were used for the experiment were modern products, which were carefully selected and tested on their association with modernity in a pre-test. However, it seemed that the products were generally liked more by the younger age group compared to the adult age group. The reason for this is not very easy to discover, as the products were chosen with great care and are not marketed to a young public in general. A hybrid car is not necessarily a product that is associated with youth, as it is an expensive product and is invented to spare the environment. Also an e-reader, espresso machine and a box-spring bed are not typical products for young people, but rather for all kinds of audiences, if not even for a somewhat adult age group. What can then explain the finding that people aged 26 and under significantly indicated higher advertisement attitudes and higher intentions to buy the advertised products than the older age group? The advertisements were hand-made in the Adobe program Photoshop, which required choosing a background as well as choosing fonts and font size. To

make the advertisements appear as real as possible, colorful background images were used instead of a plain color background which was used in the study of Hornikx et al. (2010). This was done with the best intentions to increase the ecological validity of the study. However, the bright colors in these backgrounds may have been more appealing to the young audience instead of the somewhat older age group. However, as the basic form of the advertisements, including the background image and position of the product and slogan were completely identical in all four conditions, the possibility of an influence of external factors has been controlled for. This finding again clarifies how complicated advertising really is, and how many factors need to be considered when creating a campaign.

Practical and scientific implications

Previous research in this field of study has mainly focused on documenting the occurrence of English in foreign language advertising. In the current research, an experiment was conducted to reveal the attitude towards the increasing use of English in a foreign context. The current study was the first, to our knowledge, that has combined the effect of language with slogan length. The latter is used in previous research as a manipulation for recall. Slogan length was chosen as one of the experimental factors because the slogan is one of the key places where English is used in an advertisement. Contrary to the expectations, the results indicated that using English compared to the native language does not result in divergent attitudes or purchase intentions. This is a very interesting finding for both marketing and linguistic purposes. For marketing agencies, these results can be implemented when deciding which language to choose in an advertising campaign. As the results indicate that consumers do not react differently to English language in advertising compared to their native language, the marketing industry can save expenses for creating regional-specific campaigns. On the other hand, these findings are of great interest for linguistic research purposes. Eckert et al. (2012) described English as a threat to multilingualism when discussing its increasing presence in a foreign context, contributing to a (possible) evaporation of the native language. The current results shed a new light on those worries, revealing a lack of preference for the native language compared to English. These findings can form a new impulse for a national and perhaps even a European debate about the increasing presence of English in the European languages. This may lead to a discussion of preserving the original languages spoken in areas such as the Eurozone.

Moreover, the results reveal that short versus long slogans did not lead to differences in judgments for advertisement attitude and purchase intention. This indicates that slogan length does not necessarily have an influence on how the product or advertisement is perceived by the consumer, but is rather an indication for remembering a brand. However, there may be more

nuance in the role of slogans than a purpose of merely enhancing recall. The analyses revealed age differences for the height of the advertisement attitude scores and the likeliness of buying a product based on slogan length. The young age group indicated a higher advertisement attitude and intention to buy the product shown in the ads that contained long slogans, compared to the older age group. This indicates that slogan length has an effect on how an advertisement is perceived by different age groups. Short slogans can serve as a means to enhance recall, whereas long slogans are better suited for conveying the organization's message. These findings suggest that slogan can enhance the advertisement attitude and may eventually lead to a more positive brand attitude for example. Organizations such as McDonald's and Coca Cola use the same slogan for a long period of time, likely as a means of connecting separate advertisements to the bigger purpose of a campaign. The current Coca Cola slogan "taste the feeling" for example, contributes to the message of making everyday moments more special. In conclusion, slogans may play a bigger role advertising than what is known today, short slogans may be better suited for recall, whereas long slogans can serve as a marketing tool for enhancing attitude towards the advertisement and increase purchase intention.

Finally, the current study revealed age effects, indicating that young people prefer the use of English in advertising to a larger extent than the adult age group. These results can be translated to reality more readily than the results by Gerritsen et al. (1999), who used a small sample of people aged 50-57 in their adult age group. The current study made the distinction between adolescents and adults for the age of 27. Participants that were aged below were classified as adolescents and participants that were 27 and older were labelled as an adult, creating larger age groups.

Suggestions for future research

In the present study, participants were confronted with advertisements incorporating a product and a slogan in front of a photographic background. However, some advertisements also contain product information and a link to the company's website for example. Future research could differentiate the language of the product information and make the advertisement fully in English, fully in the native language or use a mix of both. It might be the case that the lack of significant results in the current study was caused by a shortage of cues to judge the advertisement on. Using more language cues, such as by adding a text description of the product could lead to different results. Consumers may be indifferent about the language used in the slogan, but may for convenience reasons such as comprehension prefer the native language in the accompanying text in the advertisement.

Long slogans led to more positive advertisement attitudes and purchase intentions for young participants compared to the older age group. This suggests that long slogans may be better suited for conveying an organizations' message, compared to short slogans. However, prior research has indicated that short slogans are better for recall purposes. This shows that slogan length can be implemented for different outcomes. It is up to the organization which goal they want to achieve. However, more research is needed to find out how recall, positive attitudes and purchase intentions can be combined to have the best of both worlds. When age differences were not taken into account in the analyses, no differences were found between the groups that were exposed to advertisements with either short or long slogans. Participants were shown the slogans only once, which may explain this lack of significant results. Real-life advertising campaigns circulate for longer periods of time and are in general shown more than once to an individual consumer. Future research should focus on the influence of repeated exposure to a slogan on the advertisement attitude and purchase intention. It may very well be the case that multiple exposure enhances the attitude towards the advertisement and the intention to buy a product or service.

The results of the current research reveal age differences in the attitude toward the advertisement and intention of buying a product for English and native language advertisements. The younger age group appreciated the use of English significantly more than the older age group. Longitudinal studies should reveal whether this is an age-specific phenomenon, or that this young generation and the generations to follow will prefer English to their native language also when they come of age.

References

- Alipour, M., & Kiaeifar, N. (2015). A Comparative Study of English and Persian Advertising Slogans: Linguistic Means through the Sands of Time. *Research in Applied Linguistics*, 5, 53-65.
- Baumgardner, R. J. (2006). The appeal of English in Mexican commerce. *World Englishes*, 25(2), 251-266.
- Dass, M., Kohli, C., Kumar, P., & Thomas, S. (2014). A study of the antecedents of slogan liking. *Journal of Business Research*, 67(12), 2504-2511.
- Eckert, T., Johann, A., Kanzig, A., Kung, M., Muller, B., Schwald, C., & Walder, L. (2012). Is English a 'killer language'? The globalisation of a code.
- Friedrich, P. (2002). English in advertising and brand naming: Sociolinguistic considerations and the case of Brazil. *English Today*, *18*(03), 21-28.
- Fuertes-Olivera, P. A., Velasco-Sacristán, M., Arribas-Baño, A., & Samaniego-Fernández, E. (2001). Persuasion and advertising English: Metadiscourse in slogans and headlines. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 33(8), 1291-1307.
- Gerritsen, M., Nickerson, C., van Hooft, A., van Meurs, F., Korzilius, H., Nederstigt, U., Starren, M., & Crijns, R. (2010). English in product advertisements in non-English speaking countries in Western Europe: Product image and comprehension of the text. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 23(4), 349-365.
- Gerritsen, M., Gijsbers, I., Korzilius, H. P. L. M., & van Meurs, W. F. J. (1999). Engels in Nederlandse tv-reclame [2]. Hoe denken consumenten erover en wat begrijpen ze ervan? *Onze Taal*, 68(1), 18-20.
- Gerritsen, M., Nickerson, C., Van Hooft, A., Van Meurs, F., Nederstigt, U., Starren, M., & Crijns, R. (2007). English in product advertisements in Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Spain. *World Englishes*, 26(3), 291-315.
- Hornikx, J., & Starren, M. (2006). The relationship between the appreciation and the comprehension of French in Dutch advertisements. In R. Crijns & C. Burgers (Eds), Werbestrategien in Theorie und Praxis. Sprachliche Aspekte von deutschen und niederländischen Unternehmensdarstellungen und Werbekampagnen (pp. 129-145). Tostedt: Attikon Verlag.
- Hornikx, J., van Meurs, F., & de Boer, A. (2010). English or a local language in advertising?
 The appreciation of easy and difficult English slogans in the Netherlands. *Journal of Business Communication*, 47(2), 169-188.

- Hornikx, J., van Meurs, F., & Hof, R. J. (2013). The effectiveness of foreign-language display in advertising for congruent versus incongruent products. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 25(3), 152-165.
- Hornikx, J., van Meurs, F., & Starren, M. (2007). An empirical study of readers' associations with multilingual advertising: The case of French, German and Spanish in Dutch advertising. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 28(3), 204-219.
- House, J. (2003). English as a lingua franca: A threat to multilingualism?. Journal of sociolinguistics, 7(4), 556-578.
- Jia-Ling, H. (2008). Glocalization and English Mixing in Advertising in Taiwan Its Discourse Domains, Linguistic Patterns, Cultural Constraints, Localized Creativity, and Socio psychological Effects. *Journal of Creative Communications*, 3(2), 155-183.
- Kachru, B. B. (1992). Teaching world Englishes. *The other tongue: English across cultures*, 2, 355-365.
- Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing*, *57*(1), 1-22.
- Kelly-Holmes, H. (2000). Bier, parfum, kaas: Language fetish in European advertising. European Journal of Cultural Studies, 3(1), 67-82
- Kohli, C., Thomas, S., & Suri, R. (2013). Are You In Good Hands?. Journal of Advertising Research, 53(1), 31-42.
- Krishna, A., & Ahluwalia, R. (2008). Language choice in advertising to bilinguals: Asymmetric effects for multinationals versus local firms. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35(4), 692-705.
- Kuppens, A. H. (2010). English in advertising: Generic intertextuality in a globalizing media environment. *Applied Linguistics*, *31*(1), 115-135.
- Lafferty, B. A., & Goldsmith, R. E. (1999). Corporate credibility's role in consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions when a high versus a low credibility endorser is used in the ad. *Journal of business research*, *44*(2), 109-116.
- Li, H., Daugherty, T., & Biocca, F. (2002). Impact of 3-D advertising on product knowledge, brand attitude, and purchase intention: The mediating role of presence. *Journal of advertising*, *31*(3), 43-57.
- Martin, E. (2002). Mixing English in French advertising. World Englishes, 21(3), 375-402.
- Noriega, J., & Blair, E. (2008). Advertising to bilinguals: Does the language of advertising influence the nature of thoughts?. *Journal of Marketing*, 72(5), 69-83.

- Piller, I. (2001). Identity constructions in multilingual advertising. *Language in society*, 30(02), 153-186.
- Piller, I. (2003). 10. advertising as a site of language contact. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 23, 170-183.
- Puntoni, S., De Langhe, B., & Van Osselaer, S. M. (2009). Bilingualism and the emotional intensity of advertising language. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35(6), 1012-1025.
- Raedts, M., Dupré, N., Hendrickx, J., & Debrauwere, S. (2015). English in television commercials in Belgium, France, Italy, the Netherlands and Spain. *World Englishes*, 34(4), 576-599.
- Ruellot, V. (2011). English in French print advertising from 1999 to 2007. *World Englishes*, 30(1), 5-20.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2007). Common property: English as a lingua franca in Europe. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 137-153). Springer US.
- Spears, N., & Singh, S. N. (2004). Measuring attitude toward the brand and purchase intentions. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 26(2), 53-66.
- Statista, (2016). The most spoken languages worldwide (speakers and native speaker in millions) [Report]. Retrieved from http://www.statista.com/statistics/266808/the-most spoken-languages-worldwide/.
- Tosi, A. (2001). *Language and society in a changing Italy* (Vol. 117). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual matters.
- Vettorel, P. (2013). English in Italian advertising. World Englishes, 32(2), 261-278.
- Vining, L. (2008). Marketing today's schools: The rule of three (3). Australian Educational Leader, 30(4), 37.

Appendix A

Pre-test with two conditions.

Introduction

Beste deelnemer,

Bedankt dat u deel wilt nemen aan dit vooronderzoek in het kader van mijn afstudeerscriptie. Deze vragenlijst bestaat uit twee korte taken en duurt niet langer dan 3 minuten.

Voor vragen kunt u contact op nemen met de experiment leider:

Alvast hartelijk bedankt voor uw deelname!

Danique Rautert

Demographical Questions

Wat is uw geslacht? O man O vrouw

Wat is uw leeftijd?

Task instruction classification modernity condition 1

Hieronder ziet u een aantal afbeeldingen van producten. Geef bij elk product aan of deze naar uw idee als modern en innovatief kan worden beschouwd. Hiermee wordt bedoeld dat het een product of service betreft die ongeveer 15 jaar geleden nog niet bestond in deze hoedanigheid. Voorbeeld: een telefoon op zich is niet modern, een mobiele telefoon of een smartphone wel. Er zijn geen juiste of onjuiste antwoorden, het eerste antwoord dat in u opkomt is meestal het beste antwoord.

Response item classification modernity

Bovenstaand product roept voor mij een associatie met moderniteit op.

39

O ja

O nee

Task instruction classification short slogans

In onderstaande tabel staan enkele slagzinnen, waarbij u aan kunt geven welke zinnen u kort vindt. Er zijn geen juiste of onjuiste antwoorden, het eerste antwoord dat in u opkomt is meestal het beste antwoord.

Response item classification short slogans

	Korte	slagzin
	Ja	Nee
1. De wereld ligt aan je voeten na een kopje verse, zelf gezette koffie.	0	0
2. Grote dromen starten in de meest luxueuze boxspring bedden.	0	Ο
3. De beleving van lezen.	0	0
4. Bestuur de toekomst.	0	0
5. Klaar voor de start. Uw partner in reizen naar paradijselijke	0	0
bestemmingen.		
6. Het buitengewone vastleggen.	0	Ο
7. Voel het geluid.	0	0
	I	

Task instruction classification everyday products condition 2

Hieronder ziet u een aantal afbeeldingen van producten. Geef bij elk product aan of deze naar uw idee als alledaags en eenvoudig kan worden beschouwd. Hiermee worden producten bedoeld die u over het algemeen standaard in huis heeft of snel mee zou nemen uit de winkel wanneer u het nodig heeft. Er zijn geen juiste of onjuiste antwoorden, het eerste antwoord dat in u opkomt is meestal het beste antwoord.

Response item classification everyday products

Bovenstaand product beschouw ik als alledaags en eenvoudig.

O ja

O nee

Task instruction classification long slogans

In onderstaande tabel staan enkele slagzinnen, waarbij u aan kunt geven welke zinnen u lang vindt. Er zijn geen juiste of onjuiste antwoorden, het eerste antwoord dat in u opkomt is meestal het beste antwoord.

Response item classification long slogans

	Lange s	slagzin
	Ja	Nee
1. Have the world at your feet after a cup of freshly, home brewed coffee.	0	0
2. Big dreams start in the most luxurious box-spring beds.	0	0
3. The reading experience.	0	0
4. Drive the future.	0	0
5. Ready for take-off. Your partner in travelling to paradise destinations.	0	0
6. Capture the extraordinary.	0	0
7. Feel the sound.	0	0

Product stimuli

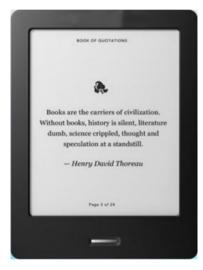
boxspring bed



bottled water



e-reader



hybrid car



43

bluetooth speakers



Band-Aid's



toothpaste



camera



espresso machine



airline company



chocolate



Appendix B

The critical advertisements in the four different versions: short Dutch slogans, long Dutch slogans, short English slogans, long English slogans.

Advertisement	Number	Condition 1	Condition 2	Condition 3	Condition 4
	in				
	sequence				
Espresso machine	1	Dutch, short	Dutch, long	English,	English,
		slogan	slogan	short slogan	long slogan
Box-spring bed	2	Dutch, short	Dutch, long	English,	English,
		slogan	slogan	short slogan	long slogan
Hybrid car	4	Dutch, short	Dutch, long	English,	English,
		slogan	slogan	short slogan	long slogan
E-reader	7	Dutch, short	Dutch, long	English,	English,
		slogan	slogan	short slogan	long slogan

45

Espresso machine advertisement

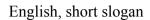


English, long slogan



Box-spring bed advertisement

Dutch, short slogan





Dutch, long slogan

English, long slogan





Hybrid car advertisement

Dutch, short slogan

English, short slogan

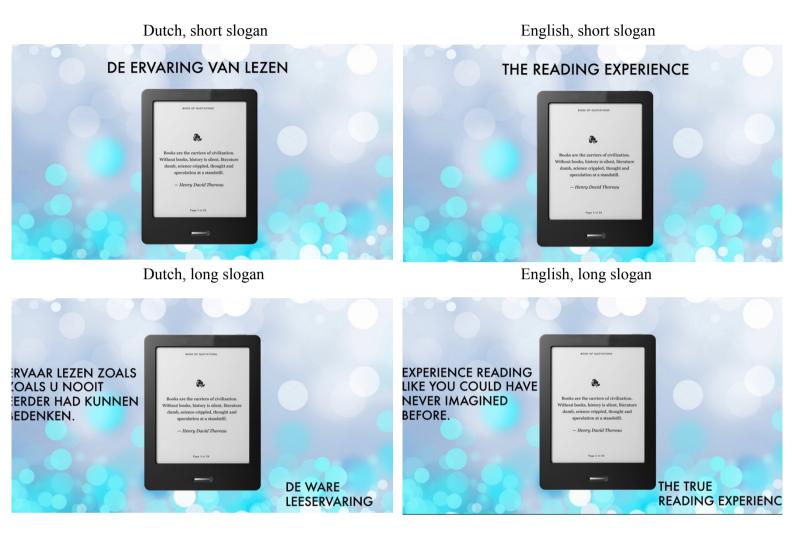


Dutch, long slogan

English, long slogan



E-reader advertisement



Appendix C

The filler items, available in two versions: English or Dutch.

Advertisement	Number in sequence	Condition 1 and 2	Condition 3 and 4
Chocolate	3	Dutch	English
Toothpaste	5	Dutch	English
Band-Aids	6	Dutch	English
Bottled water	8	Dutch	English

Chocolate advertisement

Dutch

English





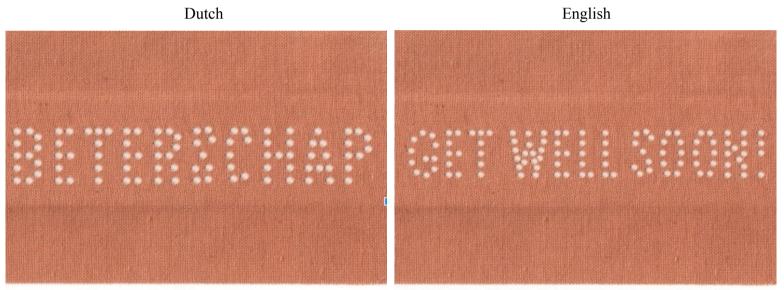
Toothpaste advertisement



Voor de witste tanden van de wereld!

For the whitest teeth in the world!

Band-Aids advertisement



Pleisters die blijven zitten.

Bandaids that stay on.





Appendix D

Questionnaire (Dutch)

Questionnaire Introduction

Beste deelnemer,

Voor onze afstudeerscriptie van de opleiding Bedrijfscommunicatie en Digitale Media aan Tilburg University doen wij een onderzoek naar de waardering van advertenties. We stellen het erg op prijs dat u een aantal minuten van uw tijd wilt besteden aan het invullen van onze vragenlijst. Het onderzoek duurt slechts 5 tot 7 minuten.

Deze enquête bestaat uit acht advertenties, gevolgd door enkele korte vragen. Deze vragen worden beantwoord aan de hand van een schaal die uit zeven punten bestaat.

Alle informatie en gegevens die u verstrekt worden met de uiterste zorg en anonimiteit behandeld. U kunt te allen tijde ervoor kiezen om te stoppen met deelname aan het onderzoek, uw gegevens worden dan niet opgeslagen.

Dit onderzoek wordt uitgevoerd in opdracht van Tilburg University, afdeling Humanities. Voor vragen en meer informatie kunt u contact opnemen met de onderzoeksleider:

Bij voorbaat dank voor uw tijd en medewerking.

Danique Rautert en Sem Zweekhorst.

Demographical Questions

Wat is uw geslacht?

O man

O vrouw

Wat is uw leeftijd?

Wat is uw hoogst genoten opleiding, of opleiding waar u op dit moment mee bezig bent? O Basisonderwijs

O Voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs (vmbo, mavo, LTS, LHNO)

O Algemeen voortgezet onderwijs (mulo, havo)

O Voorbereidend wetenschappelijk onderwijs (vwo, atheneum, gymnasium, HBS)

O Middelbaar beroepsonderwijs (MBO)

O Hoger beroepsonderwijs (HBO)

O Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (universitair)

Instruction

U krijgt hierna een aantal advertenties te zien, elk gevolgd door een aantal korte vragen. Er zijn geen juiste of onjuiste antwoorden, het eerste antwoord dat bij u opkomt is meestal het beste antwoord. Het laden van de advertenties kan even duren. Wanneer u op ">>" klikt begint het onderzoek.

Attitude question

Geef op onderstaande zeven-puntschaal aan wat u van de advertentie vindt.

	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	aantrekkelijk
oninteressant	0000000	interessant
afhoudend		uitnodigend
onpersoonlijk	0000000	persoonlijk
eentonig	0000000	afwisselend

Purchase intention question

Dit product kopen is...

iets dat ik nooit zal doen	0000000	iets dat ik zeker wil doen
iets wat ik mijn vrienden niet zal aanraden	00000000	iets wat ik mijn vrienden zeker zal aanraden
zeker niets voor mij	0000000	zeker iets voor mij

Modernity question

Wat is uw algemene gevoel over de advertentie?

niet innovatief	0000000	innovatief
oubollig	0000000	modern
niet trendy	0000000	trendy

55

Final demog	aphical ques	tions				
Wat is uw mo	edertaal?					
O Arabisch						
O Duits						
O Frans						
O Nederlands						
O Papiaments						
O Turks						
O Vlaams						
O Anders, nar	nelijk:					
Hoe vaak spreekt u gemiddeld Engels?						
O nooit	O zelden	O soms	O vaak	O meestal	O altijd	

End of Survey

Hartelijk dank voor uw deelname aan deze vragenlijst! Uw contributie is succesvol opgeslagen.