A QUANTITATIVE STUDY ON
THE EFFECTS OF THE USE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN ADS FOR DUTCH BRANDS ON CONSUMERS’ BRAND EVALUATION

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ABSTRACT

The integration of English into Dutch language is a current linguistic trend in The Netherlands. The Dutch regularly use English words and phrases in combination with their own language or speak English continuously during their work. It is essential in various kinds of businesses and heavily used in advertising and marketing. Mixing English words or phrases into a Dutch (marketing) message, which is called code switching, is increasingly common.

This study aims to get insight in the effects of the use of English language in print advertisements for Dutch brands on consumers’ brand evaluation. The concepts of brand attitude, perceived product quality, identification with the brand and language preference are examined. A distinction is made between Dutch food brands that are perceived national (Bolletje and Unox) and Dutch food brands that are believed to hold a more international character (Heineken and Ola), according to participants. This distinction was made by using the results of a pretest. Besides, results for two generations are compared; generation Y (or Millenials) and Babyboomers. Therefore, two age groups are distinguished: younger (below 30) and older (above 50).

The main study consisted of an experiment with a 3 (language: Dutch, mix, English) x 4 (2 national vs. 2 international brands) x 2 (age: young and older) between subject design. Participants were asked to fill out an online questionnaire in Qualtrics, in which they got to see either a Dutch, code switched or English ad for each of the four brands. The language of slogans and product names was manipulated.

Results of 205 respondents show that code switching in ads for Dutch food brands has little effect on the attitude toward the ad, identification with the brand and perceived product quality of Dutch consumers, both for (perceived) national and international brands. Some differences were found between age groups, such as more positive evaluations of ads and higher levels of identification with brands among younger participants in general. Dutch was obviously preferred most for all brands by both generations. Overall, it can be concluded that adding English language to the ads in this study did not contribute to positive evaluations. Therefore, it is advised to use Dutch language in advertising for Dutch brands, unless there is (scientific) proof English will have positive effects for a campaign in particular.

KEYWORDS: Code switching, advertising, language, brand evaluation, brand identification, brand attitude
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1 INTRODUCTION

In the Netherlands, English is used competently by millions of people every day. The Dutch regularly use English words and phrases in combination with their own language or speak English continuously during their work. It is essential in various kinds of businesses and heavily used in advertising and marketing (Edwards, 2010). The growth in the use of English by Dutch people is expected to continue into the future since English is especially popular among young Dutch people, who get extensive exposure to the language through American or English music, films and television. Furthermore, English is a compulsory subject in Dutch primary education since the late 1980s (Ytsma, 2000) and is already the most important language in higher education now. Since 1989, it has been an official working language at most universities, and the proportion of fully English-taught bachelor’s and particularly master’s programs continues to rise exponentially (Edwards, 2010).

As a result, a significant part of the Dutch population speaks English competently. According to the English Proficiency Index (EPI), the Netherlands is the third best country in the world as it comes to its citizens’ proficiency of the English language. Only Sweden and Denmark score higher in this ranking. Within the Netherlands, the proficiency of males and females remains equal. This is in contrast to most other European countries, where woman were found to have a better command of the language, with an average score of 61,24 compared to the 59,94 scored by males (English Proficiency Index, 2014). Other studies have shown that 45 percent of Dutch adults rated themselves as "good" speakers of English, meaning that over 80 percent of the Netherlands' working population says to speak English competently.

The integration of English in Dutch language is also evident in marketing and advertising. Nowadays, it is not unusual anymore for Dutch brands to use English words, slogans and brand names in their (marketing)communication. This phenomenon is called code switching, which is defined as ‘the insertion of a foreign word or expression into a sentence, resulting in a mixed-language message’ by Luna et. al (2005). Luna and Peracchio (2001) state that, by presenting a key word or phrase in a second language, consumers are induced to elaborate on specific elements within an ad. Therefore, they state, code switching can prompt consumers to take particular note of the code-switched element. However, research on this topic by Gerritsen et al., (2000) showed that an important argument for the use of English in Dutch advertising appears to be a financial
one. They asked advertising agencies for their motives and concluded the agencies often prefer not to translate English slogans or sentences in Dutch commercials and advertisements because it costs money. In the study of Gerritsen et. al., (2000), participating advertising agencies indicated to find it unnecessary to spend money on translation in the Netherlands, because, like De Mooij (1994), they believe that everybody understands English anyway. Moreover, they say to believe that the use of English is beneficial for a product’s image because this would lead to associations with a young, dynamic and international life style.

Other studies on code switching in advertising focused on the amount and frequency of English in TV commercials on Dutch television. Little research has been done on the effects of the usage of English words or phrases in print advertising for Dutch brands. Due to the wide integration of English language in The Netherlands, it is valuable to examine whether including English words or phrases into Dutch advertising influences the evaluations of the brands among Dutch consumers. Insight in differences in age groups is interesting since according to Manolis (2000), no demographic characteristic is more important for consumer marketers and researchers, than age. Age, for instance, plays an integral role in determining consumer behavior, they state. Moreover, younger people tend to use English more often and are therefore expected to differ in their evaluations from older people. Furthermore, the effects of code switching on Dutch brands that are perceived national and Dutch brands that are perceived international will be compared in this study. Do the effects of Dutch – English code switching differ for (perceived) national and international brands? At first sight, using English in an ad for a typical Dutch brand may seem to be illogical, however it is increasingly common in Dutch marketing. For marketers, it would be interesting to have insight in the effects of doing so in order to use code switching in a strategic way. Therefore, answers to the following questions are needed:

**Main question:**

*What is the effect of the use of English words or phrases in ads for Dutch brands on consumers’ brand evaluation?*
Research questions:

**RQ1:** To what extent does the use of English words or phrases in an ad stimulate positive evaluations among Dutch consumers?  
*Subquestion:* Does this differ for national and international brands? Does this differ between different generations?

**RQ2:** To what extent does the use of English in Dutch advertising influence perceived product quality?  
*Subquestions:* Does this differ for national and international brands? Does this differ for different generations?

**RQ3:** To what extent does the use of English in Dutch advertising influence identification with the brand? *Subquestions:* Does this differ for national and international brands? Does this differ for different generations?

**RQ4:** Do Dutch consumers prefer Dutch, English or code switched ads for Dutch (national and international) food brands?  
*Subquestions:* Does this differ for national and international brands? Does this differ for different generations?
2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In literature, evidence for and against positive effects of using English in Dutch advertising can be found. In the year 2000, Gerritsen et. al., did research on the usage of English in Dutch TV commercials. They found that, at that time, 33% of all Dutch TV commercials contained English words or phrases. Almost half of the participants evaluated the commercials using English more negatively than the ones in which solely Dutch was used. However, younger participants seemed to evaluate the commercials with English more positive than older ones. In their study, Gerritsen et. al., (2000) found an interesting aspect that influences the positive effect of English on the evaluation. Understanding of the English language appeared to be a great determining factor. The authors therefore advised marketers to use simple, understandable English since that improves the evaluations significantly. Visual imaging of the English words was shown to improve the understanding, and therefore the evaluations, as well (Gerritsen et. al., 2000).

2.1 Adaption vs. standardization

The discussion on whether to choose an adaptive (use the local language) or standardization (use the global language English) approach to advertising is common in literature. According to Gerritsen et. al., (2010), the high frequency of English in European advertising can be seen as a consequence of the standardization approach. This approach was first defined by Onkvisit and Shaw (1987) as the use of uniform messages without modifications of heading, illustrations or body copy, except for translation. A more extreme form of standardization occurs when no translation is made in any part of the ad, which means one language (mostly English) is used in all countries. This approach is often chosen because it saves translation, adaption and registration costs (De Mooij, 1994). Moreover, it is believed that the same concept and language can be used to approach the whole world. According to some authors, standardization would provide a brand with a consistent image and identity throughout the globe.

However, supporters of the adaptive approach argue that marketers must respond to new macro environmental factors in every new country or market they enter. Factors as language, climate, race, cultures and taste are different around the world and make it necessary to adapt and create new marketing strategies for every new market (Vrontis & Thrassou, 2007).
Many researchers, however, are critical to the both mentioned extreme views and consider neither of the views to be absolutely correct (Nilvander & Hyder, 2011). When it comes to international marketing, the question has never been whether to adapt or not to adapt, but rather an issue of how much to adapt (Dow, 2006). Therefore, a contingency approach has emerged which posits that marketers should look into every situation separately and do whatever is appropriate for each specific market. That is typically a combination of standardized and adapted elements, not a choice between those two approaches. How these issues should be combined, remains as an open question that needs to be dealt with in future research (Nilvander & Hyder, 2011).

Examples of a contingency approach can be found in literature. A study from 2010 by Hornikx et. al., showed empirical support for the use of simple English in stead of the local language Dutch by an experiment in which the preference for car ads in English or a local language was examined. The researchers took the comprehension of English into account. Results showed that participants preferred English when it was easy to understand; when it was difficult to understand, English and the Dutch equivalent were appreciated equally. A contingency approach would fit best here as neither of the two extreme approaches are suitable in this specific market, but a nuanced form of standardization.

Like many studies, the study of Hornikx et. al., (2010) was limited to certain aspects. For instance, the research only focused on slogans, meaning that product names and body texts were disregarded from the research. Second, only ads for automotive advertisements were examined. These limitations were an inspiration for further research; this study will consist of an experiment in which the effects of code switching in both slogans and product names on brand evaluation for food brands will be measured. Moreover, a comparison will be made between advertisements for typical Dutch food brands and Dutch food brands with an international character, according to participants. Therefore, the experiment will consist of ads for two national and two international (Dutch) food brands.

2.2 Congruity: language – perceived nationality

Since the comparison between effects of code switching for national and international brands is central to this study, language congruity is an interesting issue. Using English words in an ad for a brand that is seen as typical Dutch seems to be
incongruent, while using English words for a brand that is perceived to be international would be not. The congruity perspective explains how congruent versus incongruent information changes consumer attitudes (Salciuviene et al., 2010). In the present study, ‘congruent’ refers to the match between the language that is used in an ad and the perceived national or international character of the brand (i.e. Dutch language used in advertising for a typical Dutch brand). ‘Incongruent’ refers to a situation in which a mismatch occurs between the language of the ad and the perceived national or international character of the brand (i.e. English language used for a brand that is perceived as typical Dutch). According to Teng et al., (2014), studies on congruity in advertising show different results. While some studies demonstrate that congruent information is more easily recognized and comprehended and encourages consumers to mentally complete their own images, other studies show that mildly incongruent information might lead to more elaboration and persuasion than completely congruent messages. A study of Meyers-Levy and Tybout (1989) for instance, showed that a moderate level of incongruity between how a product was described by text and its claimed product category schema can enhance product attitudes. They explain this by saying that when a message (somewhat) violates someone’s expectations, that person is challenged to think extensively about it which would lead to more positive attitudes. Krishna & Ahluwalia, (2008), take language expectancy into account in their study on effects of language choice in advertising and state that when a language is less expected in a particular context, the language of that message and the associations that are strongly related to it are likely to gain increased attention.

The level of language congruity in an ad might have influence on consumers’ brand evaluation or brand attitude, which is one of the emerging concepts in branding literature. In recent years, several studies have been done on brand attitude, aiming to get insight in how it can be beneficial to different organizations. The concept of attitude is very wide and used in many different contexts (Solomon, 2009). Therefore, different definitions are used. Solomon (2009) for instance, defines an attitude as “… a lasting general evaluation of people, objects, advertisements, or issues”. Banye et al., (2007), define an attitude as “an achievable, relatively permanent and at the same time purposeful, gradual, more or less intensive, and motivated consumers’ intention to react to a particular object”. These definitions show that attitudes could be held towards a particular brand or an organization, which leads us to the definition of brand attitudes. Martensen et al., (2007) define this concept as “a consumers’ overall evaluation of a
brand”. This attitude could be positive or negative, last for a long time and could be changed if people gain new experiences (Solomon, 2009). Despite of few differences in definitions from different authors, all authors agree that attitude is achieved. People are born without attitudes since it is a result of direct or indirect experiences such as usage of a product or marketing communication.

Furthermore, it is believed that brands serve a symbolic meaning to consumers, who use them to identify and differentiate themselves (Ghorban, 2012). It should be clear that consumers not only purchase a brand because of its utilitarian characteristics but also because of its particular symbolic meaning (Cotte & Ligas, 1999, Auty & Elliott, 2001). Sirgy, (1982) argues that in many cases, the motivation to express their own self is the driving force for consumers to purchase goods and services. Baek, et. al., (2010) confirm this with their research on the effects of the hedonic and social aspects of brands (i.e., brand prestige). They found that when buying high self-expressive products such as clothing, the prestige of a brand is a great determining factor because consumers can ‘show off’ with it. Brand symbolism includes a broad spectrum of feelings that consumers experience when purchasing and using a brand, such as arousal, excitement, or pleasure (O’Cass & Frost, 2002). In short, brand symbolism is what the brand means to consumers and the statement they want to make by using or buying it. Therefore, marketers spend millions on creating and maintaining brand images that are consistent with the symbolic meaning of brands, and also with consumers’ self images as the effectiveness of brand symbolism depends on the congruence between a brand’s perceived image and the consumer’s self-concept, which is called self-congruence (Zinkhan and Hong 1991). Rosenberg (1979) defined self-concept as ‘the totality of an individuals feelings having reference to himself as an object’. The term refers to an individuals’ subjective thoughts toward himself, which makes it a unique type of attitude since it is an image shaped by the person holding the image (Zinkhan and Hong, 1991).

According to the self-congruity theory of Sirgy (1985), people select, purchase and use goods and services that have a user-image that is consistent with their own self-image. In this way, consumers reinforce their own view of themselves as a person, i.e. their self-concept. Therefore, self-congruence is closely related to brand identification and taken into consideration in this study. On the basis of the self-congruity effect, there might be differences in identification with and evaluations of brands that use English in this study.
between people who use English extensively because that fits their self-image and people who do not use English to express themselves.

Besides the view of themselves, brands also help to convey a particular image to other people (Albert & Merunka, 2013). According to Aaker (1997), the self-congruity effect largely determines the success of brands since a match between brand personalities and the target groups’ self-concept often results in favorable consumer responses such as positive brand attitudes and purchase intentions. Generally, the greater the congruence between the brand image and the self-concept, the more a brand will be loved and preferred. Furthermore, the greater the self-congruence, the greater the likelihood of persuasion will occur (Johar & Sirgy, 1991).

2.3 The role of language in brand symbolism
The symbolic meaning of a brand is created by all aspects of the brand. The language that is used in advertising for instance, is often chosen because it represents certain values. Luna and Peracchio (2001) argue code switching to be effective in order to activate schemas from another language, resulting in influence on attitudes toward a brand. The Theory of foreign-language display (FLD) argues that an advertising language is most often not used by marketers for the literal content, but rather for the associations it evokes (Haarmann, 1989, Kelly-Holmes, 2005). Hornikx and van Meurs (2013), take Audi as an example in their article. In case of the slogan “Vorsprung durch Technik”, it is the fact that the German language is used that matters, more than the literal meaning of the slogan. The target group is not expected to actually understand the German language, though it is important they recognize the language that is used as German. It is the associations that make this language effective. Germany is often associated with quality and virtue and marketers use the German language to transfer these values to the ad and the brand Audi. Other German car brands do the same, like Volkswagen with “Das Auto” and Opel with “Wir leben auto’s.” Haarmann (1989) found that foreign-language display depends on the type of product that is advertised. In his study, French turned out to be popular for luxury products like watches and perfume in particular.

Thus, specific languages are, among other reasons, used to emphasize the country of origin of products. By doing so, marketers often aim to influence the perceived product quality, which not only affects the purchase intention of the consumer but also affects the market share, brand profitability, brand power and brand equity (Aaker & Jacobson, 1994). Therefore, perceived product quality is a dependent variable in this study.
2.4 Language as a cue for product quality

Various definitions of the concept of perceived quality can be found in literature. As Zeithaml (1988) stated, perceived quality is "the consumer's judgment about a product's overall excellence or superiority." Zeithaml (1988) argues that perceived quality is (1) different from objective or actual quality, (2) a higher level abstraction rather than a specific attribute of a product, (3) a global assessment that in some cases resembles attitude, and (4) a judgment usually made within a consumer's evoked set. Similarly, Aaker's (1991) definition is "the customer's perception of the overall quality or superiority of the product or service with respect to its intended purpose, relative to alternatives." Despite of the different definitions from different authors, all definitions have a shared common essence, that is; perceived product quality is the consumer's perception of overall components of a product, including both tangible and intangible characteristics. It may also include performance, features, reliability, conformance, durability, serviceability, and aesthetics (Vantamay, 2007). In his article, Vantamay (2007), mentions two different cues affecting perceived (product) quality; intrinsic cues and extrinsic cues. Intrinsic cues include physical characteristics of the product such as size, color or flavor. Intrinsic marketing cues refer in fact to attributes that can not be changed or manipulated without also changing the physical characteristics of the product itself (Vantamay, 2007). In some cases, consumers use these physical characteristics to judge product quality (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

However, in many situations, consumers are not able to use intrinsic cues in their decision making process because they cannot see, touch or taste the actual product. That is why consumers often evaluate quality on the basis of extrinsic cues that are external to the product, such as price, brand image, manufacturer's image, retail store image, and even the country of origin (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Lin and Kao (2004) found that perceived product quality may be influenced by distribution channels, brand image, country of origin, price, and certificates. Besides, Thakor and Katsanis (1997) found the extrinsic cues that affect perceived quality are price, warranty, advertising, market share, and the country of origin. Apparently, country of origin may serve as an important cue for consumers to evaluate the quality of a product.

This finding raises the question what effect the language that is used in advertising has on the perceived quality of a product. Since consumers commonly have country stereotyping, which means a more positive perception of merchandises from developed countries than their lesser developed counterparts (Wang & Lamb, 1983), the modern,
progressive English language could be a cue for quality for Dutch consumers, even though The Netherlands is a well developed nation as well. Since English has been found to evoke associations with modernity (Gerritsen et. al., 2007), the integration of this language into a marketing message may have influence on the perceived quality of the product.

2.5 Symbolic associations

The relationship between foreign-language display and the products that are advertised is also acknowledged by other researchers. Domzal et. al., (1995, 108), for instance, state that consumers "associate languages with the national characters and traditional products of the countries they represent." Kelly-Holmes (2000) gives more examples of what is called “language fetish in intercultural advertising”. A commercial on German television for Dutch cheese states ‘Kaas, nicht nur Käse’ which means ‘not just cheese, but Kaas’. Here, the Dutch word Kaas has become fetished with the symbolic associations and cultural competence of the Dutch. Kaas itself has become a brand name that is superior to simple cheese, which does not have that same cultural credibility. In advertisements for French wine, the French vin de pays is used as a cue for top quality. The French language ‘guarantees’ quality in this case. Besides, the French language has also become a symbol for femininity, fashion and beauty in intercultural advertising communication (Kelly-Holmes, 2000). In an advertisement for Chanel lipstick for instance, the ‘Frenchness’ of the brand is stressed by using the French term ‘rouge à lèvres’. IKEA is another example of a brand that successfully uses language fetishism by emphasizing the origin of their products by using Swedish product names for furniture products as well as in the restaurant.

The symbolic associations evoked by languages lead us back to language congruity. Since in order to be effective, the associations evoked by foreign-language display should match the relevant characteristics of the product that is advertised (Domzal et al., 1995; Kelly-Holmes 2000, 2005). Kelly-Holmes (2005) illustrates this by taking Audi as an example again and compare it with Nivea. Both brands are German, but only Audi uses the German language in advertising in non-German-speaking markets, since the associations that are evoked by the language are relevant for cars and thus for the brand Audi. For Nivea, on the other hand, associations that are evoked by the German language are significantly less relevant. A meaningful match between the brand and its products and the characteristics of German language is missing here. Therefore, Nivea does not use German language in (international) advertising.
Although English, even as French or German, may also be used to activate certain associations, according to Piller (2003) and Kelly-Holmes (2005), the English language differs from other foreign languages in this respect. They state that foreign languages other than English are used in advertising to evoke associations with an ethno-cultural stereotype such as ‘the decent German’ or ‘the elegant French’. While English, in turn, is used by marketers to form associations with a specific social stereotype; modernity (Gerritsen et. al., 2007). The study of Gerritsen et. al., (2007) shows that English is barely used to form associations with speakers of the English language such as the British or the Americans, but rather for its modern, progressive image. Marketers use this image of English language to transfer it to the product and brand. They aim to create advertisements that evoke a certain feeling, influencing the attitude towards the advertisement and the brand.

### 2.6 Identification through language

A proven technique to enhance positive evaluations and thus the efficiency of an advertisement is to create identification with the advertised message and the brand. Like self-congruence, identification has been found to stimulate positive attitudes towards the product and the brand that is advertised (van Gijsel et. al., 2007). Therefore, identification with the brand is a dependent variable in this study. According to Fauconnier and Van der Meiden (1993), a number of cultural and social factors play a role in this process of identification in advertising. They found that an important factor is the language that is used, for instance an advertising corpus that provides highly trend-sensitive linguistic material, reflecting linguistic trends and attitudes in society that people recognize and identify with.

Mixing English into Dutch language can be seen as such a current, ongoing linguistic trend in The Netherlands. The integration of English in the every day lives of – especially young - Dutch consumers has increased significantly in recent years, particularly since Internet became such a huge part of that every day life. Words as ‘browser’ and ‘spam’ are common in Dutch language now. The Dutch ‘check their e-mail’ rather than ‘controleren hun elektronische post’, as the Dutch translation would be. In Dutch job vacancies, potential candidates for the role of ‘general manager’ are asked for ‘knowhow’ on a certain topic. On Friday nights, youngsters are ‘chilling’ and ‘gaming’ with their friends, ‘pop-up stores’ can be found in every city and after a long day of ‘shopping’, an ‘high-tea’ with ‘cupcakes’ and ‘bagels’ is waiting for them.
Following the earlier mentioned definition of code switching by Luna et al., (2005), ‘the insertion of a foreign word or expression into a sentence, resulting in a mixed-language message’, the abovementioned situations would be examples of code switching. However, like some other authors, Boztepe (2005), emphasizes the distinction between code switching and (lexical) borrowing. In the example above, the single English nouns are perfectly integrated into Dutch grammar, which actually makes them ‘less-English’. Often, the Dutch add the infinitive –en to a verb. For instance to the word shop: as they say they go ‘shoppen’. Although there are Dutch equivalents, people often choose to use the English word. Such words are borrowed from English and made Dutch, which, according to Boztepe (2005), makes it borrowing in stead of code switching. In some cases, no Dutch equivalent is available. For instance when new concepts are introduced, including the words that are used for them. This is especially the case with English terms that are associated with technology, like ‘computer’ and ‘browser’. The Dutch language simply did not have the words for these new concepts.

Myers-Scotton (1992) argues that a categorical distinction between code switching and borrowing does not have to be made, as she sees them as universally related processes and argues that both concepts are part of a single continuum. She proposes frequency as the best criterion to distinguish the two concepts, in which higher frequency of a (foreign) word in a language is more inclined to be borrowing (Boztepe, 2005).

However, to our understanding, an important difference between code switching and borrowing has to do with awareness and purpose. In the case of borrowing, loan words are used unconsciously and without intent. Sometimes because simply no equivalent is available in one’s own language or sometimes because people might be not aware that the words they use are borrowed, like the French ‘garage’ in both Dutch and English. In the case of code switching, a second language is used more purposefully. Especially in marketing communication, a second language is used because of certain values it evokes, which makes it code switching and not just borrowing. This is in line with the notion of Luna and Peracchio (2001) that, by presenting a key word or phrase in a second language, consumers are induced to elaborate on specific elements within an ad and therefore, code switching can prompt consumers to take particular note of the code-switched element.
Due to the wide integration of English language in The Netherlands, it is interesting to examine whether Dutch consumers evaluate multilingual advertising in which a Dutch – English code switched message is present more positively. Furthermore, insight in differences in age groups and effects for (perceived) international and national brands are valuable to the field of marketing communication.

2.4 VARIABLES AND HYPOTHESES

In this study, the effects of using English, Dutch or a mix of both languages in ads for Dutch brands on consumer’s brand evaluation are examined. In order to do so, four relevant dependent variables are taken into account: attitude toward the ad, perceived product quality, identification with the brand and language preference.

Furthermore, two dependent variables are included; age and the perceived national vs. international character of the brand. Since according to Manolis (2000), no demographic characteristic is more important for consumer marketers and researchers than age, two different generations are taken into consideration in this research: Millennials (below 30) and Babyboomers (above 50). Furthermore, the effects of code switching on Dutch brands that are perceived national and Dutch brands that are perceived international are compared.

2.4.1 Attitude toward the ad

Brand attitude was defined as “a consumers’ overall evaluation of a brand” by Martensen et. al., (2007) and is therefore believed to be an important indicator for consumers’ evaluations of the brands that are examined in this study. Based on literature, it is expected that moderate levels of language congruity lead to more positive evaluations of the ad and the brand than high or low language congruity. A moderate level of language congruity slightly violates someone’s expectations, which might lead to more positive evaluations. In case of national brands, English is the ‘incongruent’ factor, while in case of international brands, Dutch is considered to be the ‘incongruent’ factor. Therefore, a mix of both languages would mean a moderate level of language congruity for both national and international brands. Based on literature on brand attitude and language congruity, it is expected that:

H1: Mixing English and Dutch language in ads will lead to more positive evaluations of the ad than when only Dutch or English is used.
Furthermore, an interaction effect of language x age on attitude toward the ad is expected:

**H2:** Language x age on attitude toward the ad: Younger participants evaluate ads in which English words or phrases are used more positively than older participants.

### 2.4.2 Perceived product quality
As stated earlier, English has been found to evoke associations with modernity (Gerritsen et. al., 2007), and the integration of this language into a marketing message may have influence on the perceived quality of the product. Therefore, perceived quality will be measured in this study and the following is expected:

**H3:** The use of English language in advertising leads to higher levels of perceived product quality than the use of only Dutch language.

### 2.4.3 Identification with the brand
Creating identification with the brand is a proven technique to enhance positive evaluations and thus the efficiency of an advertisement. Based on literature on identification and the self-congruity effect it is expected that especially younger consumers tend to react more positively to Dutch – English code switching in advertising, since they identify more with the English language as they use English words regularly to express themselves in their daily lives. The presence of English words or phrases in (Dutch) advertising would attract them more than older generations or people who rarely use English. Therefore, levels of self-congruity and identification are expected to be higher in this group of the young Dutch, leading to more positive evaluations of the brand. In this study, based on the self-congruity theory, it is expected that younger people, who choose to use English more often to express themselves, identify more with the ads and evaluate ads in which English is used more positively than older people, who use English on a less frequent basis. Since age and language are expected to play a significant role in identification, no main effects are expected for identification with the brand. The following interaction effect of language x age on identification with the brand is expected:

**H4:** Language x age on identification with the brand: Younger participants identify more with ads in which English is used than older participants.
2.4.4 Language preference

Language preference is measured in order to examine whether participants prefer Dutch, English or a mix of both languages in the advertisements that are used in this study. Since it is expected that younger people, who choose to use English more often to express themselves, identify more with the ads and evaluate ads in which English is used more positively than older people, the following is expected with regard to language preference:

**H5:** English language is preferred more often by younger participants than by older participants.
3 METHODOLOGY

The research questions that are aimed to be answered in this research demand a quantitative research method. Since the measuring of attitudes is involved, the use of an (online) survey is a suitable method of research. In this section, the procedure, materials, hypotheses, measures and respondents used in this study are discussed.

3.1 PRETEST

In the main study, a distinction will be made between Dutch consumer (food) brands that are perceived typical Dutch by the target group and brands with a more international character. To ensure the right brands are chosen for both categories in the study, a pretest was conducted in which 42 participants rated a list of Dutch brands on their perceived (inter)nationality. A 7 point semantic differential scale was used, in which ‘1’ represents national and ‘7’ represents international. The two brands with the highest scores on ‘national’ and the two brands with the highest scores on ‘international’ are included in the experiment. Those brands are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National</th>
<th>International</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bolletje: M = 1.59</td>
<td>Heineken: M = 5.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unox: M = 1.71</td>
<td>Ola: M = 5.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 PROCEDURE AND DESIGN

The main study will consist of an experiment with a 3 (language: Dutch, mix, English) x 4 (2 national vs. 2 international brands) x 2 (age: young and old) between subject design. Participants will be asked to fill out an online questionnaire in which they get to see either a Dutch, code switched or English ad for each of the four brands. The language of slogans and product names was manipulated. Stimulus material can be found in figure 1, 2 and 3. Participants were assigned randomly to the Dutch, mixed or English version. Before they were confronted to each of the four ads, participants were asked for their age, gender and level of education. At the end of the questionnaire, participants were asked in what language the ads they have seen were presented: Dutch, English or a mix. They also were asked for their proficiency and frequency of the use of English language. Participants’ proficiency of English was measured by questions on the frequency of their use of the language. Subsequently, they get to see an English, Dutch and mixed version of all four ads and are asked for their preference for a language per brand.
Dependent variables that were measured in this experiment are attitude toward to ad, perceived quality of the product, identification with the brand and language preference. **Independent variables** are the language, perceived national vs. international character of the brand and the age of participants.

### 3.3 STIMULUS MATERIAL

For this study, original Dutch advertisements for Bolletje, Heineken, Unox and Ola were used and adapted by adding English to slogans and/or product names. For each brand, besides the existing Dutch version, a mixed and English version of the ad was created using Photoshop to manipulate the language. For Heineken, the mixed version was the original one that was used by the brand in The Netherlands.

![Stimulus material Dutch version](image-url)
Figure 2. Stimulus material mixed version
Figure 3. Stimulus material English version
3.4 MEASURES

There are various kinds of rating scales that have been developed to measure attitudes directly, which means that the participants are aware of the fact that their attitudes are being examined. The most widely used scale is the Likert Scale. Likert (1932) developed the principle of measuring attitudes by asking people to respond to a series of statements about a topic, in terms of the extent to which they agree with them, and so tapping into the cognitive and affective components of attitudes. These ordinal scales measure levels of agreement/disagreement.

A Likert scale was used to measure brand identification and attitude toward the ad. Statements that were asked to be answered in this research using a Likert scale are for example: “I feel connected to this brand” and “This ad is attractive to me”. The scale for measuring brand identification consists of four items and was partly derived from Algesheimer, Dholakia, and Herrmann (2005). One item was added to the original scale, in order to increase reliability by using at least four items per scale. Reliability of this scale was measured using Cronbach’s Alpha. Like most scales used in this research, the scale for measuring brand identification was found to be very reliable with $\alpha = 0.91$. The six item scale for measuring attitude toward the ad was completely derived from De Pelsmacker, Geuens and Anckaert (2002) and was ‘satisfying’ with a score of $\alpha = 0.72$.

Another scale that was used in this research is the semantic differential technique of Osgood et al. (1957). Using this scale, participants are asked to rate an issue or topic on a standard set of bipolar adjectives (i.e. with opposite meanings), each representing a seven point scale (McLeod, 2009).

The semantic differential technique was used to measure the perceived product quality. Questions that were asked using this research method are for example: “This product is of low quality” vs. “This product is of high quality”. The scale for measuring product quality consists of four items and was partly derived from Sprott and Shimp (2004). One item was added to the original scale, in order to increase reliability by using at least four items. This scale was found to be very reliable with $\alpha = 0.92$. 
Table 1: Reliability analysis of constructs α

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>N items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brand identification</td>
<td>α = 0.91</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward ad</td>
<td>α = 0.72</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived product quality</td>
<td>α = 0.92</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5 RESPONDENTS

A total of 289 respondents started the online survey, that was created using Qualtrics. Out of these 289 surveys, 84 surveys were excluded from this research because of incomplete or insufficient data. For instance, data of participants who did not fit in one of the two age groups (below 30 or above 50) was excluded, even as data derived from surveys that took less than 4 minutes to be completed. This strict selection of data led to a valuable sample of 205 respondents, completely useful for statistical analyses in SPSS 22. Respondents were assigned randomly to one of the three conditions. After excluding incomplete data from the sample, the distribution of respondents among the three versions was: Dutch: N = 70, Mix: N = 74, English: N = 61.

Gender

The sample consisted of 88 men and 117 women. The distribution of men and women was not totally equal, but sufficient in all conditions. No significant differences in frequencies between groups were found ($\chi^2 (2, N = 205) = 3.89, p = .14$).

Age

In this study, generation Y (or Millennials) were compared to the generation of Babyboomers. Therefore, two age groups are distinguished: younger (below 30) and older (above 50). The group of younger participants consist of 113 respondents, the group of older participants consist of 92 respondents. The distribution of both age groups was not totally equal, but sufficient in all conditions. In order to be reliable, each of the six groups should consist of at least 25 respondents. No significant differences in frequencies between groups were found ($\chi^2 (2, N = 205) = 0.55, p = .75$).
Level of education

The level of education was approximately equal in all conditions. Higher education (HBO or University) applies to a vast majority of 83.9%. No significant differences in frequencies between groups were found ($\chi^2 (10, N = 205) = 9.62, p = .47$).

Use of English

A vast majority of 76.6% of all respondents indicated to use English on a daily or weekly basis and 69.3% rated their own proficiency of the language as ‘reasonable’ or ‘good’. 20.5% said to have ‘very good’ proficiency. Only 13.7% said to rarely use English. The distribution of frequency of the use of English and proficiency of the language was approximately equal. No significant differences in frequencies between groups were found ($\chi^2 (8, N = 205) = 5.03, p = .75$).

| Table 2: Distribution of gender, age, level of education and frequency of use of English |
|----------------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **Gender**                            | **Dutch**   | **Mix**   | **English**    | **Total** |
| Men                                   | 36 (51.4%) | 31 (41.9%) | 21 (34.6%)    | 88         |
| Women                                 | 34 (48.6%) | 43 (48.1%) | 40 (65.6%)    | 117        |
| **Chi-square**                         |              |             |                | $p = .14$   |
| **Age**                                |              |             |                |             |
| Younger                                | 37 (52.9%) | 40 (54.1%) | 36 (59%)      | 113        |
| Older                                  | 33 (47.1%) | 34 (45.9%) | 25 (41%)      | 92         |
| **Chi-square**                         |              |             |                | $p = .75$   |
| **Education**                          |              |             |                |             |
| MAVO                                   | 0 (0.0%)    | 1 (1.4%)   | 1 (1.6%)      | 2          |
| HAVO                                   | 2 (2.9%)    | 2 (2.7%)   | 1 (1.6%)      | 5          |
| VWO                                    | 3 (4.3%)    | 0 (0.0%)   | 1 (1.6%)      | 4          |
| MBO                                    | 7 (10.0%)   | 12 (16.2%) | 3 (4.9%)      | 22         |
| HBO                                    | 39 (55.7%)  | 37 (50.0%) | 34 (55.7%)    | 110        |
| WO                                     | 19 (27.1%)  | 22 (29.7%) | 21 (34.4%)    | 62         |
| **Chi-square**                         |              |             |                | $p = .47$   |
| **Use of English**                     |              |             |                |             |
| Daily                                  | 37 (52.9%)  | 36 (38.6%)  | 27 (44.3%)    | 100        |
| Weekly                                 | 18 (25.7%)  | 20 (27.0%)  | 19 (31.1%)    | 57         |
| Once/month                             | 4 (5.7%)    | 7 (9.5%)   | 8 (13.1%)     | 19         |
| Rarely                                 | 10 (14.3%)  | 11 (14.9%)  | 7 (11.5%)     | 28         |
| Never                                  | 1 (1.4%)    | 0 (0.0%)   | 0 (0.0%)      | 1          |
| **Total**                              | 70           | 74          | 61            | 205        |
4 RESULTS

In this section, the results of the in-depth analyses of the obtained data is presented. A Univariate Analysis of Variance was used for each brand separately to determine relationships between dependent and independent variables. With this analysis, both main effects and interaction effects are shown. If a main effect was found in this analysis, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to see post hoc results of differences between groups.

Main- and interaction effects will be presented per dependent variable in the following section.

4.1 RESULTS ATTITUDE TOWARD THE AD

For each brand separately, a Univariate Analysis of Variance was performed to determine the relationship between the dependent variable attitude toward the ad and the independent variables language and age.

Table 3: Mean scores and standard deviations of attitude toward the ad by language and age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bolletje</th>
<th>Unox</th>
<th>Heineken</th>
<th>Ola</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>National brands</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>M SD</td>
<td>M SD</td>
<td>M SD</td>
<td>M SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>3.21 0.60</td>
<td>2.90 0.66</td>
<td>3.25 0.68</td>
<td>3.06 0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>3.28 0.54</td>
<td>2.96 0.64</td>
<td>3.15 0.82</td>
<td>3.08 0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>3.20 0.67</td>
<td>2.79 0.69</td>
<td>3.02 0.65</td>
<td>3.22 0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>International brands</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td>p=ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>3.25 0.68</td>
<td>3.06 0.70</td>
<td>3.25 0.68</td>
<td>3.06 0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>3.28 0.54</td>
<td>2.96 0.64</td>
<td>3.15 0.82</td>
<td>3.08 0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>3.20 0.67</td>
<td>2.79 0.69</td>
<td>3.02 0.65</td>
<td>3.22 0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>p=</td>
<td>p=</td>
<td>p=</td>
<td>p=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older</td>
<td>3.43 0.54</td>
<td>3.05 0.67</td>
<td>3.36 0.63</td>
<td>3.39 0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.98 0.58</td>
<td>2.69 0.68</td>
<td>2.88 0.75</td>
<td>2.78 0.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4: Mean scores and standard deviations of attitude toward the ad by language and age combined

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interaction</th>
<th>Bolletje M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Unox M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Heineken M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Ola M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Dutch</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Dutch</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1.1 Language

For all of the four brands, no significant effect of language on attitude toward the ad was found. Therefore, H1: Mixing English and Dutch language leads to more positive evaluations toward the ad than when only Dutch or English is used, was rejected. The language that is used in an ad did not have a significant influence on the evaluations of the ads.

Bolletje: F (2, 202) = .34, p = ns
Unox: F (2, 202) = .51, p = ns
Heineken: F (2, 202) = 1.60, p = ns
Ola: F (2, 202) = .51, p = ns

4.1.2 Age

For all four brands, a significant main effect of age on the attitude toward the ad was found using a Univariate Analysis of Variance. These effects shows that in this study, regardless of brand, younger participants have more positive attitudes toward all ads than older participants. When looking at effect sizes, this effect is the smallest for Heineken ($\eta^2 = .11$) and the biggest for Unox ($\eta^2 = .66$). Therefore, the interaction effect H2: Younger participants evaluate ads in which English words or phrases are used more positively than older participants, was rejected. However, a main effect was found for age on attitude
toward the ad, since younger participants were found to evaluate all ads more positively than older participants.

Bolletje: $F (1, 203) = 32.86, p = .001, \eta^2 = .13.$

Unox: $F (1, 203) = 14.25, p = .001, \eta^2 = .66$

Heineken: $F (1, 203) = 24.97, p = .001, \eta^2 = .11.$

Ola: $F (1, 203) = 40.17, p = .001, \eta^2 = .16$

No interaction effects were found for attitude toward the ad.
4.2 RESULTS PERCEIVED QUALITY OF THE PRODUCT
As with attitude toward the ad, the effects of language and age on perceived product quality were tested by performing a Univariate Analysis of Variance. Again, this was done for each brand separately.

Table 5: Mean scores and standard deviations of perceived product quality by language and age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Bolletje M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Unox M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Heineken M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Ola M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National brands</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>1.24</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>4.52</td>
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<td>4.14</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International brands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td></td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td></td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td></td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6: Mean scores and standard deviations of perceived product quality by language and age combined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interaction</th>
<th>Bolletje M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Unox M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Heineken M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Ola M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young Dutch</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>37</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>4.78</td>
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<td>4.48</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older Dutch</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.2.1. Language**

In contrast to what was expected, no significant effects were found for language on perceived product quality. This means H3: The use of English language leads to higher levels of perceived product quality than when only Dutch is used, was rejected.

Bolletje: $F = (2, 202) = 1.37$, $p = \text{ns}$

Unox: $F = (2, 202) = 0.05$, $p = \text{ns}$

Heineken: $F = (2, 202) = .56$, $p = \text{ns}$

Ola: $F = (2, 202) = .91$, $p = \text{ns}$

**4.2.2. Age**

Although no main effect of age on perceived product quality was expected, significant effects with small effect sizes were found for Heineken, Ola and Unox. These results show that in case of Heineken, Ola and Unox, younger participants expect the quality of the product to be slightly higher than older participants.

Bolletje: $F = (1, 203) = .05$, $p = \text{ns}$

Unox: $F = (1, 203) = 5.10$, $p = .025$, $\eta^2 = .02$.

Heineken: $F = (1, 203) = 7.21$, $p = .008$, $\eta^2 = .03$.

Ola: $F = (1, 203) = 10.76$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .05$.

No interaction effects were found for perceived quality of the product.
### 4.3 RESULTS IDENTIFICATION WITH THE BRAND

The effects of language and age on the third dependent variable, identification with the brand, were also tested by performing a Univariate Analysis of Variance. This was done for each brand separately.

Table 7: Mean scores and standard deviations of identification with the brand by language and age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Bolletje M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Unox M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Heineken M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Ola M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National brands</td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td>p=.017</td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International brands</td>
<td>p=ns</td>
<td>p=.025</td>
<td>p=.008</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.1. Language

For Bolletje, (F (2, 202) = .13, p = ns), Ola (F (2, 202) = .24, p = ns) and Unox (F (2, 202) = 1.78, p = ns), no significant effects of language on identification were found. However, a One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) showed a significant main effect of language on the identification for Heineken (F (2, 202) = 4.13, p = .017) with a moderate effect size of $\eta^2 = .09$. A post hoc analysis (Bonferroni) revealed that participants who were exposed to the Dutch version of the ad for Heineken ($M = 2.58, SD = 0.80$) identified more with the brand than those who were exposed to the English version of the ad ($M = 2.15, SD = 0.86$).

4.3.2. Age

Significant main effects were found for age on identification with the brand. These effects implicate that younger participants said to identify more with all brands than older participants. The biggest effect was found for Ola, with an effect size of $\eta^2 = .08$.

Bolletje: $F = (1, 203) = 4.10, p = .044, \eta^2 = .02$
Unox: $F = (1, 203) = 10.70, p = .001, \eta^2 = .05$

Heineken: $F = (1, 203) = 12.73, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .05$
Ola: $F = (1, 203) = 19.80, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .08$

No interaction effects were found for identification with the brand.
### 4.3.3. Other measures: frequency of use of English

To test whether the frequency of use of English had influence on the identification with the brand, a Univariate Analysis of Variance was conducted.

Table 9: Mean scores and standard deviations of identification with the brand by frequency of use of English language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of English</th>
<th>Bolletje</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Unox</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Heineken</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Ola</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National brands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>205</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International brands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results show a significant effect for Heineken (F = (4, 200) = 2.57, p =< .039, \(\eta^2 = .04\)).

Bolletje: F = (4, 200) = 0.47, p = ns
Unox: F = (4, 200) = 1.17, p = ns
Heineken: F = (4, 200) = 2.57, p =< .039, \(\eta^2 = .04\)).
Ola: F = (4, 200) = 1.01, p = ns

These findings correspondent with the findings for identification by younger people, since a Chi-square test revealed a relation between age and the frequency of use of English language (\(\chi^2 (4, N = 205) = 19.87, p =.001\)). Younger people in this study use English more often than older people.
Interaction: Language x age

To test whether an interaction effect of language x age on identification with the brand occurs, a Univariate Analysis of Variance was conducted. No significant results were found for all four brands. Therefore, H4: Younger participants identify more with ads in which English language is used than older participants, was rejected. However, as presented in 4.3.2, a main effect of age on identification with the brand was found, since younger participants identify more with all ads than older participants.

4.4 RESULTS OF LANGUAGE PREFERENCE

At the end of the survey, a Dutch, mixed and English version of the ads for all four brands were shown and participants were asked for their preference for one of the language versions for each brand. This fourth dependent variable was measured using crosstabs with Chi-square calculations. These non-parametric tests showed an overall preference for the Dutch language for all four brands, with scores for Bolletje: $\chi^2 (2, N = 205) = 187.67, p = <.001$, Heineken: $\chi^2 (2, N = 205) = 61.82, p = <.001$, Ola: $\chi^2 (2, N = 205) = 85.73, p = <.001$ and Unox: $\chi^2 (2, N = 205) = 110.08, p = <.001$.

Table 10: Frequencies of preferred language per brand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N Bolletje</th>
<th>N Unox</th>
<th>N Heineken</th>
<th>N Ola</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National brands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specific results per independent variable are presented below.

4.4.1. Language

In order to test whether the version (NL, mix or ENG) of the survey someone was exposed to had influence on the preferred language of the ads, a Chi-square test was conducted for each brand. These tests revealed that the language in the survey did have some effect on the preferred language in the ads, however Dutch is still preferred most for all four brands. Chi-square scores per brand: Bolletje: $\chi^2 (4, N = 205) = 13.49, p = <.001$, Heineken: $\chi^2 (4, N = 205) = 14.01, p = <.001$, Ola: $\chi^2 (4, N = 205) = 15.59, p = <.001$ and Unox: $\chi^2 (4, N = 205) = 14.89, p = <.001$. 
When looking at the national brand Bolletje for instance (figure 4), the version of the survey had the least influence as 91.4% of all people who where exposed to the Dutch version of the survey chose Dutch as their preferred language, even as 74.3% and 67% of all people who got to see the mixed and English version respectively. When looking at the national brand Unox (figure 5), a similar, slightly less strong pattern is found as 80.0% of the people who saw the Dutch version, 58.1% of the people who saw the mixed version and 55.7% of people who saw the English version said to prefer Dutch for the Unox ad. At the same time, a mixed version was preferred by 39.2% of those who saw the mixed version of the Unox ad. For Bolletje, only 18.9% of those who saw the mixed version, chose a mix of Dutch and English as their preferred language.

For the international brand Ola (figure 7), Dutch is still preferred by the majority, however 28.4% of those who saw the mixed version, preferred a mix of Dutch and English. Moreover, 27.9% of those who saw the English version of the survey, said to prefer English in an ad for Ola. For Heineken (figure 6), a majority of 58.5% of all participants preferred Dutch while 25.9% preferred English. This was mainly due to the fact that a significant part of those who saw the English version of the Heineken ad (42.6%), said to prefer English. This means that only 15.6% prefers the code switched message as it is presented in the actual advertisement used by Heineken.

Based on these results, it can be concluded that Dutch is by far the most preferred language for ads of all four brands. However, the version of the survey had some influence on the language preference.
Figure 4. Preferred language ads national brand Bolletje

Figure 5. Preferred language ads national brand Unox
4.4.2. Age

Chi-square tests showed that in case of international brands, younger participants said to prefer ads in which English language is used significantly more often than older participants. Therefore, H5: English language is preferred more often by younger participants than by older participants, is partly accepted since this is only the case with international brands Heineken ($\chi^2 (2, N = 205) = 8.17, p = .01$), and Ola ($\chi^2 (2, N = 205) = 7.02, p = .03$). For national brands, no significant results were found (Bolletje: $\chi^2 (2, N = 205) = 2.77, p = ns$, Unox: $\chi^2 (2, N = 205) = 0.54, p = ns$). This means an interaction effect of age x national vs. international character of the brand on language preference has been found.
4.4.3. Other measures

Frequency of the use of English, gender, and level of education did not have a significant influence on the language preference.

4.5 AWARENESS OF LANGUAGE USE

Participants were randomly assigned to one of the three versions of the survey. After answering questions about attitude, identification and product quality about either Dutch, mixed or English advertisements of all four brands, participants were asked in what language the ads they have seen were shown. This question was asked before their preference for one specific language. Descriptive statistics show the awareness of the language that is used in the survey’s ads is low. 103 of the 205 participants gave the wrong answer on the question which language was used in the ads they had seen in the survey. No differences were found in the amount of right answers between different levels of education, the frequency of use of English, age and gender. The distribution of right and wrong answers is approximately equal in all situations.

As shown in figure 8, the amount of right answers differs between groups and strongly depends on the version of the survey. Remarkable is the extremely high frequency of wrong answers among participants that have been shown the mixed version of the survey. Among those participants, only one gave the right answer to the question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Bolletje</th>
<th>Unox</th>
<th>Heineken</th>
<th>Ola</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young</td>
<td>68 (76,1%)</td>
<td>73 (64,6%)</td>
<td>58 (51,3%)</td>
<td>62 (54,9 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>22 (19,5%)</td>
<td>35 (31%)</td>
<td>17 (15%)</td>
<td>34 (30,1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>5 (4,4%)</td>
<td>5 (4,4%)</td>
<td>38 (33,6%)</td>
<td>17 (15 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older</td>
<td>74 (80,4%)</td>
<td>60 (65,2%)</td>
<td>62 (67,4%)</td>
<td>67 (72,8 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>11 (12%)</td>
<td>26 (28,3%)</td>
<td>15 (16,3%)</td>
<td>17 (18,5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>7 (7,6%)</td>
<td>6 (6,5%)</td>
<td>15 (16,3%)</td>
<td>8 (8,7 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
‘which language was used in the ads you have seen?’ Out of 74 participants in the mixed version, 47 (63.5%) answered ‘English’. 26 participants (35%) answered ‘Dutch’, meaning they did not mention the English words in the text. The most right answers (84.3%) were given by participants who have been assigned to the Dutch version.

Figure 8. Distribution of the amount of right and wrong answers to ‘which language was used in the ads you have seen?’ per language.

Table 12: Overview of hypotheses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Accepted?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1: Mixing English and Dutch language leads to more positive evaluations toward the ad than when only Dutch or English is used.</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: Interaction: age x language on attitude toward the ad. Younger participants evaluate ads in which English words or phrases are used more positively than older participants</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: The use of English language leads to higher levels of perceived product quality than when only Dutch is used.</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4: Interaction: age x language on identification. Younger participants identify more with ads in which English is used than older participants.</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5: English language is preferred more often by younger participants than by older participants.</td>
<td>Partly, only in case of international brands</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: Overview of results

Results

Main effect of age on attitude toward the ad: Younger participants were found to evaluate all ads more positively than older participants.

Main effect of language on identification for Heineken: Participants said to identify more with ads for Heineken in which Dutch was used.

Main effect of age on identification with the brand: Younger participants said to identify more with all brands than older participants.
5 DISCUSSION

This section will start with answers to the research questions and conclusions that can be drawn based on the results of this research. These results are discussed and explained, mostly based on literature. Furthermore, the limitations of the present study and suggestions for further research are discussed, as well as managerial implications of the results that can be used in the field of marketing communication.

5.1 Conclusions

The aim of this study was to determine the effects of the usage of English language in ads for Dutch brands on consumers’ brand evaluation. In this study, a distinction was made between brands that are typical Dutch food brands and Dutch food brands with a more international character, according to participants in the pretest. Furthermore, a comparison was made between two age groups, to examine differences between two generations Y (Millenials) and Babyboomers. Participants in the age group below 30 were considered ‘young’ in this research, while participants above 50 years old belong to the age group ‘older’. Conclusions of the study will be presented in the section below, in which the main question and research questions will be answered.

Main question: What is the effect of the usage of English words or phrases in ads for perceived Dutch and international brands on brand evaluation?

The present study has shown that code switching in ads for Dutch food brands has little effect on the attitude toward the ad, identification with the brand and perceived product quality of Dutch consumers, both for (perceived) national and international brands. Little differences were found between age groups. Dutch was obviously preferred most for all brands. Overall, it can be concluded that adding English language to the ads used in this study did not contribute to consumers’ brand evaluation. Differences that were found between the four different brands and the two generations Millenials and Babyboomers, will be discussed in the research questions in the following section.

RQ1: To what extent does the use of English words or phrases in an ad stimulate positive evaluations among Dutch consumers?

Since literature on language congruity in advertising has shown positive effects of mildly incongruent messages on consumer’s brand attitude (Meyers-Levy and Tybout, 1989), it was expected that a code switched message could lead to more positive
evaluations of the ad than ads in which only Dutch or English was used. Meyers-Levy and Tybout, (1989) explained this by saying that when a message (somewhat) violates someone’s expectations, that person is challenged to think extensively about it, which would lead to more positive attitudes. Other researchers who took language expectancy into account in their study on effects of language choice in advertising, stated that when a language is less expected in a particular context, the language of that message and the associations that are strongly related to it are likely to gain increased attention. However, results of this study showed that mixing English language into ads for Dutch food brands does not lead to more positive evaluations of the ad. The different ads were evaluated approximately equal in the three language versions. Therefore, the corresponding hypothesis H1 was rejected. A possible explanation could be found in participant’s awareness of the language that was used in the different ads they were exposed to in this study, which was found to be relatively low. Half of the participants gave the wrong answer to the question which language was used in the ads they had seen in the survey. To illustrate: 35% of those who were exposed to the mixed version of the survey, answered the wrong answer ‘Dutch’ to that question, meaning they did not mention the English words in the text. The most right answers (84,3%) were given by participants who have been assigned to the Dutch version. When language awareness is this low, the positive effects of violating someone’s expectation by using an unexpected language in a certain context, may not occur since the ‘other’ language did not gain (enough) attention in order to be effective.

Although the different ads were evaluated approximately equal in the three language versions, there were found differences between the two age groups. Younger participants evaluated all ads more positively than older participants, regardless of brand and language. Literature on both generations was used to explain these differences. According to Syrett & Lammiman (2004), the Millenial generation, born between 1981 and 2000, giving them the age span from 15 to 34, are expected to hold quite negative evaluations toward ads in general, since they state that this generation is “as worldly, and therefore as cynical, as their parents or elder siblings.” When Millenials were in their late teens, they were exposed to over 20,000 commercial messages per year for a decade and a half (Syrett & Lammiman, 2004). Parment (2009) as well, describes Generation Y (Millenials) as: “having both a critical approach and an automatic screening of the information that passes.”
Babyboomers, on the other hand, are born between 1946 to around 1964, giving them the age from 50 to 69 (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009). Manolis (2000), found that for Babyboomers, advertising, stores, and shopping malls that focus more on young people are a major turn-off. Instead, they tend to prefer advertisements containing extensive product information that emphasize a product's benefits, rather than image oriented marketing that often targets younger consumers. Besides, Coulter et al. (2001) found in their study that the entertainment value of advertisements is better perceived by younger generations since they find advertising more entertaining and amusing than Babyboomers. These findings might explain why ads in this study gained less positive evaluations among older participants since all ads used in this study were more image oriented and lacked extensive product information. Moreover, the ads were presented online and participants rated them from a computer screen, which perhaps made the ads less favorable to an older generation.

**RQ2: To what extent does the use of English in Dutch advertising influence perceived product quality?**

Results of this study show that, in contrast to H3, the use of English did have little or no influence on the perceived quality of the products presented in the ads. In case of Heineken, Ola and Unox, younger participants said to expect the quality of the product to be slightly higher than older participants. This may have to do with the more positive evaluations of the ads in general by younger participants, which was discussed earlier in this section. These results showed that younger participants have a more favorable attitude towards the ads than older participants, which may lead to higher levels of perceived product quality. This study did not support the idea that English language evokes associations with a modern, progressive life style (Gerritsen et. al., 2007), and would therefore lead to higher levels of perceived product quality, which is common in literature. This may be due to the fact that the brands that are used in this study are all Dutch premium food brands and English language does not add something to the quality perspective because of the product category. Since in order to be effective, the associations evoked by foreign-language display should match the relevant characteristics of the product that is advertised (Domzal et al., 1995; Kelly-Holmes 2000, 2005). The associations that English language evokes, i.e. modernity, may be less relevant for the product category food, like German language was found to be less relevant and thus less effective for Nivea than for Audi or Volkswagen. For products in the technology segment for instance, English may be more meaningful because English is commonly used in
technological contexts in the Netherlands. This could be examined in future research.

**RQ3: To what extent does the use of English in Dutch advertising influence identification with the brand?**

Despite of the current linguistic trend in The Netherlands of mixing English words into Dutch language, participants in this study did not seem to identify significantly more with ads to which English words or phrases were added. However, as with attitude toward the ad, differences in identification levels were found between the two age groups. Results implicate that younger participants not only evaluated all ads more positively, they also said to identify more with all brands than older participants. Differences in how both generations perceive advertising, as discussed above, could be the reason for these findings, like with attitude toward the ad.

When it comes to language, participants said to identify more with ads for Heineken in which Dutch was used, than with ads for Heineken containing the English language. These findings are remarkable, since Heineken was the only brand in this study for which marketers actually chose to use code switching in the advertisement that was officially used in the Netherlands. They used ‘koud, kouder, extra cold’ in that advertisement, while in this study, participants said to identify most with the ad that was presented completely in Dutch.

A possible explanation for the higher levels of identification with the Dutch ad for Heineken is believed to be found in the concept of consumer nationalism. According to Rawwas, et. al (1996), consumer nationalism is a sentiment of extensive consumer loyalty towards their own nation, with significant effects on attitudes and purchases intentions. This means that highly nationalistic consumers tend to prefer goods from their own country. For world minded consumers, on the other hand, the primary reference group is humankind, rather than certain nationalities as Americans, Germans, Japanese, etc., according to Skinner, (1988). As the Netherlands is characterized by a relatively high level of immigration, which leads to a multicultural society in which people from all over the world live closely together, most Dutch consumers are assumed to score relatively high on world mindedness. Although in literature, consumer nationalism and world mindedness are sometimes presented as opposites, no research was found that states that someone cannot be both proud of his nation and be world minded at the same time. Therefore, moderate levels of consumer nationalism could play a role in the preference for Dutch
language in ads, especially for Heineken, which was perceived an international brand by participants. Dutch consumers are believed to have a sense of pride for a brand that is rooted in their own country, and they come across in every corner of the world. The beer brand Heineken in particular is likely to evoke such feelings of pride and belonging, since it is a ‘likeable’ or even ‘loveable’ brand, with associations of friends, pleasure and the Dutch ‘gezelligheid’ (coziness). Furthermore, Heineken is served all over the world and it is well known by lots of people that it is a Dutch brand, even in foreign countries. An ad for Heineken presented in Dutch fits or even stimulates these feelings of pride and belongingness among Dutch consumers, while the use of English would do just the opposite. Therefore, the Dutch identify more with an ad for this brand when it is presented in Dutch.

For Ola, which, like Heineken, was considered an international brand in this study, no such effect of Dutch language on identification was found. This is in line with the abovementioned explanation of feelings of pride for Heineken, which are not expected to be evoked for Ola for different reasons. First, in contrast to Heineken, Ola uses different brand names in different countries which decreases the feeling of belongingness for Dutch consumers. Second, however the Unilever brand Ola is originally Dutch, the Dutch character is not emphasized in communication. Therefore, Dutch consumers do not perceive the brand to be ‘theirs’, like they do with Heineken.

**RQ4: Do Dutch consumers prefer Dutch, English or code switched ads for Dutch (national and international) food brands?**

In this study, it came became clear that overall, Dutch is by far the most preferred language for ads for all four brands that were taken into account. In case of international brands, younger participants said to prefer ads in which English language is used significantly more often than older participants, but still said to prefer Dutch more often. These findings are, again, most remarkable for the (international) brand Heineken, the only brand in this study for which marketers actually chose to use code switching in the advertisement that was officially used in the Netherlands. They used ‘koud, kouder, extra cold’ in that advertisement, while in this study, a majority of 58,5% of all participants said to prefer the Dutch ‘koud, kouder, koudst’. Moreover, 25,9% said to prefer the English version ‘cold, colder, extra cold’, which means that only 15,6% prefers the code switched message as it is presented in the actual advertisement used by Heineken.
Like with identification, a possible explanation for the overall preference of Dutch language in ads for Dutch food brands, and especially for Heineken, can be found in the concept of consumer nationalism. Dutch consumers are believed to prefer their own language in an ad for Heineken, since a Dutch ad fits or even stimulates feelings of pride and belongingness the brand evokes.

5.2 Limitations

Like many scientific researches, the present study had some limitations which should be taken into account when interpreting the results and conclusions. The fact that the survey was conducted online, for instance, is considered to be one. The ads that were used as stimulus materials were print advertisements that consumers are normally exposed to in offline (print)media. Presenting them in an online survey could lead to slightly different evaluations than when people see them in magazines for instance. This effect is expected to occur most with older participants, who are perhaps less familiar to online advertising, online surveys, the use of computers and the internet in general. This could be examined in future research.

Furthermore, the product category could be seen as a limitation of this study, which focused on food products only. This was a deliberate choice, however it means the results of this study are only applicable for Dutch food brands and could not be generalized to other product categories. It would be interesting to examine the effects of code switching for brands in another product category in future research.

As with the product category, also the age groups that are included in this study are delimited, which means that results of the study cannot be generalized to other generations in Dutch society.

The fact that real advertisements were used in this study, can be seen as a limitation as well. Participants might have recognized the advertisements, which could have some influence on the results.

Finally, the level of education in this sample is considered to be a limitation. As 83.9% of all participants has completed higher education (HBO or university), the sample is not totally representative for the Dutch population. Examining the effects of code switching in advertising among a less educated audience would be interesting as well.
5.3 Managerial implications

For marketers, using marketing and advertising in a strategic way is essential to be successful. Preferably, every decision in creating and unrolling a marketing campaign is a thought-out one and contributes to a strategic (marketing) plan. Therefore, insights in the effects of certain marketing techniques for specific target groups is valuable and should be taken into consideration before planning a campaign. An important managerial implication, useful for the field of marketing communication and drawn from the results of this study on code switching in advertising in the Netherlands for Millennials and Babyboomers, is therefore the advice to not use English in Dutch advertising without (scientific) proof that it contributes to the effectiveness of the ad in any way. According to this study, Dutch is preferred by a vast majority of Dutch consumers, even for brands they believe to hold a more international character such as Heineken and Ola. Although most participants were not aware of the use of English in the stimulus materials, when they were asked straight to choose between a Dutch, mixed or English version of the ad, Dutch was obviously most popular. This implicates that for these brands, using Dutch in advertising would be the best option.

Based on this research, it is advised to use Dutch, unless you have (scientific) proof for positive effects of English for your campaign in particular. If one chooses to use English in Dutch advertising anyway, because of financial reasons for instance, it is advised to use simple English that is easy to understand and make sure visual imaging of the English words is used, since that was shown to improve the understanding, and therefore the evaluations, according to Gerritsen et. al., (2000). Furthermore, when using a code-switched message, make sure there is a match between the associations evoked by the (foreign) language that is used and the relevant characteristics of the product that is advertised (Domzal et al., 1995; Kelly-Holmes 2000, 2005).

As stated earlier, the results of this study cannot be generalized to other product categories or other age groups, which means one should always consider the specific branch and target group when deciding on whether to use English words or phrases in (Dutch) advertising.
LITERATURE


APPENDIX A - online survey

Dit onderzoek maakt deel uit van mijn scriptie voor de Master Communication Studies aan de Universiteit Twente. De vragenlijst bevat een aantal stellingen en aanvullende vragen over vier advertenties. Het invullen van de vragenlijst duurt ongeveer 10 minuten. Je antwoorden worden uiteraard anoniem behandeld.

Deelname aan dit onderzoek is geheel vrijwillig. Je kunt de vragenlijst op elk gewenst moment onderbreken of beëindigen. Het invullen en versturen van deze vragenlijst betekent dat je akkoord gaat met deelname aan dit onderzoek.

Ontzettend bedankt, je helpt me er enorm mee!

Hartelijke groet,
Eline Menkveld

Voor vragen of informatie over dit onderzoek, neem gerust contact op via: e.m.menkveld@student.utwente.nl

Wat is je geslacht?
- Man
- Vrouw

Wat is je leeftijd? ____

Wat is je opleidingsniveau? Het gaat hier om de hoogst afgeronde opleiding of de opleiding waar je momenteel mee bezig bent.
- MAVO (of vergelijkbaar)
- HAVO (of vergelijkbaar)
- VWO (of vergelijkbaar)
- MBO
- HBO
- WO
Je krijgt zo vier verschillende advertenties te zien. Vul alsjeblieft per advertentie de bijbehorende vragen in. Er zijn hierin geen goede of foute antwoorden, het gaat om jouw gevoel.

Geef alsjeblieft aan in hoeverre je het eens bent met de stellingen over bovenstaande advertentie. (Participants got to see four ads for all four brands in either a Dutch, mixed or English version and were asked to answer the questions presented below for all four ads seperately).

**Ik vind deze advertentie...**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Helemaal mee eens</th>
<th>Oneens</th>
<th>Neutraal</th>
<th>Eens</th>
<th>Helemaal mee eens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Een positief beeld geven</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Echt iets voor mij</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interessant</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geloofwaardig</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overdreven</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aantrekkelijk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Dit product...**

- heeft een lage algemene kwaliteit
- heeft een hoge algemene kwaliteit
- is van zeer slechte kwaliteit
- is van zeer goede kwaliteit
- is al met al erg slecht
- is al met al uitstekend
- zou mij niet tevreden stellen
- zou mij erg tevreden stellen

**Dit merk...**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Helemaal mee eens</th>
<th>Oneens</th>
<th>Neutraal</th>
<th>Eens</th>
<th>Helemaal mee eens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>zegt veel over mij als persoon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past goed bij mij</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zegt veel over wat ik belangrijk vind</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dit merk en ik hebben veel overeenkomsten</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Welke taal werd er gebruikt in de vier advertenties die je zojuist gezien hebt?

- [ ] Nederlands
- [ ] Engels
- [ ] Een mix van beide talen

Welke van de volgende drie varianten van de advertentie spreekt je het meest aan? (Participants got to see three ads for all four brands; a Dutch, mixed and English version).

- [ ] Advertentie 1
- [ ] Advertentie 2
- [ ] Advertentie 3

Hoe vaak gebruik je de Engelse taal in je dagelijks leven? Bijv. op je werk of met vrienden

- [ ] Dagelijks
- [ ] Wekelijks
- [ ] Eens per maand
- [ ] Zelden
- [ ] Nooit

Hoe zou je je eigen niveau van de Engelse taal beoordelen?

- [ ] Slecht
- [ ] Matig
- [ ] Redelijk
- [ ] Goed
- [ ] Erg goed

Hartelijk bedankt voor je deelname aan dit onderzoek. Mocht je geïnteresseerd zijn in de resultaten van mijn masterscriptie, geef dit dan aan door te e-mailen naar e.m.menkveld@student.utwente.nl

Vriendelijke groet,
Eline Menkveld