## Radboud University

## Pas de Français, English please?

An experimental study on the effect of language choice and product type in product advertisements on the attitude and purchase intention of balanced bilingual Canadians.

Master Thesis
Julia Brand, s3010481
juliabrand@ student.ru.nl; +31619937388
Department of Communication and Information Studies
Research Institute: Center for Language Studies
Director: Dr. A. van Hooft
Co-evaluator: Dr. B.C. Planken
Due: 12 November 2015


#### Abstract

The question for multinationals often is whether to standardize their advertising by using English or adapt their advertising by using the local language or a mixture of both languages. Previous research applied the Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) by investigating whether adapting the advertisement's language to the targeted bilingual ingroup's language led to favorable evaluations of the adapted advertisement. According to existing literature, ethnocentricity explains the degree to which one favours the in-group over the out-group. Research focusing on advertising (including language and product type) for Canadian balanced bilinguals is limited, and therefore the current study focuses on advertising to this target group. The present study aimed to investigate the influence of language choice and product type in product advertising, and their interaction, but also the effect of ethnocentricity, on the attitude and purchase intention of balanced bilingual Canadians. A $3 \times 2$ mixed-measures design investigated the attitude and purchase intention of 92 balanced bilinguals when assigned to one of the three language conditions (English/CanadianFrench/ Mixed) as well as to two product conditions (toothbrush/diamonds). Ethnocentricity was measured with a simple regression. The main findings demonstrated that balanced bilingual Canadians had higher purchase intention and more positive attitudes when the ads' language was English rather than mixed languages or Canadian French. Also, the participants had more intention to purchase the toothbrush than the diamonds independent of the advertisements' language. The final main finding showed that lower ethnocentricity predicted less intention to purchase the products advertised in English. Findings are rather contradicting to previously found results on balanced bilingualism in Hong Kong, India and the U.S. which substantiated the CAT. Instead, this study's findings suggest that the CAT in advertising could be rejected and the standardization approach substantiated. Scientific and practical implications as well as recommendations, such as to replicate this study using for example radio advertisements, are given.


Keywords: product advertising; standardization/adaptation; language choice; bilingualism; ethnocentricity; Canada;

## Preface

Writing the Master thesis and the process that comes with it has been a great challenge to me. I have learned that I have to prioritise, persevere as well as to be patient and that I must not be afraid to ask for help from others beside my supervisor.

Also, I am thankful, that I have had the opportunity to explore East Canada, live among locals and taste their culture. From April to July I have travelled to Ottawa and lived in Montréal, the French part of Canada. I was welcomed at the University of McGill where I, among other places, carried out my research.

First of all, I would like thank my supervisor, Andreu van Hooft, who never gave up on me and was lenient, even at times when the progress of my research was slow. He pushed and supported me when I was stuck and learned me to persevere to get the job done.

Secondly, I would like to express my gratitude to Yanne Veronneau and Nahka Bertrand who translated and checked my questionnaires and advertisement texts. Without these wonderful ladies, there was no experiment to begin with and my time in Canada would have felt much less homecoming.

Next, I would like to thank my friends who were always there for me when I could no longer see the wood for the trees. Every time I had a deadline and had to work a late night, they checked and proofread my work even in the last moments that I asked.

Finally, I would like to thank Ivo Hafner, my boyfriend, who supported me day and night in the big and the little things and without whom my time in Canada would have been less successful and adventurous.

## 1. Introduction

Multinational companies (MNCs) increasingly encounter multicultural and multilingual societies such as India, the United States or Canada. When promoting their products on an international level, MNCs can opt for different marketing strategies and advertising approaches. Each of these strategies and approaches vary in the selection of products, for instance by marketing all products in all markets or specific products for specific markets. Also, marketing strategies and advertising approaches vary in the language used in product advertising to communicate the MNCs message. For example by using English texts in the products advertisements(Laroche, Kirpalani \& Darmon, 1999; Zander, Mockaitis \& Harzing, 2011; Mueller, 1992). In turn these variations in products and languages used in ads could influence how the targeted multilingual consumers perceive the product advertisements. . To gain deeper insights in the multi- or bilingual consumers' preferences and to contribute to a better understanding of which strategy and approach to opt for, this research examines the influence of the factors product type as well as the language chosen in the ad and their interaction (Krishna \& Alhuwalia, 2008), specifically in the bilingual area of Canada.

## 2. Theoretical background

## Three main marketing strategies

Over the last century international advertising has taken several forms based on the marketing strategy a multinational has incorporated (Laroche, et al., 1999). To decide which advertising approach fits best with the preferences of the target group and communicates the product advertisement's message most effectively, multinationals have three main marketing strategies to consider (Dumitrescu \& Vinerean, 2010). One of these marketing strategies is the global strategy which proposes to standardize product advertising across different markets and cultures. This strategy assumes that due to globalization the market and consumer preferences are becoming increasingly alike (Levitt, 1983). The second and opposing strategy is the local strategy in which advertising is adapted to local consumers' needs and preferences, thus to specific local markets (Kotler, 1986). In response to the global and the local strategy, a mix of both strategies has arisen as a middle of the two extremes. This is the so-called glocal strategy which balances the need to keep the overall corporate brand, image and core values, and the demand to adapt to local consumer preferences (Edgington \& Hayter, 2013; Dumitrescu \& Vinerean, 2010). The above discussed strategies can be divided into two key advertising approaches which are the standardization and the adaptation approach (Ryan, Griffith \& Jain, 2008; Laroche et al., 1999; Bhatia \& Bhargava, 2008).

### 2.1 Standardization versus adaptation of the language \& product in advertising

As part of the marketing strategy for product advertising, the main advertising approaches standardization versus adaptation will appear in the minds of international marketers (Ryan et al., 2008; Bhatia \& Bhargava, 2008). Which option to choose best still encourages ongoing debates in the literature (Laroche et al., 1999; Agrawal, 1995).

The standardization approach entails that the same products and language are used in advertisements across different countries and regions where the targeted groups may speak in different tongues and have different cultural values (van Hooft \& Truong, 2012; Hornikx, van Meurs \& de Boer, 2010; Karande, Almurshidee \& Al-Olayan, 2006; Laroche et al., 1999; Mueller, 1992). The language chosen in the advertisement is an important factor that defines the approach. For example, English is the most frequently used in global and standardized international advertising(Gerritsen et al., 2007; Piller, 2003; Hornikx, et al, 2010). Bhatia and Ritchie (2008, p.514) even state that English has become the only language choice for global advertising, since it "effectively dethroned its competitors, such as French and Russian". Proponents of this approach argue that standardization of the ad and the message reduces costs (Laroche, et al., 1999). For instance when English is used, no translation costs have to be accounted for. Also, it creates a consistent international brand and it contributes to the overall image of the brand and company (Hornikx, et al., 2010; Mueller, 1992).

Alternatively, marketers can use the adaptation approach in which products and languages in the advertisements are adapted to the target group's local language and product preferences (Kotler,1986; Hornikx et al., 2010). According to de Mooij (2005) adaptation of the advertisement is the key to the ad's successfulness. Several studies show that the use of the local language (Shao, Shai \& Shao, 1992) in the advertisements and the use of specific product adaptations for specific markets (Kotler,1986) are most effective since it meets the needs of the target audience.

As a compromise between the two opposing approaches, marketers can choose a mixed approach. The glocal strategy is an example of a mixed approach in which both the local language and the global language English are used in standardized advertisements (Bhatia \& Bhargava, 2008; Bhatia \& Ritchie, 2006, p. 515; Krishna \& Alhuwalia, 2008). The study of Koslow, Shamdasani and Touchstone (1994) shows that Spanish minority groups in the U.S. prefer this approach because they perceive the mixed language advertisement as more culturally sensitive and more in line with their dual identity as Hispanic and American.

## Language processing and language adaptation

Even though standardisation and adaptation approaches stand in contrast to each other, it is likely that the opted for approach can influence how messages are processed and perceived. The Revised Hierarchical model (RHM) substantiates this statement since the model explains that words acquired in the bilinguals' second language (L2) have less likelihood to be conceptually processed (which is meaning giving to words and word storage in memory) than words acquired in the native language (L1). Even if bilinguals are equally fluent and proficient in both languages, words and messages in the dominant L 1 are still better stored in memory and better recalled than words and messages in the L2 (Dufour \& Kroll, 1995; Kroll \& de Groot, 1997; Luna \& Peracchio,1999; 2001). This suggests that as in adaptation, the language of the advertisement should be the same as the target group's L1 in order to be memorized best. In favour of a mixed approach, Ahn and LaFerle (2008, p.107) suggest that the "interaction of using two languages in an advertisement [...] may secure varied levels of attention and comprehension" which in turn influences the degree to which the ad can be recalled. A theory that focuses more specifically on language adaptation in communication is the communication accommodation theory (CAT).

### 2.2 Communication accommodation theory

The sociolinguistic theory of (speech) accommodation was first introduced by Giles and colleagues in 1973 and is based on the psychological assumption that 'similarity attracts' a (Giles, Taylor \& Bourhis,1973). This assumption explains that people who look alike and behave alike are more attracted to each other (Byrne, 1971). The more general communication accommodation theory (CAT, Giles, Coupland \& Coupland, 1991) proposes that people change their communicative behaviour constantly in order to move towards (convergence) and away (divergence) from their communication partners "to indicate their attitudes toward each other" (Sachdev \& Giles, 2008, p.355). The effect of this behaviour is the following. When bilinguals adapt their language, they code-switch from one language to the language of the communication partner. This behaviour is seen as an attempt to close the cultural gap in order to become more similar and thus to be more liked by the other communication partner (Sachdev \& Giles, 2008). The study of Koslow, Shamdasani and Touchstone (1994) applied the CAT to advertising by investigating whether adapted product advertisements that included the local language (Spanish) of the bilingual receivers, would lead to more positive attitudes of the bilingual receivers towards these adapted ads than when the ads were in English. These
scholars found that Hispanics in the U.S. considered partly adapted advertisements as more culturally sensitive and were therefore preferred (Koslow et al., 1994).

In addition, language adaptation effects can also be linked to the social identity theory (SIT). This theory posits that people define their positive self-identity by associating themselves with their in-group and dissociating themselves from an out-group (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel \& Turner, 1986). To do so, people form a "general denigration of [the] out-group to enhance [their] self-identity" (Erez \& Earley, 1993, p. 78) and compare the in-group with the out-group to make the in-group preferable. The level of which people denigrate the out-group and enhance favourability to the in-group is associated with the degree of ethnocentricity one incorporates. People who are highly ethnocentric show extreme preference to their own cultural group over another cultural group, while people with low ethnocentricity levels show no real preference for an in-group over an out-group (Gopinath \& Glassman, 2008). Members of the in-group and out-group distinguish their group membership based on several features. Language is one of these features that members of the in-group use to define themselves in contrast to the out-group who do not speak the in-group's language (Barner-Rasmussen \& Björkman, 2007). The study of Dimofte, Forehand and Deshpandé (2004) applied the SIT to product advertising (video) in which one advertisement was adapted to the in-group's language (Spanish) and one advertisement was in the out-group's language (English). When the ads were in English (incongruent with the in-group's language) it increased the bilingual Hispanics' awareness of their in-group membership. However, there were no differences found in attitude and purchase intention after seeing the product ads (either in Spanish or in English). So adapting the advertisement`s language to the in-groups' language did not lead to more positive evaluations of the adapted ad.

The current study applies the CAT and the SIT to advertising by including the language factor in print product advertising. The study will use advertisements with English texts which represent standardization and advertisements with the local language (Canadian French) as well as advertisements with a mix of both languages which represent adaptation.

As the CAT already implies language accommodation concerns bilinguals who can code-switch from one language to another. The level of bilingualism of those who adapt the language in advertising and those who receive the adapted or standardized advertisements differs greatly (for example Planken, van Meurs and Radlinska (2010), versus van Hooft and Truong, (2012)). According to Hakuta and Diaz (1985) bilinguals can be categorized in two main groups. On the one hand there are balanced bilinguals, who have (almost) equal proficiency in two languages and have mastered both languages at an early stage of life. On
the other hand there are pseudo-bilinguals, or imbalanced bilinguals, who know one language (L1) notably better than the other (L2) and who do not use this L2 language in daily communications (Hakuta \& Diaz, 1985). This research takes into account balanced bilingual Canadian speakers of Canadian French and English since these languages have the official status by law applied in government communication, education and advertising and are thus present in the balanced bilinguals daily lives (Planchon, 2014).

Several studies have investigated the role of language when advertising to imbalanced as well as balanced bilinguals. These studies intended to answer the question whether to adapt or standardize their ads when focusing on this specific target group. With regard to advertising to imbalanced bilinguals, the studies of Gerritsen, et al. (2007) and Gerritsen, Nickerson, van Hooft and van Meurs (2010) investigated the attitude towards English as a foreign language versus the native language in product advertisements in Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Spain. The findings of these studies showed that English was seen as a neutral language since the participants' attitude towards the use of English was neither positive nor negative. Furthermore, Planken, van Meurs and Radlinska (2010) carried out a study on the effect of English versus the local language Polish in product advertisements among imbalanced bilinguals. They found no differences in attitude towards the advertisement when using either English or Polish.

The findings of the studies of Gerritsen et al (2007), Gerritsen et al (2010) and Planken et al. (2010) are contradictory to the CAT, suggesting that the choice of language is not a factor. Consequently, either the standardization or the adaptation approach could be used in marketing strategies of MNCs by using either English or a foreign language in advertising in these countries. This could be due to the fact that in the countries investigated by Gerritsen, et al. (2007), Gerritsen et al.(2010) and Planken et al. (2010), English did not have an official status (van Hooft \& Truong, 2012) but was rather seen as a foreign language. The findings of these scholars are also not in line with the often found results that English is positively associated with "modernity and progress, globalization and youthfulness" (Kelly-Holmes, 2000, p.71; Piller, 2003, p.175). Also, they are not in line with results found in Europe and in Asia that products associated with quality, luxury and sophistication are mostly advertised in English (Piller, 2003; Takashi, 1990; 1992; Krishna \& Alhuwalia, 2008). A possible explanation, given by Planken, van Meurs and Radlinska (2010), might be that English is so widespread that it is not perceived as special anymore and thus both languages (English and the L1 Polish) are seen as equally preferable.

Taking into account the previously discussed findings, the study of van Hooft and Truong (2012) looked at the effect of English versus the local language Cantonese in product advertisements in the bilingual area of Hong Kong where English, Cantonese and Mandarin have an official status. The participants in this study were highly competent balanced speakers of English and Cantonese. In addition, to see whether participants differed in attitude they used different types of products in the high price range that can be associated with luxury and different amounts of text per advertisement. Overall, they also found no significant differences in the use of English versus the local language (Cantonese) such as in the studies of Gerritsen et al.(2007) Gerritsen et al.( (2010) and Planken et al. (2010). Though the one exception was that when the attitude towards the advertisement was measured, the participants perceived the English advertisement displaying a diamond ring (highest priced product) as more functional, fluent, attractive, sympathetic, pleasant and appealing than the Cantonese ad displaying the same diamond ring. These findings suggest that there could be an interaction between the choice of language and the type of product (high priced). This current study therefore takes into account both variables language choice (including the official status languages English and Canadian French) and product type (high priced luxury and low priced necessity products) in order to measure a possible interaction.

### 2.3 Product type

Next to the pricing aspect of the product displayed in the advertisement which characterises the product type, the study of Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008) particularly focused on the product associations aspect of the product. They studied differences in attitudes between English, the local language Hindi and a mix of the two, when both luxury good (chocolate) and necessity good (detergent) advertisements were used in the research. Necessity goods are products that meet our basic needs, are available to everyone and are often provided to us and evaluated by family members or the ones we trust (or depend on). Therefore necessity products are more associated with belongingness which in turn is often associated with the local language(L1). On the contrary, luxury goods are exclusive products that often define ones' image and are associated with sophistication and exclusivity, which in turn is often associated with English(L2)(Krishna \& Alhuwalia, 2008; Bearden \& Etzel,1982).

With their study Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008) found evidence for the adaptation approach with regard to MNCs advertising in multilingual India. The findings of their study showed that the MNCs should opt for using mixed languages (adaptation) in advertisements when the ad displayed a necessity product (detergent). The results were that the participants'
attitude was more positive when mixed languages in the advertisements were combined with products that were either necessity goods or not truly identifiable as a necessity or luxury product. The standardization approach using English in the advertisements could be best opted for when the advertisements displayed the luxury good chocolate. Namely, the participants' attitudes were more positive when the advertisements displayed luxury products in combination with English. Concluding, the results show an interaction for the choice of a particular language and the product type in the advertisement.

Similar to the study of Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008), this study takes into account the language choice (including English versus Canadian French versus a mixed language) and product type (high priced luxury product versus low priced necessity product) and their interaction. Product type will consist of two sub-levels which is the product price (van Hooft \& Truong, 2012) and the product associations (Krishna \& Alhuwalia (2008). Similar to the study of van Hooft and Truong (2012) who used Cantonese versus English speakers as well as Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008) who used Hindi versus English speakers, this study also uses English speakers, but different local language speakers, namely Canadian French speakers. In addition to their main study, Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008) highlight that they controlled for language associations (Hindi-belongingness versus English-sophistication) in a pre-test.

Language associations are the specific perceptual associations related to a language (Krishna \& Alhuwalia, 2008, p.695) and have been revealed to mediate the relationship between language choice and product category in advertising. As stated above, it seems to be a consensus among scholars that English is often associated with sophistication, modernity, progress and globalization (Kelly-Holmes, 2000; Piller, 2003), while a local language is often associated with closeness (like family), personal, belongingness (Krishna \& Alhuwalia, 2008). The current study includes the associations of both English and Canadian French as a control variable to check if in this context the balanced bilinguals actually associate Canadian French (L1) with belongingness and the English language (L2) with sophistication.

However, the question is whether Krishna and Alhuwalia's (2008) earlier found results could be generalized and applied to other bilingual areas that are in a different stage of economic development. Therefore this study focuses on a Western developed country (Canada) instead of an Asian developing country (India is BRIC country (Douglas \& Craig, 2011)) ${ }^{1}$. The country of residence of the targeted participants in the study will probably affect

[^0]the evaluation of which products are considered luxuries and which ones necessities. For example the study of van Hooft and Truong (2012) showed that only the highest priced luxury product (diamond ring) gave an effect for language choice among Hong Kong ${ }^{1}$ (developed country) participants. However, in the study of Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008) in India (developing country), the participants considered chocolate as a luxury good. This study focuses on the bilingual area of Québec and Ottawa in Canada to investigate the language and product type effects on participants. Hence, it is assumed that in Canada, a developed country, the participants will perceive diamonds as high priced luxury goods instead of chocolate. Also, it is therefore plausible that different effects of product type (combined with language choice) will emerge in this study in Canada than in the study of Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008) in India. To take a closer look at Canada, which has English and Canadian French as its official status languages, the next paragraph will cover the influence of the language situation in Canada.

### 2.4 The case of Canada

Canada, the second largest country in the world, is among other things known for its bilingualism. The East part of Canada, the province of Québec, has a majority of Canadian French speakers and the rest of Canada has a majority of English speakers. Since the people who speak Canadian French have halved over the last century, the Québec government introduced the 'Official Language Act' in 1974 (Loi sur la langue officielle) (Mackay, 2006). This means that all education and advertising is either only in Canadian French or in another language (such as English) but always accompanied by Canadian French translations (Planchon, 2014).

Next to the official language status of English and Canadian French, which is strictly implemented in French Canadian society by law, there could also be a social language status of both these languages in French Canadian society. The social language status could be described as the language users' evaluations of a specific language based on its image in society and dependent on the situation in which the language is used. Several scholars, who investigated language attitudes in Hong Kong (Lai, 2007, p.84), the United States (Koslow et al., 1994) or India (Krishna \& Alhuwalia,2008), found that "English [is] a prestigious language for the government, law court, education and business, while Cantonese [Spanish, or Hindi] the vernacular language [is not]". It could be that the balanced bilingual Canadians use English more when at university or at work while they use Canadian French more when at
home. To check whether such social language statuses exists among Canadian bilinguals language status is taken into account as a control variable in this study.

## CAT and SIT in bilingual Canada

According to the study of Giles et al. (1973) on speech accommodation (forerunner of the communication accommodation theory (CAT)), bilingual speakers of English and Canadian French liked it best when the speakers accommodated to the language of the listeners. This was specifically true for the French Canadian speakers, who mostly live in Québec. Because they associated the speech accommodation with an attempt to close the cultural gap between English Canada and French Canada (including Québec and parts of Ontario, as Ottawa which is fully bilingual). The English speakers did not perceive the Canadian French speaker as more or less friendly or likable. This would suggest that the Canadian French bilinguals are more sensitive to language accommodation (Giles et al., 1973). The findings also suggest that the more similar you (and your communication partner) are, the more positive one another is evaluated. The question arising, is whether these findings in oral communication also apply in this study which is using mass communication (advertising). Although research was done on (speech) accommodation in Canada by Giles et al (1973), and Koslow et al.(1994) applied the CAT to advertising in the U.S., the current study applies the CAT to advertising in bilingual Canada. An aspect added in this study is that it focuses on Canadian balanced bilinguals.

The findings of Giles et al. (1973) can also be explained by the social identity theory (SIT), which describes that people make comparisons between the in-group and out-group to make the in-group preferable. When someone adapts to the in-group, this behaviour could be seen as an attempt to be more like the in-group and could therefore generate positive attitudes (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel \& Turner, 1986). Tjafel (1982, p. 26) describes that 'linguistic distinctiveness [is] perceived as a crucial mainstay in the revival or preservation of a separate ethnic or national identity', and thus the in-group. In Québec, the Canadian French language is seen as an important symbolic aspect in the perseverance of the French Canadian identity (Gade, 2003) which is still a lively topic today. Although, as earlier mentioned, in Québec the majority of people are bilinguals with Canadian French as their mother tongue, the total number of Canadian French speakers is decreasing. Evidence that the French Canadians try to strongly preserve the Canadian French language can be seen in law (like to Language Act), institutional communication, advertising and education, since these services are always in Canadian French (accompanied by English) (Planchon, 2014). With their strong language preservation, the French Canadians could imply that preservation of their ethnic identity as French Canadians is important to them. It is therefore a possibility that the degree to which
balanced bilingual French Canadians favour the in-group over the out-group is high, which would make them highly ethnocentric.

## Balanced bilingual Canadians' Ethnocentricity

Ethnocentricity is defined as the "anchored belief that one's in-group is superior to [the] outgroups" (Adorno et al., 1950 in Gopinath \& Glassman, 2008) which shows similarities with the social identity theory, because in short this theory explains that people constitute their identity by enhancing favouritism towards the in-group and by degrading the out-group. People who are highly ethnocentric see their in-group as the "centre of the universe" and like the people who look like themselves, while discard the ones who are not alike (Booth, 1979; Worchel \& Cooper, 1979 in Gopinath \& Glassman, 2008, p.236).

According to Gopinath and Glassman (2008) ethnocentricity can influence the attitude of consumers, specifically high ethnocentricity leads to more favourable evaluations of ads in the local language (L1) (the language that needs to be preserved). Several studies have confirmed this theory of ethnocentrism when investigating consumers' attitudes and purchase intention towards international brands and products (Sharma, Shimp \& Shin, 1995; Liu, Murphy, Li \& Liu, 2006). For example the study of Sharma et al. (1995) showed that people with high ethnocentricity levels had a more negative attitude and purchase intention towards foreign or international goods in the United States. In addition, the study of Liu et al. (2006) showed a similar effect for brand names in China, when the brand names where in English. As stated above the French Canadian bilinguals try to persevere their Canadian French language which is an indicator for possible high ethnocentricity levels. Therefore this research takes into account the variable ethnocentricity to see whether this factor predicts the bilinguals attitude towards the ad and product depending on the language of the slogan and body copy text in the ad.

The aim of this study is to investigate whether the choice of language in product advertisement, English, Canadian French or a mixed form (containing both languages), the type of product, high priced luxury and low priced necessity, and their interaction influences the attitude and purchase intention of bilingual Canadians speakers of English and Canadian French. In order to test for the possible generalization of the previously found results of product type and or language effects on balanced bilinguals in Asia by van Hooft and Truong (2012) and Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008), this study will be carried out in Canada.

Furthermore, this study takes into account the control variables language associations and language status in order to check how the English and Canadian French language will be
evaluated among Canadian bilinguals. In addition to the study of Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008), this study will also focus on the French Canadian bilinguals' ethnocentricity because the French Canadians (in Québec and Ottawa, Ontario) seem to clearly (in law, education and advertising) preserve their Canadian French language and culture and thus ethnocentricity levels could predict the bilingual attitudes, purchase intention dependent on the language chosen in the ad. Therefore ethnocentricity will be used a predictor variable. Consequently, the following research questions and hypotheses were created:

Q1 To what extent have the choice of language and product type in product advertisements an influence on the attitude towards the ad, towards the product and the purchase intention of Canadian French English (English- Canadian French) balanced bilingual Canadian consumers?

- hla The use of Canadian French in the product ads evokes a more positive attitude towards the ad and product and higher purchase intention than when English or a mixed language form is used in the ads.
- hlb The use of English or mixed language in the ads evokes a more negative attitude towards the ad and product and less intention to purchase the product than when the ad is in Canadian French.
- h2 The use of high priced luxury products in the ads evokes a more positive attitude towards the ad and product and more purchase intention when the ad is in English.
Q2 Does ethnocentricity predict the attitude towards the ad, towards the product and the purchase intention of Canadian bilinguals depending on the language displayed in the ad? -h3a Higher ethnocentricity predicts more positive attitudes towards the ad and towards the product and more purchase intention when the ad is in Canadian French. -h3b Higher ethnocentricity predicts more negative attitudes towards the ad, product and higher purchase intention when the ad is in English.

This research builds up on the previously discussed findings and wants to shed light on the effect of language choice (English, Canadian French, or mixed) in combination with product type (high priced luxury or low priced necessity goods) on attitude towards the ad and product and the purchase intention of bilingual Canadian consumers in Canada. It takes into account two official status languages (Rowicka, 2006, p.194), a developed western market, the language associations and language status related to English and Canadian French and the role of ethnocentricity on the balanced bilinguals' attitudes and purchase intention. By doing so, this research contributes to defining the boundaries of the effect of language choice in
persuasive product advertising on bilinguals and tests the possible generalisability of previously found results of language choice and product type effects.

## 3. Method

### 3.1 Research Design

For this study a $3 \times 2$ mixed-measures design was used in which the independent variables were the language chosen in the ad, Canadian French/mixed/English (between subject), and the product type (high priced luxury good - low priced necessity good) displayed in the ad (within subject). The dependent variables were the attitude towards the ad and product and the intention to purchase the product. In addition, the variable ethnocentricity (high/low) was measured as a predictor to attitude towards the ad, the product and the purchase intention, depending on the language (Canadian French/English) of the ad (Gospinath \& Glassman, 2008). The control variables language associations and language status were measured to check whether belongingness associations (as dimension of language associations) as well as lower language status were associated with the Canadian French language and to check whether sophistication associations (as dimension of language associations) as well as a higher language status were associated with the English language.

### 3.2 Materials

The materials of the study consisted of six dissimilar mock ads which differed in the text's language (English, Canadian French or mixed) in the ad and in the type of product (diamonds or toothbrush) displayed in the ad. The ads containing either the Canadian French, English or the mixed language showed the same high priced luxurious product (diamonds) and the low priced necessity product (a toothbrush)(see pre-test 2.3). In order to eliminate the influence of a known brand on the participants, triggering country/region specific associations, product brands were made invisible. Also it was assumed that the products used could not be connected to a brand on the basis of their appearance (Krishna \& Alhuwalia, 2008). Furthermore, these specific products were chosen because it is assumed that they do not prime gender preferences. The texts in the ads were translated from English to Canadian French by a native speaker of both languages, and checked by another native speaker of both English and Canadian French. The texts consisted of a slogan and body copy text. For the mixed language ad, the slogan was in English and the body copy in Canadian French, since the study of Ahn and LaFerle (2008) showed that English in the slogan often triggers attention and the body copy text is preferred in the local language to better understand the ad's message. The slogan
and body copy text were created by the researcher. Figure 1 shows the manipulated English toothbrush and diamonds ads used in this study (for all mock ads, see appendix III).

Fig. 1 Manipulated English ads used in this study
Necessity product- toothbrush

## Product X Ultra Clean \& White For your Brightest Smile!



Product X Ultra Clean \& White Ergonomically designed toothbrush with angled bristles
luxury product- diamonds

## Ultimate Diamonds - the Ultra 2.0 ct.

For all your Custom designed Diamonds and Jewellery!


Ultimate Diamonds- the Ultra 2.0 ct .
On the basis of GIA International Diamond Grading System

Internally Flawless - GIA clarity
Very Good - GIA cut
Near colorless - GIA clarity

### 3.3 Pre-test

A pre-test was carried out to test whether Canadians evaluated differences in price range (high/medium/low) for the products (toothbrush/television/Diamonds, see appendix I) and whether the two extremes (toothbrush- diamonds) evoked averse product associations (necessity- luxury).

The questionnaire (appendix II) was created to measure product price (high-low) and product associations (luxury-necessity) (Bearden \& Etzel, 1982, p.186). Reliability for all items was adequate or higher, $\alpha>.78$ ). Of the 27 Canadian participants $63 \%$ was female and $37 \%$ male $(M=1.67, S D=0.56)$, they were in the age range from 19 to $28(M=26.81, S D=$ 11.09) and they lived among other places in Toronto, Ontario (22.2\%), Montreal, Québec ( $18.5 \%$ ) and Port Hope, Ontario ( $18.5 \%$ ) $(M=4.15, S D=1.38)^{2}$

A repeated measures analysis was carried out for product price (high/medium/low) and also for product associations (luxury-necessity) both with product range (diamonds/TV/ toothbrush) as within-subject factor. This showed a significant main effect for product price $(F(1,26)=96.09, p<.001)$ as well as product associations $(F(1,26)=49.47, p<.001)$. Pairwise comparisons showed that participants evaluated the toothbrush as a low priced product ( $M=4.57, S D=0.46, p<.001$ ), the TV as a medium priced product ( $M=2.80, S D=$ $0.96, p=.016$ ) and diamonds as a high priced product ( $M=1.17, S D=0.42, p<.001$ ). Also, a pairwise comparison showed that the participants evaluated the toothbrush as a necessity for everyone ( $M=5.78, S D=0.46, p<.001$ ), the TV as both a luxury and necessity for most people $(M=3.33, S D=0.87, p<.001)$ and diamonds as a luxury for everyone $(M=1.91, S D=$ $0.42, p<.001$ ).

Thus the findings show that the toothbrush was evaluated as low priced necessity product and the diamonds as high priced luxury product for the Canadian participants. With regard to the television, this product was left out for the main study since it focuses only on the effect of a high priced luxury and low priced necessity product in an ad. The TV does not fit in this profile because it is evaluated as a medium priced luxury and necessity good.

### 3.4 Participants

For this study a convenient sample of 129 participants filled out the questionnaire. In order to target the balanced bilingual Canadians, the data of only 92 participants was used for the

[^1]study. Participants are considered balanced bilingual when they rated their skills positively ( $5=$ correct, $6=$ good, $7=$ very good) and when the rated skills differed no more than one point on the proficiency scale (from $1=$ 'very bad' to $7=$ 'very good') between both languages. In addition the nationality of the participants had to be Canadian.

The 92 balanced bilingual Canadians were in the age range of 17 to 33 (with the exception of one 69 year old). A one-way analysis of variance showed no significant effect of the ad version (in English $M=23.50, S D=3.46$, French $M=26.60, S D=8.74$ or a mixed language $M=24.67, S D=3.19$ ) on age $(F(2,89)=2.33, p=.103)$. This means that age is equally distributed over the three manipulated ad versions.

The city of residence was Montreal (Québec) for $81.5 \%$ of the participants and $12 \%$ lived in Ottawa (Ontario). The group of participants existed of $32.6 \%$ male, $66.3 \%$ female and $1.1 \%$ transgender ( $M=1.68, S D=0.49$ ). A Chi-square test showed no significant relation between ad version and gender $\left(\chi_{2}(4)=3.67, p=.453\right)$. This means that gender is equally distributed over the three manipulated ad versions.

Most participants had a Bachelor's undergraduate degree (47.8\%), or Diploma of College Studies (18.5\%), a secondary school, a Master's degree (both 15.2\%) or a PhD (3.3\%) ( $M=3.73, S D=1.01$ ). A Chi-square test showed no significant relation between version and education level $\left(\chi_{2}(8)=10.99, p=.202\right)$. This means that the completed education of the participants is equally distributed over the three manipulated ad versions.

In addition, $23.9 \%$ of the balanced bilinguals considered English as their mother tongue (L1; their dominant language), $67.4 \%$ considered Canadian French as their mother tongue (L1; their dominant language), while $8.7 \%$ was trilingual or considered both English and Canadian French as their L1 $(M=1.85, S D=0.55)$. This means the sample is not fully homogeneous when it comes to mother tongue, which could cause differences in attitude, purchase intention and ethnocentricity dependent on the participants' mother tongue. A Chisquare test showed no significant relation between ad version and mother tongue ( $\chi_{2}(4)=5.41, p$ $=.248$ ). This means that the participants' mother tongue (L1) was equally distributed over the three manipulated ad versions.

To check the distribution of the answers based on the participants' mother tongue (L1) for the attitudes (ad, product), the purchase intention and ethnocentricity a non-parametric Mann-Whitney U-test was carried out. There were no significant results found for evaluations of the attitude, purchase intention and ethnocentricity between participant groups with L1 English and L1 English+ French ( $p>.05$ ), and between participant groups with L1 English and L1 Canadian French $(p>.05)$ as well as no significant results were found for purchase
intention and ethnocentricity between the participant groups with L1 Canadian French and L1 English + French ( $p>.05$ ). However, there were significant differences for attitude towards the ad between participants with L1 English and L1 Canadian French ( $U=466.5, p=.044, n=$ 80) and between participants with L1 Canadian French and L1 English + French ( $U=91.5$, $p=.020, n=64$ ). Also, there was significant difference for attitude towards the product between participants with L1 Canadian French and L1 English + French ( $U=104.5$, $p=.010$, $n=68$ ). Therefore results on attitude should be handled with caution, because there is a difference in the evaluation of attitude depending on the mother tongue (L1) of the balanced bilingual Canadian.

A prerequisite of the experiment is the proficiency of all English and Canadian French participants in order to cover the unique balanced bilingual target group. A paired $t$-test showed a significant difference between the self-assessed level of English and the level of Canadian French among the participants $\left(t(91)=.427, p=.001, \eta^{2}=.001\right)$. The bilinguals assessed themselves negligibly more proficient in Canadian French ( $M=6.79, S D=.35$ ) than English ( $M=6.55, S D=.45$ ) and considered themselves 'good' to 'very good' in both languages. Although language proficiency is significant the relevance of this difference is low due to the low eta squared.

### 3.5 Instrumentation

For this study a questionnaire (see appendix V, VI) was created to measure attitudes, purchase intention, language associations/status and ethnocentricity. First, items were re-coded, then Cronbach's Alphas were calculated, where after variables with an $\alpha>.7$ were computed into composite means.

## Attitude towards the ad

The questionnaire started with 7 items of which 3 items were re-coded. These items measured the attitude towards ad (toothbrush/diamonds) and were derived from Planken, Meurs and Radlinska (2010). Participants were asked for example to respond to the statement: 'This ad is..', 'functional', by rating their answers in a 7-point Likert scale (from 1= 'totally agree' to $7=$ 'totally disagree' and for the recoded items vice versa).

Furthermore, to measure the attitude towards the ad 7 semantic differentials were used (two items were re-coded) on a 7-point scale. Participants were asked to evaluate the ad responding to: 'I evaluate this ad as': $1=$ 'difficult' $-7=$ 'easy'. The reliability of the attitude
towards the toothbrush ad comprising 14 items was adequate ( $\alpha=.72$ ) and towards the diamonds ad was also adequate ( $\alpha=.75$ ).

## Attitude towards the product

For the variable attitude towards the product 11 semantic differentials were used, derived from Gopinath and Glassman (2008). The participants were asked to rate both products (toothbrush/diamonds) on a 7-point scale: 'This product is'- for example, $1=$ 'pleasant'$7=$ 'unpleasant'. Five semantic differentials were re-coded (e.g. 1= low quality- 7= high quality, became $1=$ high quality- $7=$ low quality). The reliability of the attitude towards the product comprising 11 items was good for the toothbrush $(\alpha=.83)$ as well as for the diamonds ( $\alpha=.88$ ).

## Purchase intention

Furthermore, to measure the purchase intention of the products (toothbrush/diamonds) a 7-point Likert scale (1= 'I totally agree', 7= 'I totally disagree') was used for items such as: ‘I would consider buying this product'(Planken, Meurs \& Radlinska, 2010). The reliability of the purchase intention scale comprising 3 items was adequate for the toothbrush ( $\alpha=.79$ ) and good for the diamonds ( $\alpha=.84$ ).

## Language associations and language status

In addition, 11 questions were asked with regard to the perceived language associations that participants have with French and English (for the all the items of the scale, see appendix V).

The items for the language associations control variable were derived from Krishna \& Alhuwalia (2008). The language associations 7-point scale consisted of 4 ratings on the dimension belongingness language associations anchored for instance by $1=$ 'impersonal' 7 = 'personal', and 3 items on the dimension sophistication language associations on a 7 -point scales anchored by for example $1=$ 'local' $-7=$ 'global'. Furthermore, 4 items were added from the language status scale for both English and Canadian French. These items, such as: 'the following languages are highly regarded in Canadian society (have a prestigious image)', derived from Lai (2007) were rated on a 7-point likert scale (from 1='I strongly agree' to 7= 'I strongly disagree'). The reliability of the language associations scale comprising 11 items was insufficient for English $(\alpha=.50)$ and insufficient for Canadian French ( $\alpha=.42$ ).

Hence the 4 items of the language status scale were measured separately. The reliability of language status of both Canadian French and English comprising 8 items was adequate $\alpha=.75$.

Additionally, the reliability of the belongingness language associations dimension was measured separately. If the item 'I perceive the English (/Canadian French) language as': (anchoring $1=$ 'informal' $7=$ 'formal') was deleted, the alpha for belongingness language associations with the English language comprising 3 items became adequate $\alpha=.75$ (for Canadian French language $\alpha=.69)^{3}$.

Finally, one single item (anchoring 1= 'local' to $7=$ 'global') from the sophistication dimension as part of the language associations variable was taken into account as control variable. This single item, hereafter called local-globalness language associations control variable, is chosen because it seemed most relevant for this study based on the discussion to opt for globalization (using English) versus localization (or adaptation; using the French L1) for advertisements.

## Ethnocentricity

Finally, participants were asked to fill out the GENE-scale to test the participants' level of ethnocentricity (Neuliep \& McCroskey, 1997). Participants were asked to evaluate statements as: 'Other cultures should try to be more like my culture' on a 7 -point likert scale (from $1=$ ' $I$ strongly agree' to $7=$ 'I strongly disagree'), meaning that $1=$ high ethnocentricity and $7=$ low ethnocentricity. The reliability of the ethnocentricity level of the participants was based on Neuliep's (2002) revised ethnocentricity scale comprising 12 items (of which 3 items were recoded) which was adequate $\alpha=.78$.

## Demographics and Language proficiency

The questionnaire closed with items regarding demographics such as sex, age, nationality, mother tongue, city of residence, education level and perceived language proficiency in English and Canadian French. For the latter participants were asked to rate their own reading, listening, writing and speaking skills on a 7-point Likert scale (from 1=‘very bad’ to 7=‘very good')(Van Mulken \& Hendriks, 2014). The reliability of variable language proficiency comprising 5 items was good $\alpha=.87$ for the Canadian French language and also good $\alpha=.89$ for English language.

The questionnaire was translated from English into Canadian French by a native bilingual Canadian and checked by another native Canadian bilingual which led to changes in the questionnaire (appendix IV). The questionnaire was available in both English and French,

[^2]so participants could opt for the language they preferred. Counter-balancing was used, in order to avoid automatic scoring by the participants (Planken, van Meurs \& Radlinska, 2010).

### 3.6 Procedure

Firstly, this study was submitted to the ethics board of McGill University and University of Ottawa to be allowed to collect the data at the university campuses. The procedure is therefore conform the ethics committee guidelines of these universities. For 20 days, participants were approached individually at the university of Ottawa, McGill University and in Parc du Mont Royale and Parc de la Fontaine, Montreal on a daily basis between 1-5 pm in July 2015. The participants were randomly assigned to either three version of the ad, by handing out alternately piled the hard copy questionnaires. The oral script for asking the participants to participate and its specific procedure can be found in appendix VII. The questionnaires were also available online via a link to the questionnaire in Qualtrics (link:
http://ciw.ruhosting.nl/webenquetes/jb/) in Radboud University format. Qualtrics.com automatically randomised the versions.

### 3.7 Statistical treatment

Five different statistical tests were carried out in SPSS (version 21.0) for this study. Firstly, a mixed ANOVA was used to investigate the first research question. Secondly, single linear regression analyses were carried out for ethnocentricity to test the second research question. Thirdly, t-tests were carried out to check the control variables belongingness associations, global-localness associations and English/French Canadian language statuses. Fourthly, ChiSquare tests were carried out to check for the distribution of the demographics per ad version in the method. Finally, non-parametric Mann-Whitney U-tests were carried out to check for the distributions of answers for the dependent variables and ethnocentricity depending on the mother tongue of the participants. Please note that all variable scales for attitude, purchase intention and ethnocentricity are from $1=$ high to $7=$ low.

## 4. Results

In this section the results of this study are presented.

### 4.1 Language Choice and Product Type

The results of the effect of language choice (English/mixed/French) and product type (diamonds- high priced luxury products; toothbrush - low priced necessity product) and their interaction on the attitudes and purchase intention are presented. Table 1 . shows the means and standard deviations for these factors on the dependent variables attitude towards the $\mathrm{ad} /$ product and purchase intention.

Table 1. Means and standard deviations of language choice (English, Mixed, French) and product type (diamonds, toothbrush) on the three dependent variables ( $1=$ high, $7=$ low)

|  | Attitude towards the ad ( $\mathrm{n}=84$ ) |  | Attitude towards the product ( $\mathrm{n}=89$ ) |  | Purchase intention$(\mathrm{n}=89)$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| English ( $\mathrm{n}=32$ ) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Toothbrush | 3.99 | 0.70 | 3.40 | 0.84 | 4.94 | 1.59 |
| Diamonds | 4.00 | 0.87 | 3.12 | 1.11 | 4.13 | 1.21 |
| Total English | 4.00 | 0.55 | 3.23 | 0.79 | 4.53 | 1.01 |
| Mixed language ( $n=30$ ) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Toothbrush | 4.40 | 0.51 | 4.11 | 0.72 | 5.20 | 1.12 |
| Diamonds | 4.37 | 0.70 | 3.78 | 1.05 | 5.55 | 1.23 |
| Total mixed language | 4.38 | 0.54 | 3.94 | 0.79 | 5.38 | 1.00 |
| $\underline{\text { French ( } n=30 \text { ) }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Toothbrush | 4.29 | 0.69 | 3.72 | 0.82 | 4.46 | 1.58 |
| Diamonds | 4.42 | 0.73 | 3.93 | 1.06 | 5.87 | 1.53 |
| Total French | 4.36 | 0.55 | 3.82 | 0.79 | 5.16 | 0.19 |
| Total Toothbrush | 4.23 | 0.65 | 3.74 | 0.84 | 5.44 | 1.50 |
| Total Diamonds | 4.27 | 0.78 | 3.60 | 1.12 | 4.58 | 1.38 |

## Attitude towards the ad

A repeated measures analysis for attitude towards the ad with product type (diamonds as high
priced luxury product and toothbrush as low priced necessity product) as within-subject factor and language (chosen) in the ad (English, mixed, Canadian French) as between-subject factor showed no significant main effect of product type $\left(F(1,84)<1, p=.683, \eta^{2}=.002\right)$, but a significant main effect of the language (chosen) in the ad $\left(F(1,84)=4.43, p=.015, \eta^{2}=.10\right)$. This means that the overall participants' attitude towards the six mock ads, with the three ads picturing the toothbrush and the three ads picturing the diamonds, was slightly negative, regardless of the language of the ads.

There was no significant interaction effect between product type and the language (chosen) in the ad $\left(F(2,84)<1, p=.761, \eta^{2}=.006\right)$.

A Tukey HSD post-hoc test showed that the bilinguals had a significantly more positive attitude towards the toothbrush and the diamonds ads when the ads were in English ( $M=4.00, S D=0.55$ ) than when the ads were in French $(M=4.36, S D=0.55)(p=.039)$ or mixed languages $(M=4.38, S D=0.54)(p=.024)$. No differences were found between French or the mixed language ad version $(p=.977)$. Since there is no significant interaction effect, this main effect for the language (chosen) in the ad accounts for both the ad with the toothbrush and the ad with the diamonds.

## Attitude towards the product

A repeated measures analysis for attitude towards the product with product type (diamonds and toothbrush) as within-subject factor and language (chosen) in the ad (English, mixed, French) as between-subject factor showed no significant main effect of product type ( $F(1,89$ ) $\left.=8.23, p=.214, \eta^{2}=.02\right)$ and a significant main effect of language (chosen) in the ad ( $F$ (1, $\left.89)=22.54, p<.001, \eta^{2}=.13\right)$. This lack of significant main effect for product type means that the overall participants' attitude towards the products (toothbrush and diamonds) was somewhat positive, irrespectively of the language of the ads wherein the products were displayed. No significant interaction effect was found between product type and the language chosen in the ad $\left(F(2,89)=4.63, p=.082, \eta^{2}=.06\right)$.

A Tukey HSD post-hoc test showed that the bilinguals had a significantly more positive attitude towards the toothbrush and the diamonds products when the ads were in English than when they were in mixed languages or Canadian French. This means that bilinguals who evaluated the English ads ( $M=3.23, S D=0.79$ ) had a significantly more positive attitude towards the products than the bilinguals who evaluated the Canadian French $(M=3.82, S D=0.79)(p=.017)$ or mixed language ads $(M=3.94, S D=0.79)(p=.003)$. No differences were found between Canadian French or the mixed language ad versions
( $p=.828$ ). There is no significant interaction effect, so this main effect of the language (chosen) in the ad counts for both the ad with the toothbrush and the ad with the diamonds.

## Purchase intention

A repeated measures analysis for the intention to purchase the product with product type (diamonds and toothbrush) as within-subject factor and language chosen in the ad (English, mixed, French) as between-subject factor showed a significant main effect of product type ( $F$ $\left.(1,89)=18.76, p<.001, \eta^{2}=.17\right)$ and a significant main effect of chosen language in the $\operatorname{ad}\left(F(2,89)=5.86, p=.004, \eta^{2}=.12\right)$. This main effect of product type means that Canadian bilinguals have more intention to purchase the toothbrush ( $M=4.58, S D=1.38$ ) than the diamonds ( $M=5.44, S D=1.50$ ), irrespectively of the language of the ad. There was no significant interaction effect between product type and the language chosen in the ad ( $F$ (2, 89) $\left.=2.32, p=.104, \eta^{2}=.05\right)$.

A Tukey HSD post-hoc test showed that the bilinguals had the intention to purchase both the toothbrush and the diamonds significantly more when the ad is in English than when either in mixed languages or French. Also, the results of this post-hoc test mean that bilinguals who evaluated the English ads ( $M=4.53, S D=1.01$ ) had a significantly higher intention to purchase the products than the bilinguals who evaluated the ads that were in Canadian French $(M=5.16, S D=1.00)(p=.043)$ or in mixed language $(M=5.38, S D=1.00)$ ( $p=.004$ ). No differences were found in purchase intention between the Canadian French or the mixed language ad version ( $p=.687$ ). However, since there is no interaction effect, these main effects for purchase intention due to the language of the ad and due to the product in the ad, are not related to each other.

## Control Variables

## Belongingness language associations

A paired sample T-test showed a significant difference between English and Canadian French belongingness language association $(t(90)=2.57, p<.012)$.This means that, the Canadian bilinguals had more associations of belongingness with the English language ( $M=4.27, S D=$ 0.82 ) than they had associations of belongingness with the Canadian French language $(M=4.56, S D=0.76)(1=$ belongingness $-7=$ no belongingness $)$. Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations of the belongingness language associations.

Table 2. Belongingness language associations for English and Canadian French (1= belongingness associations; 7= no belongingness associations)

|  | Belongingness language associations |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Language | $M$ | $S D$ | $n$ |
| English | 4.27 | 0.82 | 90 |
| Canadian French | 4.56 | 0.76 | 90 |

## Local-globalness language associations

A paired sample T-test showed a significant difference between English and Canadian French local-globalness language association $(t(92)=14.02, p<.001)$. This means that the Canadian bilinguals perceived the English language as more global ( $M=6.30, S D=1.17$ ) while they perceived the Canadian French language as more local $(M=2.99, S D=1.81)(1=$ local $-7=$ global).Table 3 for shows the means and standard deviations of the local-globalness language associations.

Table 3. Localness versus globalness language associations of English and Canadian French ( $1=$ local; $7=$ global $)$

Language local-globalness language associations

|  | $M$ | $S D$ | $n$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| English | 6.30 | 1.17 | 92 |
| Canadian French | 2.99 | 1.81 | 92 |

## Language status

A paired sample t-test showed a significant difference between English and Canadian French language status evaluations $(t(91)=8.74, p<.001)$. This means that the Canadian bilinguals evaluated the English language as having more positive language status ( $M=1.74, S D=$ 1.00) while they evaluated the French language less ( $M=2.83, S D=1.11$ ). Table 4 for shows the means and standard deviations of the English and Canadian French language status.
Table 4. Language status of English and Canadian French (1= high; 7=low)

| Language | Language status evaluations |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $M$ | $S D$ | $n$ |
| English | 1.74 | 1.00 | 91 |
| Canadian French | 2.83 | 1.11 | 91 |

### 4.2 Ethnocentricity

The effect of the predictor ethnocentricity was measured on the attitude towards the ad and the product and purchase intention. Files where split for the language in the ad to measure ethnocentricity per language version (English, Canadian French, mixed languages).

Attitude towards the ad: English and Canadian French language ad
A simple regression analysis showed that ethnocentricity was no significant predictor of attitude to the $\operatorname{ad}(\beta=.32, p=.108)$ when the ad was in English or Canadian French $(\beta=.27$, $p=.157$ ).

Attitude towards the product: English and Canadian French language ad A simple regression analysis showed that ethnocentricity was no significant predictor of attitude to the product $(\beta=.13, p=.480)$ when the ad is English or Canadian French $(\beta=.09$, $p=.629$ ).

Purchase intention: English and Canadian French language ad
A simple regression analysis showed that ethnocentricity explained $14 \%$ of the variance in the Canadian bilinguals' purchase intention $(F(1,29)=6.14, p=.019)$ when the ad was in English. Ethnocentricity levels of the balanced bilingual Canadians were shown to be a significant predictor of purchase intention ( $\beta=.42, p=.019$ ) when the ad is in English and not to be a significant predictor of purchase intention when the ad was in Canadian French ( $\beta$ $=.23, p=.222$ ). If ethnocentricity goes up from ( $1=$ ) high to $(7=)$ low then the purchase intention goes up with .42 SD ( $1=$ high to $7=$ low) when the ad is in English, given that all other variables are kept constant. This means that for the English ad it can be predicted that when the participants' level of ethnocentricity lowers, then the participants' purchase intention lowers as well.

Table 5. Regression analysis for the variable ethnocentricity that predict the purchase intention when the ad is in English $(N=31)(1=$ high; $7=$ low $)$

| variable | $B$ | $S E B$ | $\beta$ |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Ethnocentricity | .61 | .25 | $.42^{*}$ |
| $R^{2}$ | .15 |  |  |
| F | $6.14^{*}$ |  |  |
| $* p<.05)$ |  |  |  |

* $p<.05$ )


## 5. Conclusion and Discussion

The aim of this research was to investigate the influence of the language chosen in the ad (English, mixed language and Canadian French), the influence of the product type (toothbrush or diamond) displayed in the ad and their interaction on the attitude towards the ad, the product and the purchase intention of balanced bilingual Canadian consumers in Canada. Furthermore, this study aimed to investigate whether ethnocentricity would predict the attitude towards the ad, the product and the purchase intention depending on the language displayed in the ad. Finally, this study tested whether the control variables belongingness associations, local-globalness associations and language status evaluations differed per language (Canadian French and English) for balanced bilingual Canadian consumers.

The main findings of this research (RQ1) demonstrated that balanced bilingual Canadian consumers evaluated both the ads and the products (toothbrush \& diamonds) displayed in the ad as more positive and had more intention to purchase both the toothbrush and the diamonds when the language in the ads was English rather than mixed languages or Canadian French. It was also found that Canadian bilingual consumers had significantly more intention to purchase the toothbrush than the diamonds independent of the language of the ad wherein the products were displayed.

Furthermore, the balanced bilingual Canadians had more belongingness associations with the English language rather than the Canadian French language. Also, in accordance to the expectations English is perceived as a global language by the balanced bilingual Canadians while Canadian French is perceived as a local language. In addition according to the Canadian balanced bilinguals, English had a more positive (social) language status than the Canadian French language.

The final main finding (RQ2) showed that ethnocentricity predicted the purchase intention of the bilingual Canadian consumers when the advertisements were in English.

In this section, first the hypotheses and its answers will be discussed and linked to the theoretical background, consequently possible explanations will be given for the findings. After that, the limitations will be discussed followed by the recommendations for future research. Finally, the discussion section will be closed with the scientific and practical implications.

### 5.1 Hypotheses and theoretical implications \& explanations

Based on previous literature the first three hypotheses (h1a, h1b, h2) were established. Hypotheses 1a and 1b concerned the effect of language choice (English, mixed, Canadian French) and the direction that Canadian French (/English or mixed) ads would provide more positive (/negative) attitudes and purchase intention than English and the mixed (/Canadian French) ads.

Previous research that specifically studied the role of language in advertisement in Europe among developed countries as Spain, France, the Netherlands, Belgium and Poland (Gerritsen, et al., 2007; Gerritsen, Nickerson, van Hooft \& van Meurs, 2010; Planken, Meurs \& Radlinska, 2010) found that there are no significant differences between the use of the local language and English in advertisements with regard to the attitude and purchase intention. In these countries English was perceived as neutral, however English did not have the official language status. In addition, the participants in these studies were imbalanced bilinguals.

Therefore this study based its hypotheses on the study of Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008). They found in an interaction between language and product type that English is preferred in luxury product ads, mixed languages are preferred in necessity or not clearly defined necessity-luxury product ads.

Contradictory to the studies discussed above, the results of this study showed that Canadian bilinguals had a more positive (or less negative) attitude towards the ad, the product and purchase intention when the ad was in English rather than Canadian French or mixed language ads, irrespectively of whether the low priced necessity good (toothbrush) or the high priced luxury good (diamonds) was displayed in the ad. Therefore hypothesis h1a and 1 b are not confirmed and opposite effects are found. Subsequently, in this study the CAT seems not to apply for this specific group of bilinguals which evaluated these specific product ads. Namely, the CAT poses that when the ad is in Canadian French (which means it is adapted to the ethnic group's language) it would enhance favourability to the advertisements (Giles, Taylor, Bourhis, 1973). In the current study this is not the case.

A possible explanation for this preference of English instead of Canadian French for the balanced bilingual Canadians could be that English is often positively associated with "modernity and progress, globalization and youthfulness" as was found in the study of KellyHolmes (2000 p.71) and Piller (2003, p.175). In addition, the results of the control variable local-globalness associations substantiates this possible explanation, because there is a significant difference per language, in which English is evaluated as a global language and Canadian French as a local language.

A possible explanation why a mixed language ad is not preferred could be that it is a fairly unknown way of communicating a message. Though in Montreal and Ottawa all signs in public areas and all government communication is bilingual, the full text is always present in both Canadian French and English (Planchon, 2014). In this ad, however, the text was partly English, partly Canadian French, with the slogan in English and the body copy in Canadian French. This format was based on the theory of Ahn and LaFerle (2008) who found in their study that English slogans attracted attention and that the native language in the body copy helps comprehensibility and are therefore preferred. However, this format of mixed language in the ad could have led to confusion, because it is not what the bilingual Canadians are used to and therefore could have caused the lack of results.

A possible explanation why Canadian French in the ad is not preferred could be that different forms of communication, for example via speech in face-to-face conversations or via persuasive written communication in products ads, have different effects on the attitude and purchase intention. This explanation could be substantiated by this study and the findings of Giles et al. (1973) which showed that French Canadians liked English speakers better who did their oral communication in Canadian French which means they like people more like themselves better (Byrne, 1971). On the contrary, in this study the communication via written product advertisement is liked best in English. So it could that the social identity theory in which people have a more positive attitude to a message which is more conform their ingroup communication (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel and Turner, 1986) is less present in written communication.

Based on the interaction (language * product type) research of Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008) the last hypothesis (h2) of RQ1 was created. This hypothesis concerned the effect of product type (diamonds as high priced luxury products and a toothbrush as a low priced necessity product) when the ad was in the English, mixed languages or Canadian French. Next to the effect of product type this hypothesis measured the interaction with language choice on the attitudes and purchase intention.

While Krishna and Alhuwalia's research was carried out in the developing country India (Douglas \& Craig, 2011), van Hooft and Truong (2012) performed their study in a bilingual area of the developed country Hong Kong. In both studies the languages used had an official status. Van Hooft and Truong (2012) found that in very high priced diamond (as used in this study) ads, English was evaluated as more functional, fluent, attractive, sympathetic, pleasant and appealing than the Cantonese language ad. However, it should be noted that in this study of van Hooft and Truong, the participants were only female, and could therefore
have these positive evaluations.
Contradictory to the results of the study of Krishna and Alhuwalia (2008) and van Hooft and Truong (2012) neither interaction effects nor product type effects for diamonds were found in this study. Instead there was only a significant effect of product type (toothbrush) on the purchase intention. The balanced bilingual French English Canadians had in general more intention to purchase the toothbrush than the diamonds, independent of the language of the ad in which they were displayed. Therefore also h 2 is not confirmed.

A possible explanation for the lack effects for attitude toward product, and the found results of more purchase intention for toothbrush could be the following:
Although participants were approached through convenient sampling most participants were in the age between 17 and 27 and thus probably either a student or a starter. It is therefore possible that this sample of participants did not take the diamond ads into consideration because they could not relate to it, or could not see themselves purchase it, because they could probably not afford it.

Concluding, based on these results marketers could opt for a global marketing strategy (Dumitrescu \& Vinerean, 2010; Levitt, 1983) in this bilingual area of Canada in which they could standardize their advertising by using English (Gerritsen et al., 2007; Hornikx, et al, 2010) because balanced bilingual Canadian consumers have a more positive (/less negative) attitude toward the ad and products and more purchase intention when the ad is in English. This would make English product advertising and more effective. Adaptation of the language in product ads seems not to have more positive effects on attitudes and therefore the communication accommodation theory (CAT) seems not to apply.

The final two hypotheses (h3a,h3b) concerned the predictor ethnocentricity and whether different levels of ethnocentricity would predict the attitude and purchase intention depending on the ad's language. It was hypothesized that (h3a) high levels of ethnocentricity would predict positive attitudes and purchase intention towards the Canadian French ads and (h3b) high levels of ethnocentricity would predict negative attitude and purchase intention towards the English ad.

These hypotheses were based on the study of Liu et al. (2006) and Sharma et al. (1995) who found that high ethnocentricity is related to lower attitudes and purchase intentions when the brand name is in the foreign language (L2) or when the products were foreign instead of local. These studies were carried out in China and the US. The participants in these studies showed quite similar ethnocentricity levels, however it should be taken into
account that in the studies of Liu et al. (2006) and Sharma et al. (1995) the participants were imbalanced bilingual and thus English was evaluated a foreign language.

Nevertheless, contradictory to the study of Liu et al. (2006) who showed that the higher the ethnocentricity, the lower the attitude towards English brand names, this study showed no significant predictor effect for attitude when the ad was in English or Canadian French. However, it did show a significant positive predictor effect of ethnocentricity for purchase intention. So when participants' ethnocentricity level lowers, there is less intention to purchase when the ad is in English.

Therefore hypotheses 3 a and 3 b are not confirmed, meanwhile different effects occur for purchase intention. Overall ethnocentricity levels were low and lacked dispersion ( $M=$ 5.97, $S D=0.71 ; 1=$ high ethnocentricity; $7=$ low ethnocentricity) which could have contributed to the lack of significant results for attitude. Subsequently, these lack of significant results could be explained by the fact that the balanced bilingual Canadians in this study were relatively young (17-33 years old). Liu et al. (2006) found that the younger the age of the participants the lower the ethnocentricity levels. It could also be that Canada is a country where people from many different cultures (Inuit's, Englishmen, Frenchmen, Chinese) live together since the establishment of the nation of Canada, so Canadians are used to being part of a multicultural society.

However, it could also be that because of friction on the level of language between the English speaking part of Canada and the Canadian French speaking part, the questions in the questionnaire were too sensitive to ask via a questionnaire, and should be handled with more care for example via an interview. It could be that due to this sensitive language issue, the bilingual Canadian participants gave socially desirable answers, which could cause them to rate themselves low on ethnocentricity, meaning that they evaluate all cultures as more or less equal to their own.

### 5.2 Limitations

There are several limitations to this research. First of all, this study did pre-test for product associations and found that diamonds are perceived as high priced luxury goods and the toothbrush as a low priced necessity good. However, the English and Canadian French language associations were never pre-tested on their belongingness level and sophistication level. Thus it was never known in this study whether the English language was more relevant and better matched with a luxury good as diamonds or with a the necessity good as a toothbrush. The same accounts for the Canadian French language. The control variable
belongingness even showed that Canadian bilinguals evaluated English with more belongingness associations than Canadian French. At the same time the local-globalness control variable as single item for sophistication showed that English was perceived as global while Canadian French was perceived as local. In addition the control variable for language status showed that English had a more positive (social) language status than Canadian French. This could explain the significantly more positive attitude towards the ad, the product and purchase intention when the ad was in English, irrespectively whether a necessity or a luxury product was displayed. Future research could measure for mediation effects of the factor language associations (belongingness-sophistication) or language status/attitude on attitude and purchase intention among balanced bilinguals.

In this study there were also several methodological limitations. First, the methodological limitation concerned the sample. A very important limitation is that the sample is heterogeneous when it comes to mother tongue, because next to Canadian French participants also had English as their L1 or where trilingual. Although there were no differences found in the answers for purchase intention and ethnocentricity for the three groups, mother tongue did have an influence for attitude. The results of this study, especially with regard to attitude should therefore be interpreted with caution. In future research the group should be more homogeneous to provide more reliable results. Also, the participants in this research were young Canadian bilingual consumers (17-33 years old). The research aimed at participants in this age range since there would be a larger chance that they would be balanced bilingual because they would have (had) an education both in Canadian French and English. Therefore, the older generation of mostly Canadian French-English Canadian bilingual consumers are not targeted in this research. It could be that there is a different effect of language on attitude and purchase intention for these two groups, because younger people might see English as an opportunity to communicate internationally. According to KellyHolmes (2000, p. 71) 'neutral identity' English would stand for globalization, progress and youthfulness which might fit better to a younger generation. On the other hand, older people might feel more connected to the French heritage or might be more ethnocentric. The consequence of this one-sided young group of balanced bilinguals is that the results cannot be generalized to the whole population of Canadian French-English Canadian bilinguals. Future research could investigate whether the findings in this study also apply to the older generation of Canadian French- English Canadian bilinguals.

The second limitation concerns the lack of pre-testing the text in the ad. This study did not pre-test the text, consisting of a slogan and body copy text in the ad and how bilinguals
would evaluate this text. Also, this study did not pre-test different combinations of ad text as well as the chosen products (toothbrush and diamonds) and which combinations would be preferred. Pre-testing the ad's text in combination with the products used in the ad could have given an explanation for the negative attitude and purchase intention of the mock advertisements in this study. If the mock ads were pre-tested then for example the credibility and professionalism of the advertisements could have been tested. The advertisements could have been optimised in case the credibility and professionalism of the ads were low. In turn the optimized ads could perhaps have led to more positive ad evaluations or even different results than the ones found in the current study.

Intertwined with the second limitation is the third methodological limitation which concern the translation of the texts. In this study the English text was the original and the Canadian French texts were translated by a native balanced bilingual from this original. For this study there was no real back translation rather than another native bilingual who checked for unclear and ambiguous sentences in the already translated texts. This might have led to small but significant differences in meaning and clearness which in turn could have caused the more negative attitude towards the ad, product and less purchase intention when the ad was in Canadian French or mixed languages.

### 5.3 Scientific and practical relevance

The scientific relevance of this study is that it sheds light on the effect of language choice (English, Canadian French, or mixed) in combination with product type (high priced or low priced) on attitude towards the ad and product and the purchase intention of French Canadian consumers in Canada. Besides, this research will focus on the unique bilingual area of EastCanada where not only the English language, but also Canadian French has an official status (Rowicka, 2006, p.194). This study is carried out to see whether the CAT can be supported in Canada and if the adaptation approach is the best opted approach for marketers in French Canada. Furthermore, this study also took into account ethnocentricity which is linked to the social identity theory and is a relevant argument for the existence of the CAT.

By doing so, this research contributes to defining the boundaries of the effect of language choice to bilinguals, because it tested the generalizability of the previously found results in India and Hong Kong (Krishna \& Alhuwalia, 2008; van Hooft \& Truong, 2012) and combined the studies in these countries with the study of ethnocentricity effects in the US (Koslow, Shamdashani \& Touchstone, 1994; Sharma et al. 1995; Liu et al.,2006)).

The practical relevance of this research is that it gives insights into language preferences of Canadian balanced bilingual consumers which could be used by marketers to adjust their advertising campaigns to the preferred approach (standardized versus adaptation) (Ryan et al., 2008; Bhatia \& Bhargava, 2008). In this specific case the standardization approach would be recommended to opt for, because English is evaluated as more positive and generates more intention to purchase both high priced luxury products as diamonds and low priced necessity products as toothbrushes. Since the rest of Canada has the official language English and thus it is the native L1, it would be most cost efficient (e.g.no translation costs; Laroche, Kirpalani \& Darmon, 1999) as well as most effective and subsequently recommended to keep all the products ads in Canada in English. Also, the use of English could help create a consistent international brand and it could contribute to the overall image of MNCs (Hornikx, et al., 2010; Mueller, 1992).

### 5.4 Recommendations for future research

First it is recommended to replicate this study in which language choice and product type in the ad and their interaction is included. Future research, however should take into consideration a larger homogenous sample of balanced bilinguals, who all have the same first language (Canadian French). It should also use a wider range of age groups and a larger sample, since there could be a relationship between age and language attitude or associations. Age could become a predictor for attitude towards the ad and language attitude depending on the language displayed in the ad. Future research could also replicate the study with a group of balanced and imbalanced French-English Canadians, to see whether the level of proficiency influences the attitude towards an ad in French or English.

Secondly this studies recommends to do more research into the effects of ethnocentricity on the attitude and purchase intention of product ads depending on the language in the ad when advertising to bilinguals (Canadians). Possibly, future research could test if there is a mediation effect of ethnocentricity between language in the ad and purchase intention.

Thirdly, this study recommends to survey the Canadian French and English language associations, language attitude and language status as well as the attitudes towards different ads with English and Canadian French text. Consequently, qualitative research could look into why for example English is more preferred in product advertisement.

Last but not least, it would be recommended to investigate whether the effects of
language also occur in other media such as print advertising of the government, since the government always communicates in both languages in the French parts of Canada (Mackay, 2006; Planchon, 2014) and in other forms as oral communication such as advertisement on the radio, television or social media.

## References

Adorno, T., Frenkel-Brunswick, E., Levinson, D. J., \& Sanford, R. N. (1950). The authoritarian personality. New York: Harper and Row.

Agrawal, M. (1995). Review of a 40-year debate in international advertising. International Marketing Review, 12(1), 26-48.

Ahn, J., \& La Ferle, C. (2008). Enhancing recall and recognition for brand names and body copy. Journal of Advertising, 37(3), 107-117.

Barner-Rasmussen, W., \& Björkman, I. (2007). Language fluency, socialization and inter-unit relationships in Chinese and Finnish subsidiaries. Management and Organization Review, 3(1), 105-128.

Bearden, W. O., \& Etzel, M.J. (1982). Reference group influence on product and brand purchase decisions, Journal of Consumer Research, 9(2), 183-193.

Bhatia, T.K. \& Bhargava, M. (2008). Reaching the unreachable: Resolving globalization versus localization paradox. Journal of Creative Communications, 3(2), 209-230.

Bhatia, T.K., \& Ritchie, W.C. (2008). Bilingualism of the Global Media and Advertising. In Bhatia, T.K., \& Ritchie, W.C. (Eds). Handbook of Bilingualism (pp. 514-546). Oxford: Backwell Publishing.

Booth, K. (1979). Strategy \& ethnocentrism. London: Croom-Helm.

Byrne (1971). The Attraction Paradigm. New York: Academic Press.

De Mooij, M. (2005). Global marketing and advertising: Understanding cultural paradoxes (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dimofte, C., Forehand, M., \& Deshpandé, R. (2004). Ad schema incongruity as elicitor of self-ethnic awareness and differential advertising response. Journal of Advertising, 32(4), 7-17.

Douglas, S.P., \& Craig, S.C. (2011). Convergence and divergence: Developing a semiglobal marketing strategy. Journal of International Marketing, 19(1), 82-101.

Dimitrescu, L., \& Vinerean, S. (2010). The glocal strategy of global brands. Studies in Business and Economics, 5(3), 147-155.

Dufour, R., \& Kroll, J. (1995). Matching words to concepts in two languages: A test of the concept mediation model of bilingual representation. Memory and Cognition, 23(2), 166-180.

Edgington, D.W., \& Hayter, R. (2013). "Glocalization" and Regional Headquarters: Japanese Electronics Firms in the ASEAN Region. Annals of the Association of American Geographers, 103(3), 647-668.

Erez, M., \& Earley, C. P. (1993). Culture, Self-identity and Work. New York: Oxford University Press.

Gade, D.W. (2003). Language, identity, and the scriptorial landscape in Quebec and Catalonia. Geographical Review, 93 (4), 429-448.

Gerritsen, M., Nickerson, C., Van den Brandt, C., Crijns, R., Domınguez, N., Van Meurs, F., et al. (2007). English in print advertising in Germany, Spain and the Netherlands: Frequency of occurrence, comprehensibility and the effect on corporate image. In G. Garzone \& C. Ilie (Eds.). The use of English in institutional and business settings. An intercultural perspective. Linguistic Insights. Studies in language and communication (34, pp.79-98). Bern: Peter Lang.

Gerritsen, M., Nickerson, C., Van Hooft, A., Van Meurs, F., Nederstigt, U., Starren, M., et al. (2010). English in product advertisements in Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Spain. World Englishes, 26(3), 291-315.

Giles, H., Coupland, N., \& Coupland, J. (1991). Accommodation Theory: Communication, Context, and Consequences, in Giles et al. (eds). Contexts of Accommo- dation. Developments in Applied Sociolinguistics (pp 1-68). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Giles, H., Taylor, D.M, \& Bourhis, R.Y. (1973). Toward a theory of interpersonal accommodation through speech accommodation: Some Canadian data. Language in Society, 2,177-192.

Gopinath, M. \& Glassman, M. (2008). The Effect of Multiple Language Product Descriptions on Product Evaluations, Psychology \& Marketing, 25(3), 233-261.

Hakuta, K., \& Diaz, R.M. (1985). The relationship between degree of bilingualism and cognitive ability: A critical discussion and some new longitudinal data. In Nelson, K.E. (Eds.). Children's Language (pp. 320-344). Hills-dale, NJ: Lawrence Erblaum Associate Publishers.

Hooft, A.P.J.V. van, \& Truong, T. (2012). Language choice and persuasiveness. The effects of the use of English in product advertisements in Hong Kong. In P. Heynderickx, S. Dieltjens, G. Jacobs, P. Gillaerts \& E. de Groot (Eds.). The Language factor in international business: New perspectives on research, teaching and practice. Linguistic Insights Series (pp. 175-198). Bern: Peter Lang.

Hornikx, J., Van Meurs, F., \& De Boer, A. (2010). English or a Local language in Advertising? Journal of Business Communication, 47 (2), 169-188.

Karande, K., Almurshidee, K. A., \& Al-Olayan, F. (2006). Advertising standardisation in culturally similar markets: Can we standardise all components? International Journal of Advertising, 25(4), 489-512.

Kelly-Holmes, H. (2000). Bier, parfum, kaas: Language fetish in European advertising. European Journal of Cultural Studies, 3, 67-82

Kotler, P. (1986). Global Standardisation: Courting Danger. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 3 (2), 13-15.

Koslow, S., Shamdasani, P. N., \& Touchstone, E. E. (1994). Exploring language effects in ethnic advertising: A sociolinguistic perspective. Journal of Consumer Research, 575585.

Kroll, J.F., \& de Groot, A. (1997). Lexical and conceptual memory in the bilingual: Mapping form to meaning in two languages. In de Groot, A. \& Kroll, J.F. (Eds.) Tutorials in Bilingualism: Psycholinguistic Perspectives (pp.169-199). Mahwah, NJ: Erblaum.

Krishna, A., \& Ahluwalia, R. (2008). Language choice in advertising to bilinguals: asymmetric effects for multinationals versus local firms. Journal of Consumer Research, 35(4), 692-705.

Lai, M-M. (2007). Gender and Language Attitudes: A Case of Postcolonial Hong Kong. International Journal of Multilingualism, 4(2), 83-116.

Laroche, M., Kirpalani, V. H., \& Darmon, R. (1999) .Determinants of the Control of International Advertising by Headquarters of Multinational Corporations. Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences,16, 273 - 290

Liu, F., Murphy, J., Li, J., \& Liu, X. (2006). English and Chinese? The role of consumer ethnocentrism and country of origin in Chinese attitudes towards store signs. Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ), 14 (2), 5-16

Luna, D., \& Peracchio, L. A. (1999). What's in a Bilingual's Mind?: How Bilingual Consumers Process Information. Advances in Consumer Research, 26, 306-311.

Luna, D., \& Peracchio, L. A. (2001). Moderators of language effects in advertising to bilinguals: A Psycholinguistic approach. The Journal of Consumer Research, 28(2), 284-295.

Levitt, Th. (1983). The Globalization of Markets. Harvard Business Review, 61 (3), $92-102$.

Mackay W.F. (2006). Bilingualism in North America. In Bhatia, T.K., \& Ritchie, W.C. (Eds). Handbook of Bilingualism (pp.607- 641). Oxford: Backwell Publishing.

Mueller, B. (1992). Standardizations vs specialization: An examination of Westernization in Japanese advertising. Journal of Advertising Research, 32(1), 15-24.

Mulken, M. van, \& Hendriks, B. (2014). Your language or mine? or ELF? Comparing effectiveness in English as a lingua franca and L1-L2 interactions: implications for corporate language policies. Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 00,1-20.

Neuliep, J. W. \& McCroskey, J. C. (1997). Development of a US and generalized ethnocentrism scale. Communication Research Reports, 14, 385-398.

Noriega, J., \& Blair, E. (2008). Advertising to bilinguals: Does the language of advertising influence the nature of thoughts? Journal of Marketing, 72(5), $69-83$.

Piller, I. (2003). Advertising as a site of language contact. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics 23, 170-183.

Planchon, C. (2004). Anglicisms and online journalism: Frequency and patterns of usage. Belas Infiéis, 3(2), 43-61.

Planken, B, Meurs, F. v., \& Radlinska, A. (2010). The effects of the use of English in Polish product advertisements: Implications for English for business purposes. English for Specific Purposes, 29(4), 225-242.

Rowicka, G. J. (2006). Canada: Language Situation. In Brown, Keith. Encyclopedia of Language \& Linguistics. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science. ISBN 978-0-08-044854-1.

Ryans, J. K., Griffith, D. A., \& Jain, S. (2008). A historical examination of the evolution of international advertising standardization/adaptation thought. Research in global strategic management, 14, 279-293.

Sachdev, I., \& Giles, H. (2008). Bilingual Accommodation. In Bhatia, T.K., \& Ritchie, W.C. (Eds). Handbook of Bilingualism (pp.353- 378). Oxford: Backwell Publishing.

Shao, A. T., Shai, L. P., \& Shao, D. H. (1992). Are global markets with standardized advertising campaigns feasible? Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 4(3), 5-46.

Sharma, S., Shimp, T., \& Shin, J. (1995). Consumer ethnocentrism: A test antecedents and moderators. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 23, 26-37.

Takashi, K. (1990). A sociolinguistic analysis of English borrowings in Japanese advertising texts. World Englishes, 9, 327-341.

Takashi, K. (1992). Language and desired identity in contemporary Japan. Journal of Asian Pacific Communication, 3, 133-144.

Tajfel, H. (1982). Social psychology of intergroup relations. Annual Review of Psychology, 33, 1-39.

Tajfel, H., \& Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel \& W. G. Austin (Eds.). Psychology of Intergroup Relations (pp.7-24). Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

The World Bank (n.d.). Data: GDP per capita. Retrieved from http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.CD on 14 April 2015.

Worchel, S. \& Cooper, J. (1979). Understanding social psychology. Homewood, IL: The Dorsey Press.

Zander, L., Mockaitis, A., \& Harzing,A.-W. (2011). Standardization and contextualization: A study of language and leadership across 17 countries. Journal of World business, 46, 296-304.

## Bibliography

Giles, H., \& Johnson, P. (1981). The role of language in ethnic group relations. In J. C. Turner \& H. Giles (eds.), Intergroup behaviour. Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 199-243.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ In 2013, GDP per capita in India was approximately $\$ 1,500$ (study Krishna \& Alhuwalia, 2008), \$38,000 in Hong Kong (study van Hooft \& Truong, 2012) and $\$ 51,000$ in Canada (World Bank Data, GDP per capita 2013 (n.d.). Therefore it is assumed that in Canada e.g. diamonds are seen as high priced luxury products and not chocolate.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ In this pre-test it was not taken into account if the Canadians were bilinguals or not, due to the limited time to carry out the pre-test. It was assumed that evaluations of the products (toothbrush, TV, diamonds) with regard to price range and product associations were the same for all Canadians.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Since belongingness is a control variable, the Alpha of .69 was accepted, however results and conclusions based on this variable should be handled with caution.

