ES *TAN* PURA Y *TAN* REFRESCANTE: LANGUAGE CHOICE IN CODESWITCHED

ADVERTISING SLOGANS TO BILINGUAL HISPANIC CONSUMERS.

by

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DISSERTATION ABSTRACT

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The Hispanic American population along with its purchasing power is on rise. For the advertising industry, there is a great potential in this market that researchers should delve into. Based on the Markedness Model and the Matrix Language Frame Model, this research employs two experiments to examine bilingual Hispanics' language preferences among an English-only, a Spanish-only, and a Spanglish (codeswitched) advertisement which include an adverbial intensifier in the slogan.

A total of 230 bilingual subjects participated in experiment one. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four print advertisements and were asked to mainly focus on the slogan. Subjects reported that language type (English) had a positive impact only on their attitudes towards the slogan. Intensified language, however, was not found significant. In terms of purchase intention, participants reported that neither language type nor intensified language had an impact on their attitudes. Nevertheless, when controlling for purchasing behavior, this variable had an impact on Hispanic consumers' purchase intention. Last, language type (Spanish) was found significant in participants' slogan recall, concluding that participants who saw the advertisement with the Spanish-

only version of the slogan recalled the slogan more in comparison to the participants who saw the advertisement with the English-only version of the slogan.

Using a second experiment (N=260) it was determined that codeswitched language (Majority-English) had an impact only on participants' attitudes towards the slogan and (Majority-Spanish) on the purchase intention. However, the language of the intensifier had no impact. Additionally, an interaction effect was found significant in terms of slogan recall, concluding that when participants saw an advertisement with the Majority-Spanish version of the slogan, participants recalled more words when the language of the intensifier was in Spanish compared to when it was in English. Lastly, this study also found that participants' attitudes towards codeswitching decreased after being exposed to an advertisement with a codeswitched slogan.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In today's society, people are exposed to thousands of advertising messages daily –between 4,000 and 10,000 approximately (Marshall, 2015). It may seem that not much thought goes into why someone buys a certain product or has preference to certain brands. The process of buying a product seems simple: you see it, you want it, you buy it, and you own it. This, however, may not necessarily be the case; it is actually a complex procedure which consists of thoughts, emotions, and decisions that will eventually lead to the final outcome: a purchase.

Each element of these advertisements we are exposed to in our daily life plays a fundamental role to elicit a change in our behavior and purchase intention. Whether it be the images or photos we see, the benefits the product may bring, or the catchy tagline, successful advertisements are designed strategically. One of the major elements of an advertisement are the words advertisers use to catch consumers' attention. Slogans or taglines are important elements for establishing a connection between a brand and its consumers (Keller, 2008). The language in which the advertisement is written is a key element to account for, while coming up with strategies or techniques to target consumers, especially in an era where more than half of the world's population is bilingual (Grosjean, 2010).

The use of language in advertising cannot be stressed enough. Whether it be a benefit statement, a promise, a reason why, or a unique selling proposition, the words used in an advertisement should call attention to consumers. Copywriters are in charge of crafting a specific message that should meet these selling premises. Copywriters should

have both the ability to carefully listen to how people use language to communicate among themselves, and the expertise to administer linguistic resources to create the perfect message. A straight-forward message, thus should attract the target audience' attention by making them think about the message and, eventually, about the product itself. This message needs to elicit attention, create interest, and should be memorable (Moriarty et al., 2019).

In the United States, the advertising industry faces consumers who speak languages other than English, such as Spanish. In regard to language, the term Hispanic highlights a linguistic commonality among people who come from Spanish-speaking countries. Hispanic is a term used only in the U.S. that describes ethnic self-identification and refers to a cultural or ethnic group (Lopez, Krogstad, & Passel, 2020). Hispanics are only Hispanics in the U.S.; in their home countries, the term is neither embraced nor used (Tienda & Mitchell, 2006).

The Hispanic population of the U.S. as of July 1, 2019 was 60.6 million, making people of Hispanic origin the nation's largest ethnic or racial minority, constituting 18.5% of the nation's total population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020). This demographic is projected to continue to grow and exert influence in consumer markets due to the fact that the population of Hispanics in the U.S. is expected to reach about 196 million in 2050 (Krogstad, 2014).

Hispanics are a market sector that should not be neglected; it remains critically important due to its size, its growth rate, and its purchasing power. It is neither surprising that each year more advertisers are turning to bilingual advertising to market their brands

and products, nor it is only important to advertise in English as well as Spanish; it is necessary to advertise to this market segment uniquely.

Given the growth of Hispanics in the U.S. workforce, the Hispanic advertising industry is poised for even larger gains, and even greater relevance on the national stage. With the projections of population growth in the years to come, Hispanic consumers, workers, and business owners will fortify the future of the U.S. economy particularly in the consumer goods and service industries (Llopis, 2013). According to the IBISWorld report, some sectors such as: food, retail, education, real estate, financial services, transportation, and entertainment and media industries have already managed to capture a large and growing share of the Hispanic market (Bueno, 2011). It is not surprising that major retailers and well-known brands are paying more attention to this thriving market. The importance of the Hispanic market is quite clear and it is a segment that certainly should be taken advantage of.

In the light of this trend, this dissertation contributes to the body of literature devoted to language choice in advertising to Hispanic American consumers, because it turns out that consumers in multilingual countries such as the U.S. become more aware of language preference in the advertisements they are exposed to. The point is that this demographic should understand the message that is being conveyed, the language used should also subtly communicate the feeling that the ideal customer is part of the group for this product or service.

In the U.S., about six-in-ten young adults (62%) speak English or are bilingual (Krogstad & Gonzalez-Barrera, 2015). In 2013, Spanish was the most spoken non-English language in the U.S., used by 35.8 million Hispanics (Gonzalez-Barrera &

Lopez, 2013). Bilingual individuals often face codeswitching –the use of mixed-language expressions– in their daily lives (Luna, Lerman, & Peracchio, 2005). Spanglish, a hybrid of both languages, is widely used among Hispanics ages 16 to 25; among these young Hispanics, 70% reported using Spanglish, according to an analysis about language use done by the Pew Research Center in 2009 (Krogstad & Gonzalez-Barrera, 2015).

When bilingual individuals start a conversation and then *empiezan a hablar español u otro idioma* and shift back to the initial language, *podemos decir que* they are codeswitching. 'When bilingual individuals start a conversation and then they start speaking Spanish and/or other language, and again they shift to the initial language, we can say that they are code-switching.' The most common type of codeswitching happens when speakers switch back and forth between two languages as the example previously given. Another form of codeswitching involves translating words from one language to another. Bilinguals may face this issue when they cannot find the appropriate word for what they mean in one language or they simply do not know (Moreno, Federmeier, & Kutas, 2002).

Because of the ample use of codeswitching by Hispanics in the U.S., advertisers have embraced different techniques to target bilingual consumers. One strategy thought to influence this audience is the use of codeswitched messages (e.g. inserting a foreign word into an advertising slogan) (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b). However, only very little is known about the effects of other words (e.g. adverbial intensifiers) in the construction of codeswitched slogans targeting bilingual Hispanic consumers in the U.S.

As well as codeswitching, the phenomenon of intensifiers is typically found in spoken language. It is when people engage in conversations, when they often use words

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that add emphasis to an adjective in a sentence, to make it stronger. Intensifiers are these words which modify the adjectives we use while speaking. "Intensifiers are firstly created orally before being used in written speech –if they are at all" (Bordet, 2017, p. 4).

When intensifiers are used by different groups, their frequency of use either increases or decreases depending on time. There is a point where they will lose their intensifying force and their appeal to the younger speakers; however, they will create newer, fresher terms (Bordet, 2017). Words matter; words are subtle indicators to tell a potential customer that brands understand them specifically. To truly speak customers' language, advertisers must listen to them because it is likely that customers may differ from them.

To understand what intensified language means, the following are some examples of the use of adverbial intensifiers, more specifically the intensifier 'so.'

1. This room is *so* big.

2. My brother is *so* untidy.

3. Why are you walking *so* slowly?

This research thus delves in the interaction among language choice of Spanish, English and Spanglish and intensified language in the construction of codeswitched slogans. Adverbial intensifiers are adverbs that could be left out without changing the lexical definition of the sentence (Renkema, 1997). With only a few words, copywriters have to create a unique and personalized message to engage their audiences. The questions remain to be answered in this dissertation: Are intensifiers important while crafting a message in English, Spanish or Spanglish? Is using intensifiers something that copywriters try to avoid?

Intensifiers are one important linguistic variable that has been analyzed in terms of its variation in multiple populations, with noted differences in intensifier use between male and female speakers, older and younger speakers, and speakers in different regions (Jones, 2017). Intensifiers (such as 'very,' 'so,' 'really,' 'totally,' 'pretty,' etc.) are commonly used in spoken English and in fictional dialogue, specifically in the TV series "Friends" (Ito & Tagliamonte 2003, Tagliamonte & Roberts, 2005; Tagliamonte, 2008), and in "How I Met Your Mother" (Bordet, 2017). Even though there are other intensifiers that are most commonly used, this dissertation focuses only on the intensifier 'so' due to its popularity and prominence among young adults.

Research has shown that the use of intensified language increases persuasion in many different contexts: appellate briefs (Long & Christensen, 2008), evaluation of editorials (Craig & Blankenship, 201), and news articles on Dutch adults (Burgers & De Graaf, 2013). Intensifiers have also had a positive effect on attitude change in persuasive messages (Bankhead, Bench, Peterson, Place & Seiter, 2003; Hamilton & Stewart, 1993). Intensifiers resulted in having a higher response rate of an email survey (Andersen & Blackburn, 2004) or having a negative effect on the effectiveness in speeches (Bowers, 1964). Yet, only very little is known about the effects of the use of intensified language within the context of advertising (Den Ouden & Van Wijk, 2007). Therefore, this dissertation seeks to shed light on the scarce literature that interlaces the impact of language choice and adverbial intensifiers in the construction of slogans targeting Hispanic consumers in the U.S.

This research draws upon the Markedness Model and the Matrix Language Frame Model by Myers-Scotton (1993a, 1993b, 1993c) which specifies that when bilingual

individuals communicate with other bilinguals, they may choose to codeswitch. According to Myers-Scotton (1993a, 1993b, 1993c), this choice depends on various sociolinguistic factors, such as the meanings they wish to convey or their attitudes towards different languages they can use or towards the codeswitching itself.

This dissertation employs two experiments to examine both the effectiveness of an English-only, Spanish-only, and a codeswitched advertisement, as well as the attitudes of bilingual Hispanics towards codeswitching after being exposed to codeswitched advertisements that use the adverbial intensifier 'so.'

Building on both the intensified language in advertisement literature and in the codeswitching (Spanish-English) literature to target bilingual Hispanics in the U.S., this research contributes to the scholarship focused on persuasive communication, particularly on the impact of language choice on the effectiveness of an English-only, a Spanish-only, or Spanglish advertisements which include an adverbial intensifier in the slogan. Theoretically, this research extends the body of literature pertaining to the sociolinguistic theories of codeswitching that can be applied in the advertising context.

Finally, this dissertation is structured in the following manner. First, literature on the importance of copywriting in advertising is reviewed. Then, the characteristics of Hispanic American audience are taken into account. Codeswitching and Spanglish in advertising are also investigated. Third, research from intensified language is incorporated in addition to the theoretical framework used in this study. Lastly, two experiments are presented to examine whether language choice (Spanish, English, or Spanglish) and intensified language (adverbial intensifier 'so') have an impact on Hispanic consumers' attitudes towards the brand, the advertisement, the slogan, along

with their purchase intention, and slogan recall. Implications of these data are discussed, as well as the limitations found and proposed follow-up studies for future research agendas.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Advertisers are in a constant attempt to produce an emotional connection between the consumer and the brands they want their audience to purchase. Within the advertising team, each member has a tough task to make sure the objective of the advertisement is met. Copywriting is one of the most pivotal elements of any type of advertisement. Copy is the text of an advertisement or the words that are said in a commercial (Moriarty et al., 2019, p. 286). Be it through written or spoken words, copywriters use words to try get people to take action after hearing or reading the advertisement; "the fewer the words, the more important every single one becomes –and the more critical copywriting talent becomes" (Moriarty et al., 2019, p. 287). Though the question remains, how would advertisers ever entice their audience if they cannot communicate with them?

Language is one element that enables that connection. The language we use and our ability to share language with others has an impact on perceptions and perspectives; through language we frequently assume that others may hold similar values and beliefs as our own (Thomas, & McDonagh, 2013). Rather than writing copy in one language and having it translated into another, copywriting is focused on the creation of unique content created specifically for the target audience.

Copywriters should have a deep understanding of not only the language but the local culture. The way a person speaks, their body language, what they are wearing and so on, provide cues to 'who they are' and possibly their value system; these perceptions ultimately impact how we perceive others and ourselves (Thomas, & McDonagh, 2013).

Language is one of the most interesting components of culture; it is one of those tools humans use to convey their culture. Human experience and language cannot be separated from each other. They go hand in hand. Language, as that social system that we use to communicate with each other, makes possible the transmission of someone's culture. As a result, connecting with your audience at some level is key through this communication process.

Every consumer has a different way of connecting to memories or experiences with products or brands. One determinant of how an individual will react depends on their age or social upbringing. The way in which individuals carry themselves tells about their culture and identity. Because language is a big part of one's culture, if language is modified or influenced to a strong degree, then one's identity will be altered or influenced as well. Language and therefore words, convey those shared experiences, and because human experiences are in constant change, so is language.

The following chapter conceptualizes the importance of copywriting in advertising, the role of codeswitching in the Hispanic culture, Spanish and Spanglish in advertising, and the relevance of intensified language in the construction of advertising slogans. This discussion then leads to both the Markedness Model and the Matrix Language Frame Model as the theoretical backgrounds employed in this dissertation. Lastly, based on this literature, some research questions are raised.

Copywriting in Advertising

In advertising, one of the persuasive premises of an advertisement message is knowing your audience's mindset and their behaviors. Advertising professionals are interested to find out what processes are happening in the consumer's mind to be able to

use this information in a unique blend of art: the advertisement; crafting a creative

message that would get noticed, get the customer involved with the product or service,

and get them to take action to create links between the brand and its audiences that foster

a lasting connection.

Copywriting's role is vital in the promotion and advertisement of any brand.

Regardless of what type of business companies are involved in, simply having a good

product or service is not enough nor having a couple of catchy words is either a guarantee

of success. Any good advertisement can feel incomplete without the right kind of slogan

that goes with it. If advertisements do not have a good slogan, then their objective is

likely not going to be achieved.

Who is that creative character behind copywriting? Moriarty et al. (2019) define a

copywriter as: "The person who shapes and sculpts the words in advertising" (p. 286).

Words can absolutely be shaped, sculpted, enhanced, cut, put together, but creating a

powerful slogan is not an easy task, and that is the job of a copywriter. An advertisement

can look complete with only text and without any image. Good slogans are crucial to

attract people to products and services. Over the years, we have heard many popular

slogans that have gotten stuck in our minds and that are now a part of daily

conversations. To achieve that, copywriters spend long hours crafting a message. This

message includes words that are attuned to the rules of grammar, syntax, and spelling

(Moriarty et al., 2019).

Copywriters are constantly paying attention to the way people talk to identify the

words and tone that best fits the target audience and the brand. Moriarty et al. (2019)

suggest that an effective copy should be: Succinct, specific, personal, conversational,

original, and a story with feelings. To create an emotional connection between the brands and their audiences, copywriters formulate a brand persona which content takes on. The way in which brands speak to their audience decides how engaged or how motivated to take action they are. In fact, what the target audience wants to read or hear is content that speaks to them.

Copywriters usually work hand in hand with creative directors, editors, graphic designers, and artists; they need to know about design as well to understand what the rest of the creative team does and needs. What does an advertisement consist of? The layout for an advertisement usually contains: illustration(s) or photograph(s), headline, body copy, logo, slogan and white space (Applegate, 2016). Successful advertisements are the ones that attract the reader's attention; usually these advertisements are easy to read since the reader's eyes move naturally from one element to another (Applegate, 2016).

In addition, a successful advertisement also includes effective copy, that is a short phrase or a tagline that summarizes the descriptive or persuasive information about the brand: the slogan (Keller, 2008). Slogans are a key element of a brand's identity; they enhance it, support it, and have the potential to change brand perception immediately (Kohli, Leuthesser, & Suri, 2007). Slogans need to be easily remembered by consumers. While there is a consensus in the advertising industry on the importance of slogans, little agreement exists as to what constitutes a successful slogan.

Kohli et al., (2007) suggested a series of guidelines for the strategy behind slogans, and on creation and utilization of effective slogans. Based on the literature and industry publications, they highlighted the following characteristics:

1. *Keep your eye on the horizon.* Slogans created today should be able to embrace tomorrow's business, because while they can be changed if necessary, this expensive exercise should be avoided.

2. *Every slogan is a brand positioning tool, and it should position the brand in a clear manner.* A brand should have a clear positioning and the slogan should highlight the brand's main strengths, again, in a clear manner.

3. *Link the slogan to the brand.* Every available vehicle to connect the slogan to the brand should be used to drive home a consistent image.

4. *Please repeat that.* The slogan is the only element that can be kept absolutely consistent from ad to ad, creating the repetition that makes slogans memorable and which, in turn, leads to a consistent brand image.

5. *Jingle, jangle.* Given enough time and repetition, however, jingles may not be recalled at a significantly greater rate than non-jingle slogans. In such cases, use of meaning, abstraction, and consistency will go a long way.

6. *Use slogans at the outset.* Marketers should use slogans at the outset to "prime" the importance of certain attributes of a brand, and to shape a brand's image accordingly.

7. *It's okay to be creative.* Slogans with a moderate level of syntactic or semantic complexity trigger deeper processing and may be recalled better than simpler ones. (pp. 420-421)

Regardless of the medium and shelf life of copywriting, there are some substantiated aspects that haven't changed over its lifetime: brevity, uniqueness, creativity, memorability, emotional connection, and audience driven. Overall, thanks to

having a well-written slogan, audiences may even become more likely to remember it than the brand name itself. The objective must be simple: To simplify the purpose of the advertisement through the copy.

The Hispanic American Audience

There are different interpretations of defining Hispanic vs Latino. For instance, the term Hispanic derives from the Latin word *Hispania* (which later became *España*, Spain) and refers to people who are from countries where Spanish is spoken and or have Spanish ancestry (Salinas, 2015). In contrast, the term Latino is broader in content and refers to people from the Caribbean, and the countries located in Central and South America –including those Non-Spanish speaking countries. Latino was adapted by the U.S. government to label individuals who identify as mestizo or mulato –mixed White with Black and Native– people from Central or South America (Delgado-Romero, Manlove, Manlove, & Hernandez, 2006).

The term Hispanic has a long history in the U.S. Back in the late 1960s, activists, government bureaucrats, and media executives started different projects to develop the notion of panethnicity and create a new census category: Hispanic (Mora, 2014). It was in the 1980 census when this term was first integrated to embrace all those U.S. nationals of Hispanic origin (Tienda & Mitchell, 2006). With this establishment, "these groups became incorporated into a geopolitical roadmap of government resources and recognition" (Vidal-Ortiz & Martinez, 2018, p. 387).

The chosen label was Hispanic, a term that had been used in its Spanish-language version, *hispanos*, by different local communities, among them New York Puerto Ricans who supported the Spanish Republican cause in the nineteen-thirties and New Mexicans

who, to this day, trace their roots to the Spanish *conquistadores* of the sixteenth century. For the first time, questionnaires were sent to a sample population asking if they were of "Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, Other Spanish" origin (Mochkofsky, 2020, para. 5). It was estimated that 9.1 million people, or roughly 4.5 per cent of the total U.S. population, were Hispanics. In 1980, the Census Bureau incorporated the question into the decennial census that year; by then, Hispanics had reached about 6.4 per cent (Mochkofsky, 2020, para. 5).

According to Aparicio (2016), the term Latino separates itself from the category "Latin American" through U.S-born status and bilingual experience (Spanish/English). Latino differentiates people from Latin America living in the U.S. from those living in their countries of origin. Vidal-Ortiz and Martinez (2018) argue that Latino is also different from both Hispanic and Latin American "by virtue of emphasizing not mere difference between Latinas/os and non-Latinos, but racialization, experiences with colonization, stereotypical social readings, and a general non-White reading (symbolic and actual) in the U.S. American imaginary" (p. 387).

In 2013, the Pew Research Center conducted a survey (*N*=5103) where Hispanic identity was addressed. Results from this report showed that more than half of Hispanics (54%) said, when describing their identity, they often use the name of their ancestors' Hispanic origin (such as Mexican, Dominican, Salvadoran or Cuban). An additional 23% said they describe themselves most often as *American*. And one-in-five (20%) used the pan-ethnic terms of Hispanic or Latino to describe their identity. Last, it was also found that when asked which pan-ethnic term they prefer, either Hispanic or Latino, half (50%) said they have no preference (Lopez, 2013).

Based on this context and for the purpose of this dissertation, the word Hispanic is used as a term that describes ethnic identity and or refers to a cultural or ethnic group, but race. However, it is important to consider the historical similarities and differences between these two terms because people of Latin American descent in the U.S. can be from different races depending on ancestry and context (Salinas & Lozano, 2017).

Hispanic Americans as a Growing Consumer Segment. The expansion of the Hispanic consumer population in the U.S is rapidly changing the marketplace landscape. Because of their considerable buying power, it is imperative that advertisers understand this sector and carefully determine their target market to be successful. Why to target the Hispanic American market? Some of the reasons may be its size, its growth rate, and its purchasing power.

As of now, the Hispanic population in the U.S. reached a record 60.6 million in 2019; Hispanics have accounted for more than half of total U.S. population growth since 2010 (Krogstad, 2020); and have also accounted for 82% of the growth in U.S. labor-force participation between 2010 and 2017 despite accounting for less than 20% of the country's overall population (Imbert, 2019). Notably, the U.S. has become the fifth-largest Spanish speaking country in the world (Instituto Cervantes, 2020) with a market that can be broken down into various nationalities and cultures (Gurliacci, 2004).

In terms of economic output, a study released by California Lutheran University in 2019 (Imbert, 2019) showed that:

GDP among U.S. Latinos increased to $2.3 trillion in 2017, up from $1.7 trillion in 2010. On a compounded annual basis, that's the third-highest growth rate among all global economies during that time. GDP among Latinos also grew at a

faster rate than the overall U.S. economy in that time. Based on the report, some

of the factors driving this outperformance were a high labor-force participation,

large population growth and increasing consumer spending. (para. 2)

These factors have made the U.S. Latino GDP the eight-largest in the world. "At

current growth rates, the Latino GDP will move from eighth largest GDP to seventh,

growing to exceed the size of France's GDP within the next 10 years" (Imbert, 2019,

para. 12).

More recent numbers regarding the economic expansion of the Hispanic

American consumer segment found in the Multicultural Economy Report, showed that

Hispanic consumers in the U.S. control a total of $1.5 trillion in buying power, up 212%

this decade. Right now, Hispanics account for one out of every six Americans and their

aggregate buying power is larger than the GDP of Australia (Weeks, 2019).

According to a Nielsen Report (2019), U.S. Hispanic consumers wield $1.5

trillion in annual buying power, which is higher than the gross domestic product of

countries like Australia, Mexico and Spain. This economic power is only projected to

increase. Between 2018 and 2058, according to the U.S. Census Bureau, the Hispanic

population is projected to grow by 82%, compared to only 9% for the non-Hispanic

population.

To sum up, Hispanic Americans are the nation's second-fastest-growing racial or

ethnic group after Asian Americans (Krogstad & Noe-Bustamante, 2020), and they are a

key component to advertising success. Its rapid growth will persist in the upcoming years

regardless of immigration policies; they will also continue showing a significant buying

power in the U.S. Lastly, Hispanic Americans are one of the largest ethnic groups to

exhibit significant culture vastness and therefore, have distinct patterns due to language and culture dynamics.

Advertisers are aware of this market having different traditions, values, and preferences that blend two worlds. Hispanics in the U.S. are one of the most powerful and influential consumer sectors. Since culture is deeply rooted and embedded within an individual; it is important for advertisers to bring out instead of underestimating cultural differences, so they can build a strong relationship with their consumer.

As mentioned before, language is a big part of one's culture. In their book "Hispanic Marketing: Connecting with the New Latino Consumer," Korzenny and Korzenny (2012) define culture as:

> An idea, a construct, a phenomenon, that many people in marketing talk about; but grasping the elements of culture to apply in all aspects of marketing is remained largely elusive […] culture generally is understood by the cluster of intangible and tangible aspects of life that groups of humans pass to each other from generation to generation. (p. 2-3)

Understanding culture certainly allows advertisers to target more accurately. It is true the consumer is the most important individual, but this consumer belongs to different groups; therefore, advertisers have the choice to take their time to study that group in depth to learn the most effective way to persuade them.

Since words carry the meaning of the practice of a culture, and culture influences perceptions of stimuli and ideas; thus, bilingual and bicultural individuals think differently depending on the language they use. "[Language] synthesizes the richness and texture of human interaction" (Korzenny & Korzenny, 2012, p. 115). Language is a way

Hispanics feel a connection to their heritage, especially the second-generation Hispanic Americans living in the U.S. Language use and language perception in advertising depends on how audiences look at the meaning that becomes attached to words and ideas in either language.

Spanish-language Media in the U.S. Even though Spanish is the most common non-English language in the U.S. (Gonzalez-Barrera & Lopez, 2013), the numbers of Spanish-speakers continues to decrease in the past years; for instance, in 2015, 73% spoke Spanish at home versus 78% in 2006 (Krogstad & Lopez, 2017). Nevertheless, Spanish language media remains crucial for both the Hispanic audience and the companies that target them; language use is only one way to understand the differences between the Hispanic and Anglo audiences.

According to the State of the Latino News Media report (2019), the media industry dedicated to serve the Hispanic population in the U.S. consist of these two big conglomerates that are the pillars of Spanish language media content: Univision and Telemundo, which have a combined total of 136 TV stations out of the 181 stations identified. Univision owns and operates 65 stations, along with the 26 stations of UniMás, a sister network owned by the same corporation that carries Univision programming. Telemundo, owned by Comcast through NBC Universal, owns and operates 45 stations.

In terms of independently owned print publications, the report shows 244 newspapers and 32 magazines. The largest newspaper companies serving Hispanic audiences are ImpreMedia, a network of two dailies and two periodicals serving New York, Los Angeles, Chicago and Longwood, Florida; *Mundo Hispánico,* an Atlanta-

based regional network of one local newspaper and several digital publications; and the 22 Spanish-language newspapers owned by English-language newspaper companies. The report also identifies 87 digital-only publications, 33 podcasts and two newsletters, and 37 radio stations that produce news content for this audience (this report didn't include the Spanish-language radio stations that don't produce news content).

Despite the controversy in the Hispanic advertising literature as to whether advertising campaigns targeting Hispanics in the U.S. should use either only Spanish or only English content (i.e. Hernandez & Newman, 1992; Koslow et al., 1994; Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997; and Gardyn, 2001), advertising in Hispanic media indicates that brands acknowledge and are interested in speaking to this segment, even among those bilingual Hispanic consumers. But advertising only in one language doesn't fully encompass the complex identities the Hispanic market holds today; more and more media companies are increasing both Spanish and English language content to reach out to this market.

Along these lines, codeswitching is an example of how language in two cultures are blending at some level or at least carrying some elements together. Understanding this nuance is crucial for any brand looking to successfully reach the Hispanic consumer in the U.S.

Codeswitching in Advertising

Various authors have defined codeswitching and most of these definitions underline the construct as an alternation of two or more languages. Different approaches have used varying definitions and spellings such as code-switching, code switching, and codeswitching. Therefore, for the purposes of this dissertation the spelling used throughout is *codeswitching* and it's defined as "the discourse in which words originating

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in two different language systems are used side-by-side" by bilingual speakers (Backus, 2005, p. 307). The most common type of codeswitching happens when speakers switch back and forth between two languages, but there is also another form of codeswitching that involves translating words from one language to another. Bilinguals may face this issue when they cannot find the appropriate word for what they mean in one language or they simply do not know the word (Moreno, Federmeier, & Kutas, 2002).

Toribio (2002) proposes that codeswitching has taken place in two distinct traditions: "*the syntactic*, providing insights into the linguistic principles that underlie the form that code-switched speech takes, and *the sociolinguistic*, which relates linguistic form to function in specific social contexts" (p. 89).

Codeswitching has been studied from diverse approaches. From a sociolinguistic point of view, Gumperz (1982) and Grosjean (2010) have been interested in social factors related to the bilingual speech community, such as figuring out who uses codeswitching, in which situation, talking to whom, and why. From a grammatical point of view, Poplack (1980) and Myers- Scotton (1993a, 1993b, 1993c) have looked into the linguistic nature of the switches themselves and have tried to account for grammatical vs. ungrammatical switches.

Some other codeswitching perspectives have looked at songs (Ohlson 2007; Cepeda 2000), blogs and diaries (Montes-Alcalá 2007; Montes-Alcalá 2000), e-mails and letters (Montes-Alcalá 2001; Negrón Goldbarg 2009), magazines (Mahootian 2005; Betti 2008), commercial greeting cards as a cultural practice (Potowski 2011) and consumer behavior (Callow & McDonald, 2005). Codeswitching has also been a construct studied in advertising, where commonly consisted of inserting either foreign words or

expressions into ad slogans, resulting in a codeswitched message (Luna & Peracchio, 2001, 2005a, 2005b; Bishop & Petterson, 2010; Bishop & Petterson, 2011).

In other countries where English is used as a second language, these codeswitching phenomena in advertising also occurs [e.g. Korean and English (Ahn & La Ferle, 2008), Hindi and English (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008), German and English (Piller, 2001), Russian and English (Ustinova & Bhatia, 2005), Japanese and English (Takashi, 1990)].

In the U.S. the most common alternation of two languages happens between English and Spanish. The following section addresses what this mixture of English and Spanish is called and how it has been studied in the advertising field.

Spanglish in U.S. Advertisements. Among the large number of Hispanic Americans who are bilingual and bicultural, the mixture of English and Spanish in the U.S. has typically been a matter of controversy among the general public, scholars and educators alike. On one hand, institutions like Pew Research Center refer to Spanglish as "an informal hybrid of both languages widely used among Hispanics ages 16 to 25." In such an unfavorable way, the Oxford Dictionary also defines Spanglish as "a mixture of Spanish and English, *esp.* any of various informal hybrids used in bilingual contexts in Latin America, and in Hispanic communities in the U.S., typically characterized by the blending of lexical and grammatical elements from Spanish and English." Parra (2011) also supports this position when she states:

> Spanglish is a language, lifestyle, and culture that has one foot in each set of traditions. It is a mix of Spanish and English language that is informal and focuses on trends in fashion, music, news, and art that appeals to a person who enjoys

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aspects of the American and Latino culture. This new culture voices opinions and

values that might not be seen as acceptable by Americans or Latinos. (p. 4-5)

Stavans (2000) acknowledges its mostly negative implications; it is commonly

assumed that Spanglish is a bastard jargon: part Spanish and part English, with neither

gravitas nor a clear identity.

On the other hand, we have a more neutral definition from the American Heritage

Dictionary: "Spanish characterized by numerous borrowings from English." And towards

more positive definitions, we have Zentella's (1997) who refers to Spanglish as

conversational and communicative strategies (i.e. bilingual Puerto Rican New Yorkers),

to the bilingual practice of inserting phrases and sentences in English into Spanish

discourse, or vice versa. And Ardila (2005) who suggests that Spanglish is the blend

between Spanish and English found in Hispanic or Latino communities in the U.S.

According to him, Spanglish may be interpreted in different ways: as a pidgin, a Creole

language, an interlanguage, or an anglicized Spanish dialect (for more definitions see

Lipski, (2004) who lists 28 different definitions of Spanglish from different authors and

sources).

Spanglish is a way to express a mixed culture and when combined with

compelling, culturally relevant messaging, it could yield positive results to connect with

the U.S. Hispanic audience. Brands that are searching for a genuine connection with this

growing and influential market, the use of Spanglish is necessary. It is suggested to be

authentic and make sure that the context of the message, and the language it's presented

in, connect with them. Manipulations of the language in which the advertisement is

written are an important part of advertisers' efforts to appeal to Hispanics (Luna &

Peracchio, 2005a). What is conveyed and how it is conveyed should be understood the same way.

Prior research focused on Spanglish in advertising. For instance, when advertisers intend to target bilingual Mexican-American consumers with codeswitched ads, Bishop and Peterson (2010) found that the language of the medium should match the primary language of the ad to increase favorable advertising responses. This study showed that the language and context of a medium and direction of codeswitching (English to Spanish or Spanish to English) influenced bilinguals' (Mexican-American young adults) attitudes towards codeswitching and overall effectiveness of codeswitched advertisements. Other findings from this study suggest that increased perceptions of advertiser cultural sensitivity would lead to greater cognitive ad involvement and persuasion.

Another study by Bishop and Peterson (2011), found that a codeswitched advertisement in an all-English medium resulted in more positive attitudes towards codeswitching than placing it in an all-Spanish medium among the Mexican-American sample. Their research built upon context effects among Hispanics regarding language in advertising.

Similarly, through the Revised Hierarchical Model (RHM), a psycholinguistic framework of bilingual memory, Luna and Peracchio (2001) examined how bilingual individuals –in both English and Spanish– process ad's picture and copy on memory for first and second language advertisements. The overall findings showed that high level of picture-copy congruency facilitates conceptual processing of second language, increases memory for second-language ads, and reduces the impact of language asymmetries on memory. Both product evaluation and memory effects were different depending on

whether ads were in bilingual consumers' first or second language (Luna & Peracchio, 2001).

Another study done by Luna and Peracchio (2005a) investigated the codeswitching direction effects for ad persuasiveness. In this study, the codeswitching direction effect was found to be an important factor to consider when targeting bilingual markets with codeswitched ads. Attitudes towards codeswitching was found to influence the persuasiveness of codeswitched ads differently for minority-to-majority slogans than for majority-to-minority slogans (i.e. English was considered the majority language and Spanish was considered the minority language). It was also found that if bilinguals consider a specific type of codeswitching as the norm, they will tend to react more favorably to it.

Following the impact of codeswitching on the persuasiveness of advertising messages, Luna and Peracchio (2005b) also investigated how responses to different types of codeswitched messages (English and Spanish) can provide insight into bilingual consumer's persuasion process. They found in this study that codeswitching direction effect was attributed to the salience of the code-switched word in the slogan. For example, minority-language slogans switching to the majority language resulted in greater persuasion than majority-language slogans switching to the minority language.

Evans (2016) looked at whether the degree of Hispanicness affected the viewers' purchase intentions of English, Spanish, and Spanglish advertisements. The results of his study showed that whichever language was used (English, Spanish, or Spanglish), none was significant in the viewers' purchase intentions. In addition, the study found that the

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attitude towards the advertisement was significant for Spanish and Spanglish advertisements, while non-significant for English advertisements (Evans, 2016).

To date, research about language choice when advertising to bilingual consumers has been extended to Latin American bilingual consumers (Alvarez, Uribe, & León De-La-Torre, 2017). In their research, they found that the effects of language-related stereotypes (e.g. stereotypic views of English-speakers, Spanish-speakers, and code-switchers) on the persuasiveness of English ads varied across Chile, Ecuador, and Mexico. The results showed that in these three countries, the cultural stereotype of English-speakers was more favorable compared to the stereotype of Spanish-speakers and code-switchers (Alvarez, Uribe, & León De-La-Torre, 2017).

Acculturation and advertising preference is another topic where codeswitching has been employed. For example, in 1994, Koslow et al. studied perceived accommodation –the belief by consumers that the advertiser is making an effort to communicate in their language. The authors found that such perceived advertiser sensitivity mediates the positive effects of using Spanish when targeting U.S. Hispanics. Ueltschy and Krampf (1997) found that language and acculturation interact with respect to attitudes towards an advertisement, especially when more assimilated Hispanics tend to like ads in English, and less assimilated Hispanics tend to prefer ads in Spanish. Moreover, Chávez (2006) found that there is a significant relationship between level of acculturation in Hispanics and their preference for print advertisements in English, Spanish, and Spanglish.

Overall, acculturation has been found to affect ethnic consumers' dining-out behaviors (Bojanic & Xu 2006), aesthetic product judgments (Chattaraman, Rudd, &

Lennon 2010), identity based apparel brand choices (Chattaraman, Lennon, & Rudd 2010), responses to different advertising targeting strategies (Tsai & Li, 2012), cultural relevance of product attributes (Chattaraman, Rudd, & Lennon 2009), and preference for ethnic versus American brands (Li, Tsai, & Soruco 2013).

Although the aforementioned studies have focused on Hispanic Americans, looked into codeswitching effects for ad persuasiveness, and some have looked into the effects of acculturation process this market faces while living in the U.S., this dissertation is aimed to shed more light on another element of language use (both spoken and written): adverbial intensifiers. None of the literature mentioned above has explored this topic in the construction of Spanglish slogans targeting Hispanics in the U.S. Therefore, this dissertation builds on the literature of the effects intensifiers have in the language of advertisement targeted to Hispanic Americans.

So far, the topic of intensifiers has been widely studied from a linguistics standpoint and has focused on the occurrence and/or use of intensifiers within specific contexts or cultures (e.g. Ito & Tagliamonte, 2003; Tagliamonte & Roberts, 2005; Tagliamonte, 2008; Siemund, 2000; Romero, 2012). Intensifiers can add more clarity or specificity to sentences by using certain adjectives or adverbs. In writing, we may want to choose a more precise word, but when talking to people we use intensifiers in everyday speech. Despite the frequent use of intensifiers in spoken language, the role of intensifiers in Spanglish advertising has hardly been studied. The following section addresses this topic.

Intensified Language

Intensifiers are one important linguistic variable that has been analyzed in terms of its variation in multiple populations (Jones, 2017). Different types of intensifiers have an impact on consumers' attitudes towards the advertisement, the brand and purchase intention, which makes word choice a crucial part of advertisement development.

Intensifiers (i.e. adverbial intensifiers) are adverbs that could be left out without changing the lexical definition of the sentence (Renkema, 1997). Research has shown that these kinds of intensifiers (such as 'very,' 'so,' 'really,' 'totally,' 'pretty,' etc.) are commonly used in spoken English and in fictional dialogue, specifically in American sitcoms (Bordet, 2017; Tagliamonte & Roberts, 2005; Tagliamonte, 2008).

Language intensification has been studied from a language variation perspective (i.e. sociolinguistic standpoint). Most studies that focus on intensifiers look at the use and occurrence within specific contexts, cultures, and languages (language production), but there is little research on the effects of intensifiers in language perception. For instance, McEwen and Greenberg (1970) looked at the effects of language intensity on messages and source credibility. In their study, they found that highly intense language was perceived significantly clearer and was rated as more logical, and its source was considered to be more trustworthy.

Craig and Blankenship (2011) looked at the evaluation of editorials in which the intensified language led to increased intentions to sign a petition of the topics discussed in the editorial. It was found that linguistic extremity increased message processing to sign a petition when the message contained strong arguments, but decreased in intentions when the message contained weak arguments.

Furthermore, Burgers and De Graaf (2013) looked at the influence of intensifiers and framing on the reception of news articles. Their findings suggest that the use of intensifiers in news articles increased the perceived language intensity of both texts, indicating that readers indeed experienced texts with intensifiers as more intense and arousing. Overall, it was found that language intensity as an aspect of sensationalism can have positive effects on the perceptions of news articles.

More recently, Vaughn, Kendall, and Gunter (2018), presented a student-driven class lab project (a three-week unit on sociolinguistics) focused on the extent of change in intensifiers' (*very, really, real,* and *super*) social meaning in apparent time. Participants in this study were asked to assess 10 voices reading 10 specific sentences and rate speakers' attributions. One of the findings in this study was that for the youngest listeners (ages 18-24) the intensifiers *very* and *really* clustered together (being selected most often for attributes like Hip/Trendy, Millennial, and Annoying) while *super* clustered with no intensifier as least selected. Contrarily, oldest listeners (ages 60-81) linked *super* to attributes like Hip/Trendy, Millennial, and Annoying. And *really, real* and *very* most often led to the selection of Articulate and Old-fashioned.

To date, two studies have focused on the use of intensifiers in advertising. The first one, Jacobs (2017) looked at the cross-cultural effects of lexical and semantic intensifiers in web-advertisements on Dutch and English consumers' attitudes towards the advertisement, brand and their purchase intention. Results from this study concluded that English participants scored significantly higher on attitude towards the advertisement, brand and purchase intention than Dutch participants, regardless of the types of intensifiers used. He also found that companies evoked more favorable attitudes

and a higher purchase intention when refraining from using lexical intensifiers in web-advertisements and instead use semantic intensifiers or no intensifiers at all.

The second study, focused on how the use of classic and innovative intensifiers in advertising directed at Dutch adolescents affected perceived message clarity, text attractiveness and appropriateness (Den Ouden & Van Wijk, 2007, as cited in Jacobs, 2017, p. 8). Den Ouden and Van Wijk (2007) used two different product advertisements –DVD and hair gel– of which they made three versions: neutral, regular and innovative. Classic intensifiers (e.g. really, very, totally) were found to have no effects on message clarity, text attractiveness and appropriateness, whereas innovative (e.g. cool, flipping, sick) were found to negatively affect those variables.

As of now, the two studies mentioned above focused on whether the use of intensifiers in Dutch advertising affected consumers' attitude towards the advertisement, brand and purchase intention variables, and perceived message clarity, text attractiveness and appropriateness. Neither of these studies looked at the effect of intensifiers in a codeswitched context (their manipulations were focused only on either Dutch or English language) nor did they include the adverbial intensifiers in their studies. Product category remained different in both studies, and so did the subject's age. For the purpose of this dissertation, the focus is on bilingual Hispanics in the U.S. The product category is a fictitious vitamin drink, and the emphasis of this research is on construction of codeswitched slogans and the impact of the adverbial intensifier 'so.'

It is important to mention that due to the popularity of this intensifier in spoken English among young generations, and also taking into consideration the prevalence of adverbial intensifiers in the TV series Friends and the key role they play in fictional

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dialogue (in both English and dubbed from English into Spanish), the translation of the intensifier *so* (tan) was carried out to this research (Baños, 2013).

Therefore, the studies examined in this dissertation have the following objectives: 1) To analyze whether language choice (English, Spanish, or Spanglish) has an effect on Hispanic's attitudes towards the slogan, the overall advertisement, the brand, the likelihood of purchasing the advertised product, and whether they recall the slogan after being exposed to it (or what the most recalled words are in the slogan).

2) To examine whether the adverbial intensifier 'so' has an impact on an English-only, or 'tan' on a Spanish-only, and 'so & tan' on a Spanglish slogan in an advertisement.

3) To explore whether Hispanic's attitudes towards codeswitching change after being exposed to codeswitched advertisements.

Theoretical Framework: The Matrix Language Frame Model

This dissertation is guided by the Matrix Language Frame Model (MLF) by Myers-Scotton (1993a, 1993b, 1993c) which specifies that when bilingual individuals communicate with other bilinguals, they may choose to codeswitch. This choice depends on various sociolinguistic factors, such as the meanings they wish to convey, or their attitudes towards different languages they can use, or towards the codeswitching itself. This model focuses on two pairs of dichotomous categories: The *Matrix Language –ML* (most of the text's language), and the *embedded language –EL (*inserted words of a different language). For example:

> "In my kitchen I would never make coffee with any other coffee maker." English slogan

> "In my *cocina* I would never make coffee with any other coffee maker."

Majority-to-minority slogan, where the ML is English and the EL is Spanish

"En mi *kitchen* nunca haría café con ninguna otra cafetera."

Minority-to-majority slogan where the ML is Spanish and the EL is English

(Luna & Peracchio 2005a, p. 761)

One of the main premises of the MLF is that during the switch participating

languages stay in an asymmetrical relationship to each other. The ML becomes the

dominant one and supplies the morphosyntactic frame of the bilingual clause or sentence.

The embedded language has an auxiliary function and supplies content morphemes which

are enclosed into the ML (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, 1993b, 1993c).

Myers-Scotton (1993a, 1993b, 1993c) also argues that there are several criteria

which may help to determine the ML such as the dominant language of the speaker –from

a psycholinguistic point of view, or the language which is used more often in interactions

–from a sociolinguistic point of view. However, it may change in different situations.

The Matrix Language Frame Model (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, 1993b, 1993c) was

revised in 1997 and extended sub-models were proposed (Myers-Scotton & Jake 2000).

These models have widely been used to understand the grammatical structure of

utterances where two or more languages occur together (this model is based on Swahili-

English corpus of recorded conversations which she collected in Nairobi, Kenia). Other

studies have tested this model in different languages and settings: English/Spanish

codeswitching in fiction (Callahan, 2002); Swiss/German codeswitching in Internet relay

chat rooms (Siebenhaar, 2006); Russian/Estonian language contact phenomena

(Zabrodskaja, 2009); Igbo/English bilingualism in Nigeria (Ihemere, 2016);

Arabic/French codeswitching in Maghreb countries (Mohdeb-Amazouz, Martine & Lamel, 2016).

The Markedness Model

Myers-Scotton suggests that the unmarked language –which is the expected language in a community– is used more often than the marked, the unexpected one. This study also draws from the Markedness Model (1993a, 1993b, 1993c) which attempts to explain the social motivations of codeswitching by considering language choice as a way of communicating desired or perceived group membership and interpersonal relationships (individuals' choice of a language signals a specific social identity to a particular community). From a sociolinguistic point of view, ML is the unmarked language in a bilingual community.

This model brings up an interesting approach to persuasion and social influence; the Theory of Social Identity (Tajfel, 1974), which holds that individuals understand their social being through a sense of belonging in multiple-valued social groups. Everyone has a distinct social identity made up of membership in multiple social groups, and these identities guide people's behavior. Brands that take these notions of identity into account in their marketing and advertising campaigns often become more successful because they understand the nuances of who they are actually speaking to in a particular context. Take it as a given that consumers self-identify as members of various social groups, advertisers may tailor their messages for consistency with the defining conditions of the targeted group.

The role of social identities in influencing consumer behavior and response to marketing stimuli is widely examined in marketing and consumer research (Deshpande &

Stayman, 1994; Forehand & Deshpande, 2001; Forehand, Deshpande, & Reed, 2002; Reed, 2002, 2004). Recent research has also focused on the influence of ethnic identification in online advertising targeting Hispanic Americans (Becerra & Korgaonkar, 2010), on how Hispanic consumers make higher aesthetic judgements and highly evaluate products that have both language and cultural background cues (Chattaraman, Rudd, & Lennon, 2009; Chattaraman, Lennon, & Rudd, 2010), and how language and ethnic appearance can influence perceptions of customer experiences among Hispanics (Touchstone et al., 2017; Baker & Kim, 2018).

An individual's choice of language brings out a specific identity to a particular community when they switch languages, or insert codeswitched elements into their speech, they want to convey certain meanings or group memberships. This element then becomes marked because of its contrast with the language context created by the rest of the speech (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a).

Referring back to the Markedness Model, if an individual is processing information in one language and the message switches one word to a different language, that codeswitched word will become salient or marked (in linguistic terms) because it stands out from its context (created by the rest of the sentence). When an advertising message (i.e. slogan/tagline) uses codeswitching, individuals direct their attention to the codeswitched word, they will activate language schemas to which that word belongs and become aware of the social meanings carried by that language (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a). In the U.S., when comparing English to Spanish, English may be considered the majority language and Spanish the minority language, and when there is a majority-to-

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minority switch, the codeswitched message (i.e. slogan) becomes marked or salient (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a).

In their study, Luna and Peracchio (2005a) found that slogans switching from the majority language to the minority language (majority-to-minority slogans) received lower product evaluations than slogans switching from minority to the majority language (minority-to-majority slogans), which resulted in decreased persuasion.

There are some rules underlying the construction of codeswitched sentences. Advertisers will draw from the ML to form the syntactic structure of the sentence since this is the one that sets the frame (the choice of the words to codeswitch is governed by the morphemes contained in the text). In the development of the codeswitched slogans for experiment two, this dissertation employs both the Matrix Language Frame Model and the Markedness Model, using either English or Spanish as the embedded language.

- Es [so] pura y [so] refrescante… (Majority Spanish and with Intensifier in English).
- It's [tan] pure and [tan] refreshing… (Majority English and with Intensifier in Spanish).
- Es [tan] pure y [tan] refreshing… (Majority Spanish and with Intensifier in Spanish).
- It's [so] pura and [so] refrescante… (Majority English and with Intensifier in English).

Considering both the importance of language in advertising and the scarcity in the literature of the use of intensifiers in the language of advertisements in English, Spanish

and Spanglish media, targeting to Hispanics in the U.S., the following research questions have been raised:

Research Questions

RQ1: Does the language type (English or Spanish) or the adverbial intensifier (so or tan) in the slogan of an advertisement have an impact on Hispanic consumers' attitudes towards the advertisement (A_{AD}), attitudes towards the brand (A_{BR}), and attitudes towards the slogan (A_{SL})?

RQ2: Does the language type (English or Spanish) or the adverbial intensifier (so or tan) in the slogan of an advertisement have an impact on Hispanic consumers' Purchase Intention?

> **RQ2a:** Does purchase behavior have an impact on Hispanic consumers' Purchase Intention?

RQ3: Does the language type (English or Spanish) or the adverbial intensifier (so or tan) in the slogan of an advertisement have an impact on Hispanic consumers' Slogan Recall?

RQ4: Does the type of codeswitched language (Majority English or Majority Spanish) or the language of the intensifier (English or Spanish) on a Spanglish slogan have an impact on Hispanic consumers' A_{AD}, A_{BR}, A_{SL}?

RQ5: Does the type of codeswitched language (Majority English or Majority Spanish) or the language of the intensifier (English or Spanish) on a Spanglish slogan have an impact on Hispanic consumers' Purchase Intention?

RQ6: Does the type of codeswitched language (Majority English or Majority Spanish) or the language of the intensifier (English or Spanish) on a Spanglish slogan have an impact on Hispanic consumers' Slogan Recall?

RQ7: Is there an attitude change on Hispanic consumers' attitudes towards codeswitching after being exposed to an advertisement with a codeswitched slogan?

CHAPTER III

STUDY ONE

To address the first three research questions proposed in this dissertation, a quantitative experiment was performed. Experiments are a form of quantitative methodology distinctive in their ability to establish a causal connection between variables (Shadish et al., 2002). Experiments are characterized by: 1) the manipulation of one or more independent variables, 2) the use of controls, such as randomly assigning participants or experimental units to one or more independent variables, and 3) careful observation or measurement of one or more dependent variables (Kirk, 2009, p. 23).

In the case of study one, the manipulated independent variables were: Type of Language (English versus Spanish) and Intensified Language in the slogans (intensifier versus no intensifier). The adjective selection was based on the similarity in the English spelling of the words and rhythm of the slogan. A translation of the two adjectives chosen to describe the product was made. The translation of the adverbial intensifier *so* was carried out from previous research (Baños, 2013).

Participants

A total of 238 subjects were recruited through Prolific© –an online research subject pool, which has served as a subject pool in different areas in the social sciences. Prolific© combines recruitment standards and the ability to pre-screen participants based on pre-screening questions. In order to qualify for this study, participants were asked what language other than English they were fluent in. Participants who chose Spanish were considered to take part in this study. Gender identification was not crucial for this study. Though, participants identified as female and male and other non-binary genders.

Eight responses were eliminated because they were incomplete. The resulting sample ($N = 230$) consisted of predominantly male Hispanics ($n = 116$) with 50%, followed by female Hispanics ($n = 107$) with 47%, and non-binary Hispanics ($n= 7$) equivalent to 3%. The average age of participants was 22 years old ($SD = 2.57$), and 95% of subjects were born in the U.S ($n = 222$).

Design

Experiment one consisted of a 2x2 between-subjects posttest-only factorial design. A between-subjects design allows for different participants to test one of the conditions. To manipulate the independent variables: language type (English versus Spanish) and intensified language (intensifier versus no intensifier) a fictitious advertisement was used as a stimulus along with the two different manipulations and control groups. The advertisement layout included:

- A made-up brand –*Aqua V*, for a vitamin water.
- A slogan "It's [so] pure and [so] refreshing…"
- An image of the product itself.

Important to note here is that there was also a Spanish version of the slogan –Es [tan] pura y [tan] refrescante…" (see Appendix A).

Measures

Even though the reliability of the measures used in this study was higher than $\alpha =$ .80 (Nunnally, 1978) –in the previous studies where they were used, reliability tests were performed once again due to the specific sample used for the purposes of this study.

The dependent variables of this study were: Attitudes towards the brand (A_{BR}) $\alpha =$ .87. This scale consisted of a five-item semantic differential scale (Spears & Singh,

2004). The five pairs to which participants were asked to rate their attitudes were: unappealing / appealing, bad / good, unpleasant / pleasant, unfavorable / favorable, and unlikable / likable. Items one and three were reverse coded. These items asked participants to rate the brand on a scale ranging from 'appealing' to 'unappealing' and from 'favorable' to 'unfavorable' while the other items were listed from negative to positive (i.e. 'unpleasant' to 'pleasant').

Attitudes towards the advertisement (A_{AD}) α = .85. Originally, this scale consisted of a six-item semantic-differential scale (Spears & Singh, 2004). The six pairs to which participants were asked to rate their attitudes were: unpleasant / pleasant, unlikable / likable, interesting / boring, tasteless / tasteful, artful / artless, and good / bad. Items three and five were reverse coded. These items asked participants to rate the advertisement on a scale ranging from 'interesting' to 'boring' and 'artful' to 'artless' while the other items were listed from negative to positive (i.e. 'unpleasant' to 'pleasant'). Important to mention here is that only five out of the six items of the scale were used in this experiment due to having a missing item in one of the four conditions (i.e. 'good' to 'bad').

Attitudes towards the slogan (A_{SL}) α = .91. This scale consisted of an eight-item to which the participants were asked to agree or disagree on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree = 1 to strongly agree = 7 (Ahn, La Ferle, & Lee, 2017). The eight items were: Likable, interesting, unpleasant, good, believable, unreasonable, authentic, and convincing. Items three and six were reverse coded since they were listed as negative (i.e. 'unpleasant' and 'unreasonable').

Purchase intention **(PI)** adapted by Spears and Singh, (2004). This measure consisted of a single item of an opposite adjective –definitely do not intend to buy / definitely intend, where participants were asked, on a seven-point semantic-differential scale, to choose their likelihood of purchasing the advertised product.

The last measure was slogan recall **(SR).** Huang and Lin (2017) operationalized slogan recall as "the ability of participants to remember the contents of the slogan after being exposed to them" (p. 5). They quantified slogan recall as: High recall (2 points) – correctly written slogan, low recall (1 point) –partially corrected written slogan, and no recall (0 points) –completely incorrect written slogan. This question assessed whether participants could remember the slogan or parts of the slogan after being exposed to them.

Procedure

This experiment took place online. Both the stimuli and study measures were provided using Qualtrics online survey software. The questionnaire included one attention check (Select number 12). Before beginning the study, participants were shown a screening question (What language (other than English) are you fluent in? Then, participants were asked to read an informed consent statement to protect their privacy by not collecting any personally identifiable information. Participants were also given detailed information about the nature and objectives of this study. Once participants agreed to participate, they were asked to provide their Prolific© ID in order to be compensated for their time in participating in the study.

Participants were next given the instructions to complete the study measures, in which it was stated to mainly focus on the slogan. Followed by that question, participants

were randomly assigned one of the four advertisements; then asked to indicate their brand attitudes, advertisement attitudes, and attitudes towards the slogan. Participants were also asked about their likelihood to purchase the advertised product, and finally were asked whether they recalled the full slogan on the advertisement, or some of the words of the slogan they had just read.

Upon completion of these measures, a series of demographic questions were given: Age, gender, education level, occupation, place of birth, and to make sure to be inclusive with participants whose fluency was in Spanish, they were asked whether they self-identified as Hispanics. Last, participants were asked about their purchase behavior of vitamin waters.

Results

A MANOVA test was run to address the first research question, which asked does the language type (English or Spanish) or the adverbial intensifier (so or tan) in the slogan of an advertisement have an impact on Hispanic consumers' attitudes towards the advertisement (A_{AD}), attitudes towards the brand (A_{BR}), and attitudes towards the slogan (A_{SL})?

To respond to this question, an initial between subjects MANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of language type (with two levels: English and Spanish) and intensified language (with two levels: intensifier and no intensifier) on Hispanic consumers' A_{AD}, A_{BR}, and A_{SL}.

Results from the multivariate analysis showed that the first main effect of language type was found significant (Pillai = 0.04, $F(1,228) = 3.64$, $p < 0.05$). However, the second main effect of intensified language was not significant (Pillai = 0.02, $F(1,227)$

= 1.99, $p = 0.11$). Last, the interaction effect of language type and intensified language on Hispanic consumers' A_{AD}, A_{BR}, and A_{SL} was found not significant as well (Pillai = 0.00, $F(1,226) = 0.68$, $p = 0.56$) (See Table 1). To further examine this relationship, a series of ANOVAs were conducted to know in which dependent variable the significance was found.

From the results of the first ANOVA for A_{AD}, it was concluded that both main effects: language type [$F(1,227) = 2.25$, $p = 0.13$] and intensified language [$F(1,227) = 0.05$, $p = 0.81$] were not statistically significant in Hispanics' attitudes towards the advertisement (See Table 2). The second ANOVA for A_{BR}, also showed that both main effects: language type [$F(1,227) = 1.63$, $p = 0.20$] and intensified language [$F(1,227) = 2.46$, p = 0.11$] were neither statistically significant in Hispanics' attitudes towards the brand (See Table 3).

Nonetheless, significance was found in the ANOVA performed for A_{SL}. The results of this test concluded there was a significant effect of language type [$F(1,227) = 8.37$, $p < 0.01$] on Hispanics' attitudes towards the slogan (See Table 4). This effect indicated that the mean of the slogan was higher for English ($n = 116$, $M = 3.38$, $SD = 1.10$) than for Spanish ($n = 114$, $M = 3.09$, $SD = 1.02$), concluding that participants who saw the advertisement with the English-only version of the slogan had more positive attitudes towards the slogan in comparison to the participants who saw the advertisement with the Spanish-only version of the slogan (See Table 5). Last, the effect of intensified language was not statistically significant in Hispanics' attitudes towards the slogan [$F(1,227) = 1.93$, $p = 0.16$].

Subsequently, two ANOVAs were performed to address research question two, which asked does the language type (English or Spanish) or the adverbial intensifier (so or tan) in the slogan of an advertisement have an impact on Hispanic consumers' Purchase Intention **(PI)**? and research question 2a, which asked does purchase behavior have an impact on Hispanic consumers' Purchase Intention?

From the results of the first ANOVA, it was concluded that both main effects language type [$F(1,227) = 0.02, p = 0.93$] and intensified language [$F(1,227) = 1.38, p = 0.24$] were not statistically significant in Hispanics' Purchase Intention (See Table 6). To answer research question 2a, another ANOVA was run. The results showed that when controlling for purchasing behavior, there was no significant effect of either language type [$F(1,225) = 0.04, p = 0.84$] or intensified language [$F(1,225) = 0.92, p = 0.33$] on the outcome variable (PI). However, purchase behavior had an impact on Hispanic consumers' Purchase Intention [$F(1,225) = 19.29, p < 0.001$] (See Table 7).

Lastly, research question three sought to find whether the language type (English or Spanish) or the adverbial intensifier (so or tan) in the slogan of an advertisement had an impact on Hispanic consumers' Slogan Recall **(SR).** The results of the ANOVA indicated that the effect of intensified language was not statistically significant in Hispanics' slogan recall [$F(1,227) = 3.26, p = 0.07$]. However, there was a significant main effect of language type [$F(1,227) = 11.33, p < 0.001$] in Hispanics' slogan recall (See Table 8). This effect indicated that the mean of slogan recall was higher for Spanish ($n = 114, M = 1.54, SD = 0.73$) than for English ($n = 116, M = 0.94, SD = 0.93$), concluding that participants who saw the advertisement with the Spanish-only version of

the slogan recalled the slogan more in comparison to the participants who saw the

advertisement with the English-only version of the slogan (See Table 9).

CHAPTER IV

STUDY TWO

To address the remaining four research questions proposed in this dissertation, another quantitative experiment was performed. In this case, the manipulated independent variables were: Type of Codeswitched Language (majority English versus majority Spanish) and Language of the Intensifier (Spanish versus English).

Participants

A total of 287 subjects participated in this study. Subjects were also recruited through Prolific©. In order to qualify for this study, participants were also asked what language other than English they were fluent in, and those who chose Spanish were considered to take part in this study. Gender identification was not crucial, although participants identified as female and male and other non-binary genders.

Twenty-seven responses were discarded because the questionnaire was incomplete. The resulting sample ($N = 260$) consisted of predominantly male Hispanics ($n = 134$) with 52%, followed by female Hispanics ($n = 119$) with 46%, and non-binary Hispanics ($n = 7$) equivalent to 2%. The average for the participants' age was 22 years old ($SD = 2.5$), and 93% of subjects were born in the U.S ($n = 241$).

Design

Experiment two consisted of a 2x2 between-subjects pretest posttest factorial design. The manipulated independent variables in this study were: Type of Codeswitched Language (majority English versus majority Spanish) and Language of the Intensifier (Spanish versus English). The same fictitious advertisement that was used as a stimulus

in study one was used in this study, though the slogans for the four conditions were as follows (see Appendix A):

- Es [so] pura y [so] refrescante… (Majority Spanish and with Intensifier in English).

- It's [tan] pure and [tan] refreshing… (Majority English and with Intensifier in Spanish).

- Es [tan] pure y [tan] refreshing… (Majority Spanish and with Intensifier in Spanish).

- It's [so] pura and [so] refrescante… (Majority English and with Intensifier in English).

Measures

In order to know about participants' attitudes towards codeswitching in writing before and after being exposed to the stimulus, the questionnaire for this study included a scale that asked the participants about their opinion of the alternation between Spanish and English (Spanglish) in writing (**Attitude towards codeswitching A_{cs}**). The Cronbach's alpha used as a pretest was $\alpha = .83$, and as a posttest was $\alpha = .87$. This scale consisted of five items to which the participants were asked to agree or disagree on a six-point Likert scale (adapted from Anderson, 2006). The five items were:

1. *It looks cool when somebody mixes Spanish and English in writing.*

2. *It bothers me when somebody mixes Spanish and English in writing.*

3. *The mixture of English and Spanish reflects who I am.*

4. *Texts written in both Spanish and English reflect the speech of my community better than ones written only in English or Spanish.*

5. *When I read texts in both Spanish and English, I can better relate to them.*

The other dependent variables of this study were: Attitudes towards the brand (A_{BR}) $\alpha = .87$. This scale consisted of a five-item semantic differential scale (Spears & Singh, 2004). The five pairs to which participants were asked to rate their attitudes were: unappealing / appealing, bad / good, unpleasant / pleasant, unfavorable / favorable, and unlikable / likable. Items one and three were reverse coded. These items asked participants to rate the brand on a scale ranging from 'appealing' to 'unappealing' and from 'favorable' to 'unfavorable' while the other items were listed from negative to positive (i.e. 'unpleasant' to 'pleasant').

Attitudes towards the advertisement (A_{AD}) $\alpha = .84$. This scale consisted of a 6-item semantic-differential scale (Spears & Singh, 2004). The six pairs to which participants were asked to rate their attitudes were: unpleasant / pleasant, likable / unlikable, interesting / boring, tasteless / tasteful, artless / artful, and good / bad. Items two, three, and five were reversed coded. These items asked participants to rate the advertisement on a scale ranging from positive to negative while the other items were listed from negative to positive (i.e. 'unpleasant' to 'pleasant').

Attitudes towards the slogan (A_{SL}) $\alpha = .91$. This scale consisted of an eight-item to which the participants were asked to agree or disagree on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree = 1 to strongly agree = 7 (Ahn, La Ferle, & Lee, 2017). The eight items were: Likable, interesting, unpleasant, good, believable, unreasonable, authentic, and convincing. Items three and six were reverse coded since they were listed as negative (i.e. 'unpleasant' and 'unreasonable').

Purchase intention **(PI)** adapted by Spears and Singh, (2004). This measure consisted of a single item of an opposite adjective –definitely do not intend to buy / definitely intend, where participants were asked, on a seven-point semantic-differential scale, to choose their likelihood of purchasing the advertised product.

The last measure was slogan recall **(SR).** Huang and Lin (2017) operationalized slogan recall as "the ability of participants to remember the contents of the slogan after being exposed to them" (p. 5). They quantified slogan recall as: High recall (2 points) – correctly written slogan, low recall (1 point) –partially corrected written slogan, and no recall (0 points) –completely incorrect written slogan. This question assessed whether participants could remember the slogan or parts of the slogan after being exposed to them.

Procedure

This experiment also took place online. Both the stimuli and study measures were provided using Qualtrics online survey software. The questionnaire included one attention check (Select number 12). Before beginning the study, participants were shown a screening question: What language (other than English) are you fluent in? Then, participants were asked to read an informed consent statement to protect their privacy by not collecting any personally identifiable information. Participants were also given detailed information about the nature and objectives of this study. Once participants agreed to participate, they were asked to provide their Prolific© ID in order to be compensated for their time in participating in the study.

Unlike in study one, in this study participants were asked to complete the codeswitching scale before reading the overall instructions of the study. Next,

participants were given the instructions to complete the study measures, in which it was stated to mainly focus on the slogan. Followed by that question, participants were randomly assigned one of the four advertisements; then asked to indicate their brand attitudes, advertisement attitudes, and attitudes towards the slogan. Participants were also asked about their likelihood to purchase the advertised product, whether they recalled the full slogan on the advertisement or some of the words of the slogan they had just read, and finally the codeswitching scale was once again given to participants. Items were shuffled this time.

Upon completion of these measures, a series of demographic questions were given: Age, gender, education level, occupation, place of birth, they were asked whether they self-identified as Hispanics to assure each participant was fluent in Spanish. Last, participants were asked about their purchase behavior of vitamin waters.

Results

A MANOVA test was run to address the fourth research question, which asked does the type of codeswitched language (Majority English or Majority Spanish) or the language of the intensifier (English or Spanish) on a Spanglish slogan have an impact on Hispanic consumers' attitudes towards the advertisement (A_{AD}), attitudes towards the brand (A_{BR}), and attitudes towards the slogan (A_{SL})?

To respond to this question, an initial between-subjects MANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of type of codeswitched language (with two levels: majority English versus majority Spanish) and language of the intensifier (with two levels: Spanish versus English) on Hispanic consumers' A_{AD}, A_{BR}, and A_{SL}.

Results from the multivariate analysis showed that the first main effect of type of codeswitched language was not found significant (Pillai = 0.02, $F(1,258)$ = 2.19, p = 0.08). The second main effect of language of the intensifier was not significant (Pillai = 0.00, $F(1,257)$ = 0.92, p = 0.48). Last, the interaction effect of language type and intensified language on Hispanic consumers' A_{AD}, A_{BR}, and A_{SL} was found not significant as well (Pillai = 0.00, $F(1,256)$ = 0.06, p = 0.98). Since the independent variable type of codeswitched language resulted in having a very close result to significance, a series of ANOVAs were conducted to know in which dependent variable the significance may be found (See Table 10).

From the results of the first ANOVA run for A_{AD}, it was concluded that both main effects: type of codeswitched language [$F(1,256)$ = 0.00, p = 0.96] and language of the intensifier [$F(1,256)$ = 1.62, p = 0.20] were not statistically significant in Hispanics' attitudes towards the advertisement. The interaction effect was not statistically significant either [$F(1,256)$ = 0.82, p = 0.36] (See Table 11).

The second ANOVA for A_{BR}, also showed that both main effects: type of codeswitched language [$F(1,256)$ = 1.98, p = 0.16] and language of the intensifier [$F(1,256)$ = 2.00, p = 0.15] and the interaction effect [$F(1,256)$ =0.00, p = 0.97] were not statistically significant in Hispanics' attitudes towards the brand (See Table 12).

Significance was found in the ANOVA performed for A_{SL}. The results concluded that the effect of language of the intensifier [$F(1,256)$ = 1.21, p = 0.27] was not statistically significant in Hispanics' attitudes towards the slogan nor for the interaction effect [$F(1,256)$ = 0.02, p = 0.87]. However, there was a significant effect of the type of

codeswitched language [$F(1,256) = 5.78, p < 0.05$] in Hispanics' attitudes towards the slogan (See Table 13). This effect indicated that the mean of the slogan was higher for Majority-English ($n = 135, M = 4.08, SD = 1.34$) than for Majority-Spanish ($n = 125, M = 3.63, SD = 1.52$), concluding that participants who saw the ad with the Majority-English version of the slogan, and which included the intensifier in English had more positive attitudes towards the slogan in comparison to the participants who saw the ad with the Majority-Spanish version of the slogan, and which included the intensifier in Spanish (See Table 14).

Next, another ANOVA was performed to address the fifth research question, which asked does the type of codeswitched language (Majority English or Majority Spanish) or the language of the intensifier (English or Spanish) on a Spanglish slogan have an impact on Hispanic consumers' Purchase Intention (PI)? From the results of the ANOVA test, it was concluded that the main effect of the type of codeswitched language [$F(1,256) = 5.94, p < 0.05$] was statistically significant in Hispanics' Purchase Intention (See Table 15). The mean of the slogan was higher for Majority-Spanish ($n = 59, M = 4.15, SD = 1.77$) than for Majority-English ($n = 77, M = 3.19, SD = 1.64$) (See Table 16). Both the main effect of language of the intensifier [$F(1,256) = 3.59, p = 0.059$] and the interaction effect [$F(1,256) = 0.01, p = 0.91$] were not statistically significant in Hispanics' Purchase Intention.

Research question six sought to find whether the type of codeswitched language (Majority English or Majority Spanish) or the language of the intensifier (English or Spanish) on a Spanglish slogan had an impact on Hispanic consumers' Slogan Recall. The results of the ANOVA indicated that neither the type of codeswitched language

[$F(1,256) = 0.14$, $p = 0.71$] nor the effect of the language of the intensifier [$F(1,256) = 2.41$, $p = 0.12$] were statistically significant in Hispanics' slogan recall. However, the interaction effect was found significant [$F(1,256) = 4.85$, $p < 0.05$] in Hispanics' slogan recall (See Table 17).

This effect indicated that when participants were exposed to a Majority-English advertisement the language of the intensifier didn't matter. However, when they were exposed to a Majority-Spanish advertisement, participants were more likely to recall more words when the language of the intensifier was in Spanish compared to when it was in English. The mean of slogan recall was higher for Majority-Spanish and the language of the intensifier in Spanish ($n = 59$, $M = 1.71$, $SD = 0.64$) than for Majority-English and the language of the intensifier in English ($n = 77$, $M = 1.60$, $SD = 0.75$) (See Table 18 and Figure 9).

Lastly, research question seven asked whether there is an attitude change on Hispanic consumers' attitudes towards codeswitching after being exposed to an advertisement with a codeswitched slogan? In order to answer this question, a paired t-test was run to calculate the differences between pretest and posttests to test the significance of the treatment used in this study. The results showed that there is a significant difference in the scores for the pretest ($n = 260$, $M = 3.98$, $SD = 1.09$) and for the posttest ($n = 260$, $M = 3.69$, $SD = 1.22$). Therefore, Hispanic consumers' attitudes towards codeswitching decreased .29 after being exposed to an advertisement with a codeswitched slogan [$t = 6$, df $= 259$, $p < .001$].

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine whether language choice (English, Spanish, or Spanglish) had an effect on Hispanic American's attitudes towards the slogan, the overall advertisement, the brand, the likelihood of purchasing the advertised product, and whether they would recall the slogan after being exposed to it. This dissertation also explored whether Hispanic American's attitudes towards codeswitching would change after being exposed to a codeswitched advertisement.

Using two experiments performed with bilingual Hispanics recruited through Prolific©, study one determined that the English-only version of the slogan had a positive impact on their attitudes towards the slogan. When it comes to language choice, participants preferred English slogans (*It's pure and refreshing*) in comparison to Spanish slogans, which is not a surprising finding since language use patterns are nowadays changing with the rise of English proficiency among Hispanics in the U.S., and also with the use of English within those who prefer or understand English well (Krogstad & Gonzalez-Barrera, 2015).

Regarding the slogans with intensifiers, results were found not significant. In terms of purchase intention, participants reported that neither language type nor intensified language had an impact on their attitudes. But when controlling for purchasing behavior, this variable had an impact on Hispanic consumers' Purchase Intention. These findings aligned with Evans (2016) whose study found that whichever language was used (English, Spanish, or Spanglish), none was significant in the viewers' purchase intentions.

Nonetheless, language type (Spanish) was found significant in participants' slogan recall, concluding that participants who saw the Spanish-only version of the slogan recalled it more in comparison to the participants who saw the English-only version. This indicates the profound role language choice can have on consumer's recall. Having a short yet catchy Spanish version of the slogan was critical to enable that connection between the participants and the message.

Furthermore, study two found that codeswitched language (Majority-English) had an impact on participants' attitudes towards the slogan. Participants who saw the ad with the Majority-English version of the slogan (including the intensifier in English) had more positive attitudes towards the slogan in comparison to the participants who saw the ad with the Majority-Spanish version of the slogan.

Unlike attitudes towards the slogan, concerning purchase intention, study two found that the type of codeswitched language (Majority-Spanish) had an impact on participants' purchase intention, but the language of the intensifier did not make a difference at all. In addition, the interaction effect was found significant in terms of slogan recall, concluding that when participants saw a Majority-English advertisement the language of the intensifier didn't matter, but when they saw a Majority-Spanish advertisement, participants were more likely to recall more words when the language of the intensifier was in Spanish compared to when it was in English. Lastly, when attitudes towards codeswitching were assessed, this study found that participants' attitudes towards codeswitching changed after being exposed to an advertisement with a codeswitched slogan.

This chapter addresses both the implications for practitioners and the theoretical implications of the study's findings for the Markedness Model and the Matrix Language Frame Model, which are applicable to codeswitching between any two or more languages. This dissertation focused on English-Spanish codeswitching among Hispanic Americans due to the abundance of theoretical literature examining those two languages and its relevance in the U.S. (Benson 2001, Koslow et al. 1994, Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b, Bishop & Patterson, 2010; Bishop & Patterson, 2011).

Theoretical Implications

This research along with Luna and Peracchio's (2005a, 2005b) contributes to the expansion of the Markedness Model and the Matrix Language Frame Model in an experimental setting. Study two was specifically guided by the Markedness Model. Language was used to determine the construction of codeswitched slogans; two stimuli included a larger amount of words in either English or Spanish. These codeswitched slogans included words inserted that provided perceptual salience or markedness, motivating participants to direct their attention in a specific language and thus recalling or not the slogans at the end of the studies, and also having attitudes towards that specific codeswitched message.

This dissertation is one of the first that attempts to widen the scope of word choice (i.e. adverbial intensifiers) in the construction of codeswitched slogans for bilingual Hispanics in the U.S. Prior research has only focused on intensified language in a Dutch/English bilingual context. Special attention was given to adverbial intensifiers that accentuated/enhanced some of the characteristics of the advertised product.

Based on the findings suggested from these two studies, it can be concluded that the adverbial intensifier 'so/tan' didn't play a critical role in Hispanic Americans' attitudes towards the advertisement, brand, slogan and purchase intention, nor did affect slogan recall. However, the language of the intensifier was important for participant's slogan recall in a Spanglish context. This dissertation is not the only one that found no effects of intensifiers in advertisements. Even though Den Ouden and Van Wijk's (2007) research measured the impact of classic vs innovative intensifiers on message clarity, text attractiveness and appropriateness, they found that the innovative versions of their advertisements directed to young Dutch were not rated positively and were found to negatively affect those variables. However, previous research suggests that different types of intensifiers (semantical) do yield more favorable attitudes towards the advertisement, brand and purchase intention in English/Dutch bilingual speakers (Jacobs, 2017).

The framework presented in this dissertation is meant to be applicable to different languages and situations in which multilingual consumers exist. Both models use a particular language that could be considered as the majority language for one population, but the minority language for another one. Even though in the U.S. English can be considered the majority language and Spanish the minority language (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b), this dissertation determined language majority based on the number of words used per each codeswitched slogan. Both English and Spanish were considered the majority language in any case.

Perception of markedness played a critical role in activating language schemas in this study (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b). Language schemas include individuals'

perceptions about the social meanings of the language, the culture associated with the language, attitudes toward the language, the kind of people who speak the language, the contexts when the language can be used, the topics for which the language is appropriate, and beliefs about how others perceive the language (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b).

In the context of the slogans constructed in Spanglish, the language schema for a particular language (either Spanish or English) was activated when the language of the slogan was being processed. The language schema for the marked words is dominant in the given context (Luna and Peracchio 2005b). Lastly, in a codeswitched slogan, the embedded language unit was a novel element in the sentence, and it contrasted with the rest of the sentence. In this process, the inserted word (either Spanish or English) became marked and therefore it grabbed the reader's attention and was likely to be recalled more than the counterpart.

Advertising Implications

The two studies presented in this dissertation suggested that one of the most important tactics when trying to catch consumers' attention is language. Without communicating in a relevant way, there is a risk of losing your audience's attention immediately. In fact, advertisers need to think twice before using English, Spanish or Spanglish language to target the Hispanic population. They need to consider which language is more salient, and how their audience perceives that language, since those perceptions will influence their response to the advertisements. A well-crafted salient message influences a buyer during the actual purchase.

Nowadays advertising businesses have become a vast industry due to the large number of products and services being offered. Effective advertising messages reach

potential customers through campaigns that enable products or services to reach the right people by increasing the awareness about the product, its benefits and drawbacks. Advertising is important for every aspect of a business. It plays an imperative role for both companies and consumers.

Within advertising, copywriting features simple words or short sentences that are written with a purpose. When a copy is well written, it sets up a positive image for brands and it is likely to be enticing. Effective copy needs to be approached strategically, though. A lot of research is needed to gain any valuable insight into the target audience; understanding the audience's culture is critical to succeed, especially in a country such as the U.S. where the diversity of cultures can be a challenge for copywriters.

This dissertation specifically focused on the creation of Spanglish slogans that included an adverbial intensifier targeting one of the rapidly growing markets: Hispanics. Its focus was to come up with a brief yet memorable phrase that would allow participants to retain it throughout the study. The slogans used in the studies contained between four and six words: A pronoun (it's), two adjectives (pure/refreshing), the conjunction 'and,' and the adverbial intensifier 'so.' Codeswitched slogans used in other studies have been longer and not been used in terms of slogan recall (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b).

While the use of Spanglish is complex yet catchy, these slogans focused on adjectives that would have the same meaning among the Hispanic population. Copywriters must keep in mind that if they want to use nouns in the slogans, research has to be done to know the specific meaning these nouns have among their audience. These nouns may be relevant to only one group, but not to other Hispanics.

Copywriters therefore need to be very thoughtful when using codeswitched nouns in their slogans to avoid any misunderstandings. For instance, the noun 'cake' has different translations among Hispanics: *pastel* for Mexicans, *bizcocho* for Spanish, *torta* for Colombians, *queque* for Hondurans, etc. These words are defined differently across Latin American countries. Advertisers must keep in mind that Hispanic Americans are made up of multiple cultures, and their messages should not be a one-size-fits-all message.

It's important for copywriters to delve into the various subcultures that can be found within the larger Hispanic culture. By tailoring messages even further, you look at similarities and differences among those different groups. Language can absolutely demarcate these linguistic differences. Some elements like slang words and saying are indicators of a specific culture which makes the speakers stand out.

The demand for bilingual and bicultural copywriters in the advertising industry is pivotal. Writing an effective copy isn't about being able to achieve perfection in writing either in English or in Spanish language. It is about understanding the target audience and what the brand wants to express through the copy. Translation isn't enough, there is a need to understand context, culture and language. Having non-monolingual English or Spanish copywriters in the industry would contribute having a better understanding of the Hispanic-American market.

In addition, advertisers need to consider the context in which the advertisements will be viewed. For instance, Bishop and Peterson (2010) suggested that the main language of a codeswitched ad should match that of its medium to increase favorable

advertising responses. If advertisers decide to use Spanglish in their slogans, then they should have a purpose to communicate to their audience through that specific medium.

Because language is in constant change, the most successful copy should capture the essence of the people that it has been written for. The use of colloquial language or slang could be used only if it fits the brand personality. Using different languages to try to appeal to a specific audience would make sense only when the message is understood; copywriters must make sure the audience understands why that copy was written for them.

Advertisers also need to look at their target audience's attitude towards language in general. If a codeswitched message is crafted, and if there is a neutral or a positive attitude towards it, slogans could be carefully designed to make the majority language salient. Spanglish is a phenomenon that is very well recognized among many young Hispanic Americans; even though they may or may not engage in it, they certainly understand what Spanglish is and have a take on it.

Language proficiency fluctuates among this market sector. Spanglish patterns also vary among each generation in the U.S. According to the Pew Research Center (2013) more than two-in-ten (22%) immigrant youths report using the language hybrid most of the time, and 47% report using it some of the time. Adoption of Spanglish peaks in the second generation; 26% report that they use it most of the time, and 53% report that they use it some of the time. The likelihood of using any Spanglish is lower among the third generation, though 20% use it most of the time, and 37% use it some of the time.

Advertisers should also keep in mind that Spanglish has different regional variations that are spoken in different parts of the U.S. with high predominance of

Hispanics. Ultimately, as advertisers become more aware of multicultural and multilingual variation, they could turn to Spanglish communications to not only influence product perceptions but to acknowledge the multiple identities of Hispanics associated with language use.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

This dissertation offered a theory-based empirical examination of bilingual codeswitching (Spanish/English) in advertising, language preferences, and the effects of the use of adverbial intensifiers within the context of slogan creation. This research also provided advertising researchers with an awareness of the social motivations of codeswitching bilingual individuals may choose as a way of communicating desired or perceived group membership and interpersonal relationships. This research ultimately presented three new perspectives in the study of language in persuasive communication that had not previously been studied.

First, the importance of language choice in the slogan creation process. The experiments employed in this dissertation shed light on an area of investigation that has not been fully explored to date in persuasive communication research, namely, the language preferences in codeswitched slogans that included adverbial intensifiers targeted to Hispanic Americans in the U.S.

In terms of language choice, copywriters are creating copy that targets a heterogeneous speech community; Hispanic Americans who have three different linguistic options: English, Spanish or Spanglish. This consumer segment bears two cultures, though: the American culture due to the country where either they were born or raised, and the Latino culture which can be from their country of origin, or their parents' home country, whatever the case may be. Both cultural and linguistic aspects need to be considered when creating slogans intended for this audience.

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In addition, the language spoken in different areas of the U.S. also depends on the local varieties of Spanish. Therefore, the Spanglish spoken in South Texas, where there is a heavy influence from Mexican Spanish will differ from the Spanglish spoken in Miami, where there is Cuban Spanish influence, or New York City, where the Spanglish will be influenced by the Spanish spoken in Puerto Rico.

Second, the findings of this dissertation highlighted the importance of ensuring that efforts designed to target Hispanic Americans are well conceived, including the seemingly smallest details such as the word choice while crafting slogans. Copywriters need to consider the implications of poorly worded advertisements or even advertisements that may seem correct to some but not to other target audiences. Copywriters often struggle while trying to find the right word or phrase to convey an effective message.

These experiments demonstrated how merely changing the language of the slogan or some of the words can have a significant impact on persuasion, specifically, on attitudes towards the advertisement, the brand, and the slogan. This research, though, extended to other advertising measures such as purchase intention and slogan recall, which to date, had not been object to study in terms of Spanglish codeswitched advertising slogans.

Furthermore, this dissertation extended both the Matrix Language Frame Model and the Markedness Model (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, 1993b, 1993c) to the perception of written Spanglish codeswitched slogans in an experimental setting. Little research exists on the development of Spanglish slogans, which is not surprising given the controversy of Spanglish among the general public alike, scholars and educators. Spanglish is a

unique variation that includes elements of both Spanish and English, and which reflects the *genialidad* (brilliance) and diversity of the speech community that speaks it.

Until now, there is no research that focuses on the effect of adverbial intensifiers in English/Spanish bilingual consumers. What copywriters need to consider is whether adding an intensifier makes the slogan stronger, or more frenetic. Both English and Spanish are languages with complex and simple words; crafting a clear and concise slogan should be the main focus, especially if you want to leave an imprint on your consumer's mind through the slogan.

Thirdly, study two found that participants' attitudes towards codeswitching changed once exposed to an advertisement that included a slogan in Spanglish. One possibility for what this finding was found could be the fact that Spanglish has usually been viewed in a negative light even among the Hispanic population, without forgetting the contribution of current political and class issues that also contribute to negative perceptions of Spanglish speakers in the U.S. Another possibility could have been that Spanglish is a prevalent phenomenon in spoken language that is not often seen in written language. Even though there have been advertising campaigns using Spanglish, special attention is needed to fit this niche market with unique preferences and identity that make them different from the market at large.

Lastly, this research adds to other studies of Spanglish codeswitching. For example, Luna and Peracchio (2005a, 2005b) who investigated the notion of language schemas and the social constraints of code switching described by Myers-Scotton's (1993a, 1993b, 1993c) Markedness Model in an advertising context. And also, Bishop

and Peterson's (2010) who examined the role that medium context plays in understanding bilingual consumers' responses to codeswitched advertisements.

Limitations

As with the majority of studies, the design of the current studies is subject to limitations. The first limitation is in terms of an insufficient sample size for statistical measurement. Even though the two experiments ran for this dissertation had at least 50 observations per condition (Simmons, Nelson, & Simonsohn, 2013), there was no strong effect found in terms of the impact of intensifiers in the advertising measures used.

It is always suggested that a larger sample size with greater numbers in each cell would lead to statistically significant findings in favor of the research questions. As such, because each study employed a sample of over 200 participants with upwards of 50 subjects in each cell, it was expected that the findings would support some of the research questions. This was not the case, however.

In terms of language proficiency, participants in this study were firstly screened asking them to express what language other than English they were fluent in. Participants who reported that the language was Spanish were able to take part in the studies. Language ability was not assessed via other self-report measures in which individuals report their proficiency concerning speaking or listening for Spanish because these studies were not focused on those skills. Even though self-report language measures have been used in other research (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a, 2005b), these studies did not require any complex assessment due to the simplicity in which the slogan was constructed. However, future studies could examine how people of different ages with varying levels of Spanish proficiency respond to the stimuli tested.

Lastly, this research took place online. We do not know whether subjects who took part of the studies might have faced any confounding effects that could have interfered while being exposed to the advertisements. In order to control for the possible confounding effects of the exposure to the ads, future research could use a more natural setting where participants could pay more attention to the stimulus to keep every detail of the advertisement in their minds. It is possible that language-based effects may vary depending on the medium of communication; in this case, the advertisements were shown online.

Future Research

In terms of future research, copywriters could include other lexical or semantic intensifiers while crafting their slogans to know whether these would have an impact on Hispanic's attitudes towards the advertisement, the brand, the slogan, and the purchase intention. Also, to know whether or not these intensifiers would be easier to recall in a codeswitched environment. Due to the nature of an effective and memorable slogan, word choice plays a crucial role in slogan creation; trying to keep it short and simple in a codeswitched context will be a challenge that copywriters must face.

Further research should include a wider age range for Hispanic Americans to see whether these results hold among a more general population. For instance, with respondents older than 30 years of age, since it is possible they would be from another generation where the mix of English and Spanish languages could be less common, or with children and teenagers who are now growing up speaking Spanglish, and who may be proud of their Spanglish identity. As native- Spanish speakers adapt to life in the U.S.

and later on may raise children who quickly become acculturated into the American culture, their Spanish spoken at home becomes Anglicized.

Since the Hispanic American population is a rapidly growing market sector, advertising industries must carefully consider language choice in order to succeed in marketing and positioning their products and services. Future research could focus on Hispanic Americans located in highly dense regions throughout the U.S. as different areas may show different attitudes towards codeswitched advertisements.

Regarding the attitudes towards codeswitching, this dissertation measured an overall change in participants' attitudes after being exposed to the Spanglish advertisement. Future research could be particularized in terms of looking at the differences between females and males or even breaking the whole population into two age ranges to see whether participants in their late teens early twenties differ significantly from the participants in their late twenties.

Hispanic identity and Spanish proficiency were not assessed or looked at in these studies; hence, further research could examine whether this topic would bring different results based on level of Spanish competence and self-identification within the Hispanic culture. It remains important to also examine participants' L1 or L2. Subsequent research should include a question in the questionnaire asking which language the person learned first, grew up speaking, or which language they would feel more comfortable speaking.

Based on the age range that subjects reported in these studies and knowing that a large percentage of them (more than 93% in both studies) were born in the U.S. it could be inferred that Spanish was their L1; however, it would be critical to know this

information to discern whether L1 or L2 would bring different attitudes toward Spanglish, or whether L1 or L2 make a difference in terms of slogan recall.

It would also be significant to research codeswitching in other languages and populations within the U.S., and whether codeswitching occurs between languages other than English and Spanish, and specifically where the two languages do not share the same alphabetic scripts (Korean and English by Ahn & La Ferle, 2008).

Furthermore, the stimuli used in both experiments did not vary in terms of the design. Though the primary focus was on the slogan, the size of the text in relation to the image, placement of the image, and visualization of the slogan were not particularized. The advertising layout could have changed the effects of the advertisements in terms of the attitudes towards it. Future research could consider exploring the placement of visuals, particularly the slogan. Using multiple slogans per the codeswitching type with a larger sample size of respondents could improve external validity of the findings of the current studies.

Additional research should examine the generalizability of these findings across other types of media as well (e.g. social media vs. broadcast). The more interesting and appealing you can make the advertisements, the more likely your audience is to respond to the call to action you have in the ad. Advertising in social media has its unique ways to reach the audience. Unlike traditional media, social media is real-time and constantly moving; it also helps cast a wider geographic audience toward a specific kind of customer.

Lastly, these studies focused only on one advertisement and on one product category: a fictitious vitamin water. Though other experiments have featured only one

stimulus for testing, future research could attempt to replicate these results using advertisements for other types of products or services that would result in different outcomes. Since Hispanics have been shown to possess a higher degree of brand loyalty than other ethnicities (Gudat, 2019), it may be appropriate to study advertisements with products or services that have a high degree of loyalty among this population.

Figure 1

Experimental Stimulus in English and with No Intensifier

Note. This experimental stimulus was used in experiment one.

Figure 2

Experimental Stimulus in Spanish and with No Intensifier

Note. This experimental stimulus was used in experiment one.

Figure 3

Experimental Stimulus in English and with Intensifier

Note. This experimental stimulus was used in experiment one.

Figure 4

Experimental Stimulus in Spanish and with Intensifier

Note. This experimental stimulus was used in experiment one.

Figure 5

Experimental Stimulus in Majority Spanish and with Intensifier in English

Note. This experimental stimulus was used in experiment two.

Figure 6

Experimental Stimulus in Majority English and with Intensifier in Spanish

Note. This experimental stimulus was used in experiment two.

Figure 7

Experimental Stimulus in Majority Spanish and with Intensifier in Spanish

Note. This experimental stimulus was used in experiment two.

Figure 8

Experimental Stimulus in Majority English and with Intensifier in English

Note. This experimental stimulus was used in experiment two.

Figure 9

Interaction Plot Between the Type of Codeswitching Language and the Language of Intensifier
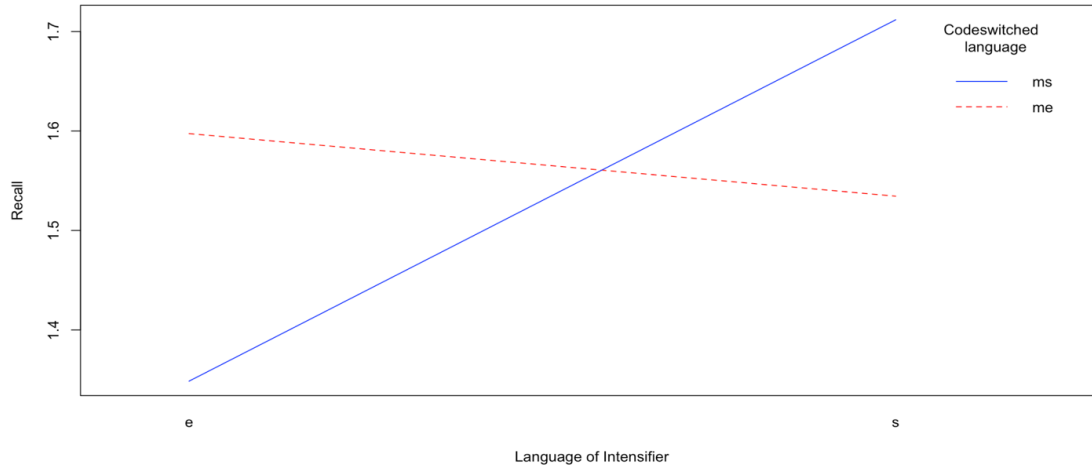
Note. This interaction effect indicates that when participants were exposed to a

Majority-English advertisement the language of the intensifier didn't matter. However,

when they were exposed to a Majority-Spanish advertisement, participants were more

likely to recall more words when the language of the intensifier was in Spanish compared

to when it was in English.

Table 1

MANOVA Experiment One

Predictor	*df*	Pillai	*F*	*p*
lan.type	1	0.04	3.64	0.013*
Residuals	228			
lan.type	1	0.04	3.66	0.013*
lan.intens	1	0.02	1.99	0.117
Residuals	227			
lan.type	1	0.04	3.66	0.013*
lan.intens	1	0.02	1.99	0.117
lan.type:lan.intens	1	0.00	0.68	0.565
Residuals	226			

*p < .05

Table 2

Fixed-Effects ANOVA Results Using ADS as the Criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
lan.type	3.38	1	3.38	2.25	.135	.01	[.00, .04]
lan.intens	0.08	1	0.08	0.05	.815	.00	[.00, .01]
Error	340.88	227	1.50				

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence interval, respectively.

Table 3

Fixed-Effects ANOVA Results Using BRAND as the Criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
lan.type	1.84	1	1.84	1.63	.203	.01	[.00, .04]
lan.intens	2.77	1	2.77	2.46	.118	.01	[.00, .04]
Error	255.67	227	1.13				

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence interval, respectively.

Table 4

Fixed-Effects ANOVA results using SLOGAN as the criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
lan.type	10.44	1	10.44	8.37	.004	.04	[.01, .08]
lan.intens	2.40	1	2.40	1.93	.166	.01	[.00, .04]
Error	282.97	227	1.25				

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence

interval, respectively.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for SLOGAN as a Function of a 2(lan.type) X 2(lan.intens) Design

	lan.intens				Marginal	
	n		y			
lan.type	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
e	3.38	1.10	3.70	1.22	3.57	1.17
s	3.09	1.02	3.17	1.09	3.13	1.06
Marginal	3.23	1.06	3.45	1.19		

Note. M and *SD* represent mean and standard deviation, respectively.

Table 6

Fixed-Effects ANOVA Results Using PI as the Criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
lan.type	0.02	1	0.02	0.01	.936	.00	[.00, .00]
lan.intens	3.84	1	3.84	1.38	.242	.01	[.00, .03]
Error	631.79	227	2.78				

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence interval, respectively.

Table 7

Fixed-Effects ANOVA Results Using PI & PB as the Criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
lan.type	0.09	1	0.09	0.04	.849	.00	[.00, .01]
lan.intens	2.38	1	2.38	0.92	.2338	.00	[.00, .03]
purchase.beh	49.81	1	49.81	19.29	.000***	.08	[.03, .14]
Error	581.06	225	2.58				

***p < .001

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence

interval, respectively.

Table 8

Fixed-Effects ANOVA Results Using RECALL as the Criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
lan.type	9.25	1	9.25	11.33	.001	.05	[.01, .10]
lan.intens	2.66	1	2.66	3.26	.072	.01	[.00, .05]
Error	185.46	227	0.82				

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence interval, respectively.

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations for RECALL as a Function of a 2(lan.type) X 2(lan.intens) Design

	lan.intens				Marginal	
	n		y			
lan.type	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
e	0.94	0.93	0.90	0.95	0.91	0.94
s	1.54	0.73	1.15	0.96	1.32	0.88
Marginal	1.25	0.88	1.02	0.96		

Note. M and *SD* represent mean and standard deviation, respectively.

Table 10

MANOVA Experiment Two

Predictor	*df*	Pillai	*F*	*p*
codeswitched.lang	1	0.02	2.19	0.089
Residuals	258			
codeswitched.lang	1	0.02	2.19	0.089
lang.intensifier	1	0.00	0.82	0.482
Residuals	257			
codeswitched.lang	1	0.04	2.18	0.090
lang.intensifier	1	0.00	0.82	0.484
codeswitched.lang: lang.intensifier	1	0.00	0.06	0.98
Residuals	256			

Table 11

Fixed-Effects ANOVA Results Using ADS as the Criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
codeswitched. lang	0.00	1	0.00	0.00	.961	.00	[.00, 1.00]
lang.intensifier	0.59	1	0.59	1.62	.204	.01	[.00, .03]
codeswitched. lang x lang.intensifier	0.30	1	0.30	0.82	.365	.00	[.00, .02]
Error	93.50	256	0.37				

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence

interval, respectively.

Table 12

Fixed-Effects ANOVA Results Using BRAND as the Criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
codeswitched. lang	4.93	1	4.93	1.98	.160	.01	[.00, .03]
lang.intensifier	4.97	1	4.97	2.00	.159	.01	[.00, .04]
codeswitched. lang x lang.intensifier	0.00	1	0.00	0.00	.976	.00	[.00, 1.00]
Error	636.84	256	2.49				

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence

interval, respectively.

Table 13

Fixed-Effects ANOVA Results Using SLOGAN as the Criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
codeswitched. lang	11.49	1	11.49	5.78	.017	.02	[.00, .06]
lang.intensifier	2.41	1	2.41	1.21	.272	.00	[.00, .03]
codeswitched. lang x lang.intensifier	0.05	1	0.05	0.02	.877	.00	[.00, .01]
Error	509.29	256	1.99				

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence interval, respectively.

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations for SLOGAN as a Function of a 2(codeswitched.lang) X 2(lang.intensifier) Design

| | lang.intensifier | | | | Marginal | |
| | e | | s | | | |
codeswitched.lang	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
me	4.08	1.34	3.86	1.45	3.99	1.39
ms	3.63	1.52	3.46	1.33	3.55	1.43
Marginal	3.87	1.44	3.66	1.40		

Note. M and *SD* represent mean and standard deviation, respectively.

Table 15

Fixed-Effects ANOVA Results Using PI as the Criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
codeswitched. lang	18.62	1	18.62	5.94	.016	.02	[.00, .06]
lang.intensifier	11.27	1	11.27	3.59	.059	.01	[.00, .05]
codeswitched. lang x lang.intensifier	0.04	1	0.04	0.01	.913	.00	[.00, .00]
Error	803.22	256	3.14				

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence

interval, respectively.

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations for PI as a Function of a 2(codeswitched.lang) X 2(lang.intensifier) Design

	lang.intensifier				Marginal	
	e		s			
codeswitched.lang	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
me	3.19	1.64	3.64	1.91	3.39	1.77
ms	3.76	1.80	4.15	1.77	3.94	1.79
Marginal	3.45	1.73	3.90	1.85		

Note. M and *SD* represent mean and standard deviation, respectively.

Table 17

Fixed-Effects ANOVA Results Using RECALL as the Criterion

Predictor	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	partial η^2	partial η^2 90% CI [LL, UL]
codeswitched. lang	0.08	1	0.08	0.14	.712	.00	[.00, .01]
lang.intensifier	1.45	1	1.45	2.41	.122	.01	[.00, .04]
codeswitched. lang x lang.intensifier	2.92	1	2.92	4.85	.029	.02	[.00, .05]
Error	154.04	256	0.60				

Note. LL and UL represent the lower-limit and upper-limit of the partial η^2 confidence interval, respectively.

Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations for RECALL as a Function of a 2(codeswitched.lang) X 2(lang.intensifier) Design

| | lang.intensifier | | | | Marginal | |
| | e | | s | | | |
codeswitched.lang	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
me	1.60	0.75	1.53	0.78	1.57	0.76
ms	1.35	0.90	1.71	0.64	1.52	0.81
Marginal	1.48	0.83	1.62	0.72		

Note. *M* and *SD* represent mean and standard deviation, respectively.

APPENDIX C

STUDY MEASURES

1. **Attitudes toward the ad [A$_{AD}$].** A 5-item semantic differential scale by Spears

   & Singh (2004).

   This advertisement is:

   Unpleasant __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Pleasant
   Unlikable __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Likable
   Interesting __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Boring
   Tasteful __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Tasteless
   Artful __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Artless
   Bad __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Good

2. **Attitudes toward the brand [A$_{BR}$].** A 6-item semantic differential scale by

   Spears & Singh (2004).

   This brand is:

   Unappealing __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Appealing
   Bad __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Good
   Unpleasant __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Pleasant
   Unfavorable __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Favorable
   Unlikable __ __ __ __ __ __ __ Likable

3. **Attitude toward the slogan [A$_{SL}$].** Measured on a seven-point Likert scale

   ranging from strongly disagree = 1 to strongly agree =7, by Ahn, La Ferle, and

   Lee (2017). (Adapted from Chang, 2004)

   This slogan is:

   - Likable
   - Interesting
   - Unpleasant
   - Good
   - Believable

- Unreasonable
- Authentic
- Convincing

4. **Purchase Intention (PI)**. One item measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from definitely not buy it to definitely buy it. By Spears & Singh (2004).

   - What's the likelihood that you would purchase this product?

5. **Slogan Recall (SR)** (Huang & Lin, 2017) "The ability of participants to remember the contents of the slogan after being exposed to them" (p. 5)

   High recall (2 points) –Correctly written slogan

   Low recall (1 point) –Partially corrected written slogan

   No recall (0 points) –Completely incorrect written slogan

6. **Attitude toward codeswitching** (A_{CS}). This scale consisted of five items to which the participants were asked to agree or disagree on a six-point Likert scale (adapted from Anderson, T. K., 2006). The five sentences were:

   1. *It looks cool when somebody mixes Spanish and English in writing.*

   2. *It bothers me when somebody mixes Spanish and English in writing.*

   3. *The mixture of English and Spanish reflects who I am.*

   4. *Texts written in both Spanish and English reflect the speech of my community better than ones written only in English or Spanish.*

   5. *When I read texts in both Spanish and English, I can better relate to them.*

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