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The Effects of Language on Attitudes Toward Advertisements and Brands Trust in Mexico

Nuria Alonso García [a], Piotr Chelminski [b] & Eva González Hernández [c]

[a] Department of Foreign Languages, Providence College, Providence, Rhode Island, USA

[b] Department of Marketing, Providence College, Providence, Rhode Island, USA

[c] Carrera de Mercadotecnia, TEC de Monterrey, Campus Guadalajara, Escuela de Negocios y Humanidades, Col. Nuevo México, Zapopan Jal., México

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Nuria Alonso García

Department of Foreign Languages, Providence College, Providence, Rhode Island, USA

Piotr Chelminski

Department of Marketing, Providence College, Providence, Rhode Island, USA

Eva González Hernández

Carrera de Mercadotecnia, TEC de Monterrey, Campus Guadalajara, Escuela de Negocios y Humanidades, Col. Nuevo México, Zapopan Jal., México

The main purposes of this study are to assess the effects language of communication in advertisements directed at the Mexican consumer. Results of an experiment conducted among a sample of college students at a Mexican university indicate that the use of an English tag line in advertising a local brand generates less positive attitudes and less brand trust compared to ads that use Spanish language exclusively. These findings point to the importance of appealing to patriotic feelings, linguistic pride, and consumer ethnocentrism when advertising local brands. Additionally, the results indicate that for global brands, insertion of English words can be used without detriment to the advertisement or the brand; however, the use of English does not enhance the brand trust or the attitudes toward the ads.

In an attempt to imprint a foreign flair to their campaigns, advertisers around the world often use code-mixing in their messages. For example, McDonald's uses the "I'm lovin' it" slogan in many countries around the world without translation. Similarly, Burger King uses the English "Have it your way" slogan worldwide. Ford Mondeo tags some of its ads in Europe with "Feel the difference" and Fiat 500 encourages people to "Be open." Another example of code-mixing is the campaign developed for the Spanish airline *Vueling*, whose name itself is a code-mixed word resulting from the combination of the Spanish word *vuelo* (*flight*), and the English derivative morpheme *–ing*. These are just a few examples of the use of foreign language elements in global advertising observed by the authors during their international travels.

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Address correspondence to Nuria Alonso García, PhD, Associate Professor of Spanish, Providence College, Department of Foreign Languages, 1 Cunningham Square, Providence, RI 02918, USA. E-mail: nalonsog@providence.edu

Use of mixed language is also one of the communication approaches in marketing strategies toward Hispanic consumers living in the United States. Such use of mixed language is referred to as *code-switching,* defined in this context as the "insertion of a foreign word or expression into a sentence (e.g., into an advertising slogan), resulting in a mixed-language message" (Luna and Peracchio 2005a, 760).

The main purpose of this study is to assess the effects of mixed language on Mexican consumer attitudes toward brands and advertising. Our experimental research is an exploratory study with an aim to assess how Mexican consumers react to code-mixing in advertising messages. To ensure that code-switching can be used an effectively in advertising, companies need to assess the audience's attitude toward the use of mixed language and determine whether the audience might be receptive to a code-switched message (Luna, Lerman, and Peracchio 2005c).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Bilingual (or multilingual) speakers often code-switch from one language to another in their conversations, when the presence of the languages is salient in their environment. The use of a language in a particular situation may depend upon how a speaker wants to be perceived by others and what particular social meaning is being communicated (Gee 1996; Miller 2000). Multilingual speakers need to decide whether engaging in code-switching is acceptable in a given community or whether they will be considered language "corruptors." Code-switching is a complex phenomenon that follows functional and grammatical rules (Heredia and Altarriba 2001). According to the Matrix Language Frame model, designed to explain structural configurations on code-switching, when bilingual individuals communicate with other bilinguals, there is an interrelation between the code-switching grammatical structures selected by speakers and the social meanings that they wish to convey (Myers-Scotton 2002).

Muysken (2002) uses the term *code-mixing* to refer to "all cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence," and reserves the term *code-switching* to allude to the fluid use of several languages in a single speech form. There are three different processes that can be identified in the code-mixing:

1. The *insertion* of one lexical item from one language into a structure from the other language; examples of insertion can be found in the tag lines of otherwise Spanish-language ads for Diesel perfume in Spain (*Diesel. Fuel for life*) and ads for Eristoff Vodka in Dominican Republic using an English language tagline (*Tells it like it is).*
2. The *alternation* between structures from languages; examples of alternation can be found in ads for McCormick spices in Mexico, where the ads include French, Greek, and Arab elements; for example, one ad that alternates French and Spanish states: *Ail: Amené de la France pour les boulettes de viande au chipotle* (*Garlic: brought from France for the chipotle (*type of Mexican pepper*) meatballs)*, and the tag line is in Spanish: *Póngale lo sabroso (Make it tasty).*
3. The *congruent lexicalization* of material from different lexical inventories into a shared grammatical structure. An example of congruent lexicalization appears in ads for the Spanish airline *Vueling*, where the following is stated: *Le passenger 5 millones is cerca (The passenger 5 million is close*); the French, "Le," the English, "passenger" and "is," and Spanish structures are combined within the same sentence. Another

example is *Don't forget la toalla cuando go to le playa (Don't forget the towel when you go to the beach)*; the French, "le," the English, "Don't forget" and "go to," and Spanish structures are combined within the same sentence. Another example of congruent lexicalization can be found in the tag line for Dasani water in ads from Argentina, where the tag line reads *Mueve tu water* (*Move the water*).

The process of insertion is observed mainly in stable bilingual communities with a tradition of language separation. The process of alternation is mostly common in recent migrant communities, where speaker's proficiency in the second language is much lower than in his/her native language. The process of congruent lexicalization can be associated with second generation of immigrants or bilingual speakers of languages with approximately equal prestige (Muysken 2002). The code-mixing implemented in the present experiment reflects the process of lexical insertion, where elements of the donor language (i.e., English) are embedded in the matrix language (i.e., Spanish).

Research on the effects of code-switching provides evidence that consumers activate language-specific associations related to their attitude toward the particular language. More specifically, if a consumer's attitude toward the language is negative, then the response elicited by the slogan will lead to negative associations, and thus result in lower evaluations of the advertised brand or product. This outcome is due to activation of cognitions associated with the meaning of the word carried by the language (Luna and Peracchio 2005a). The mechanism of the effects of code switching in the context of advertising has been examined in the literature using the *markedness model* (Luna and Peracchio 2005a; 2005b). This model can be used to explain how a mixed-language message is decoded and elaborated upon by the receiver. A mixed-language message includes a foreign word or phrase as emphasis in the background of a majority language (in our study an English tag line inserted into a Spanish ad in a marketing campaign directed to the Mexican market). These foreign, code-switched words are referred to as a *marked element* or *embedded element* because, by being contrasted in the sentence, they become a focal element that activates cognitive processing about the message. Thus, if an English tag line (marked element) is used in a Spanish-dominated ad, it results in thoughts related to the English language and cultural perceptions of the American culture by the person processing this message.

The markedness model research has shown that U.S. Hispanic consumers exhibit more favorable attitudes toward products advertised using minority-to-majority code-switching, where an English (a majority language) word or phrase is used as the marked element in the background of a Spanish (a minority language) sentence (Luna and Peracchio 2005a; 2005b). This effect, called the *code-switching direction effect*, is illustrated by the persuasion superiority of minority-to-majority messages over the majority-to-minority code-switching. The direction of the code-switching has been shown to influence the effectiveness of the advertisement. Research on the code-switching between the national language and English in Germany's (Androutsopoulos 2003) and Spain's (Hernández et al. 2007) youth media shows that the use of English as an international *lingua franca* in this context responds to the identity of particular audience communities. For example, English words are used as an expression of social style within German hip-hop culture. Among Spanish young Web communities, the use of code-switching is more widely spread than in adult traditional media formats. The use of code-switching in the main narrative or the author's voice transmits a clear desire to challenge linguistic conventions by not conforming to the standards of the written language. The majority of code-switching messages in nonfiction are found in advertising, often to create sound

effects, "to form puns to highlight or suggest cultural non-equivalence between the referents of words in either language" (Callahan 2004, 92).

Nickerson et al. (2005) researched to what extent English is used in print advertisements in glossy magazines developed for non-English-speaking countries, such as the Netherlands, Germany, and Spain. The respondents were young, highly educated women in the age group 18–25 years. The results showed that the percentage of advertisements that use English words was high for each of the target countries: 81% for The Netherlands, 75% for Spain, and 56% for Germany. The respondents from all three countries exhibited neutral attitudes toward the use of English, and they rated their ability to understand and translate the slogan as high.

Past research has also shown that in some circumstances cultural aliens experience a linguistic inferiority complex. Bilinguals who speak a minority language tend to have less favorable attitudes toward their native language compared to the majority language of the country in which they reside. The majority language evokes more positive associations because it reflects the culture of the group that has the economic and political clout in the country (Grosjean 1982). Indeed, past studies have provided evidence that U.S. Hispanics perceive English as the language of integration and high vitality (Clachar 1997; Barker et al. 2001), while associating Spanish with low socioeconomic status. On the other hand, a consumer research study, using *the speech accommodation theory* (Giles et al. 1991) as a framework, has shown that Hispanic consumers appreciate the ethnic sensitivity of companies who use Spanish language in their advertising because it communicates solidarity and recognition of the importance of this cultural group (Koslow et al. 1994). Consistent with the speech accommodation theory, Spanish-language advertising is perceived as more attractive by Hispanic consumers through the reduction of linguistic dissimilarity. However, the same study indicated that using Spanish language exclusively (i.e., without English marked elements) resulted in deterioration of the attitude toward advertisements, thus confirming that consumers might be experiencing a linguistic inferiority complex as well (Koslow et al. 1994).

The findings of the the Koslow et al. study are consistent with the minority-to-majority code-switching direction effect, where an English-language marked element evokes favorable feelings about the advertised brand. Nevertheless, just as code-switching can be used to express inclusion of and solidarity with an audience from a specific language group, it could also result in exclusion, if the meaning of the code-switched message is not adequately decoded by the recipients of the message (Callahan 2004).

An advertising message that carefully combines the national language and English could create an emotional connection with the product and the brand, because of favorable effect of the language of the country of origin. Consumer perceptions regarding brand leadership and brand personality play a critical role in purchase decisions (Ming-Sung Cheng et al. 2007). Research on *brand personality* suggests a connection between human characteristics and brands, and explains how the personality traits associated with a brand influence consumer decisions. For example, in the case of Coca-Cola, the brand is perceived as cool, purely American, and real (Pendergast 1993). Similar to cultural icons, consumption symbols such as commercial brands can serve as vehicles of culture; that is, "the meaning embedded in brands can serve to represent and institutionalize the values and beliefs of a culture" (Aaker, Benet-Martínez, and Garolera 2001, 492). Thus, the use of English words might enhance the brand's association with its country of origin, if indeed such association is considered as a part of the brand's personality and image.

Another angle of the brand personality research relates to how nationalistic feelings might influence consumers' perceptions and purchase behavior toward local and global brands. Consistent with the *consumer ethnocentrism* theory, consumers exhibit more favorable attitudes toward domestic products, and they are less favorably disposed toward foreign goods. Shimp and Sharma (1987) used the term *consumer ethnocentrism* to "represent the beliefs held by American consumers about appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products" (Shimp and Sharma 1987, 280). According to this perspective, highly ethnocentric consumers tend to emphasize the positive aspects of the domestic products and disregard the potential value of foreign made items. These consumers view purchasing imported goods as unpatriotic and immoral. On the other hand, non-ethnocentric consumers are capable of judging foreign products on their own merits, regardless of the country of manufacture, or they even consider the foreign goods more positively because they have not been made in their home country. Nevertheless, the explanatory power of the consumer ethnocentrism approach can vary on the basis of the foreign country's economic competitiveness and cultural similarity and prestige in relation to the native country (Balabanis and Diamantopoulus 2004).

As Moran and Abbott (1994, 58–59) point out, Mexican ethnocentrism rests on the "strong belief on the nation's and region's cultural and moral superiority, yet national inferiority is assumed in economic, technological, education and production issues." In a study conducted among Mexican consumers (Bailey and Gutierrez de Piñeres 1997), upper-income participants exhibited a more positive attitude toward American imported food products than toward domestic goods, reflecting a position labeled as *malinchismo*. *Malinchismo* is a notion deeply rooted in the Mexican society that characterizes the special attitude of individuals who have a better appreciation for foreign-made products over Mexican-made goods. This position is perceived negatively by general consumers, because it is seen a symbol of betrayal and disloyalty to the nation's economic development and prosperity. The term *malinchismo* evolved from the times of the Spanish conquest, when an indigenous woman known as *La Malinche* performed as interpreter for the conversations between the General Hernán Cortés (the Spanish conquistador) and the Aztec King, Moctezuma. La Malinche was accused of being a traitor to the interests of the Aztec people for her biased role as a mediator, and historians claim her to be partially responsible for the destruction of the Aztec Empire. *Malinchismo* in the Mexican social context is a synonym of traitor. Bayley and Gutierrez de Piñeres (1997) concluded in their study that middle-aged, educated, upper socioeconomic individuals are more likely to buy foreign products, and found the age group 31–35 years to be the most *malinchista* in contrast with older Mexicans. Similar results were obtained from a qualitative study conducted among Turkish consumers, where authors found that the idea of *local* implies lower quality, cheapness, and ordinariness, while the notion of *foreign* brings images of modernity, advancement, technology, economic superiority, abundance, wealth, individualism, career orientation and opportunities, hard-working people, and competition, democracy, and freedom (Ger et al. 1999). Clearly, especially in developing countries, there is a tension between the nationalistic appreciation for domestic products and the desirability for the foreign goods, which are often viewed as trendier and higher quality than domestic products.

Another approach to consumer purchase decisions based on the product's country of origin is explained by the *international animosity* construct, comprised of consumer attitudes toward a specific country on the basis of "the remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events" (Klein and Ettenson 1999, 6). This approach differs from the *consumer ethnocentrism* construct in that the hostility toward a specific country is stemming

from consumers' perceptions of a particular nation's actions. Klein and Ettenson (1999) tested the consumer ethnocentrism and international animosity constructs in a study conducted among Americans and their perceptions of products imported from Japan. Their results showed a strong animosity of U.S. consumers toward Japan due to trade-related issues (Klein and Ettenson 1999). Mexican consumer animosity toward U.S. products has been recently researched in the light of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). Hinck and Reto's study (2000) on Mexican consumers' animosity toward U.S. products shows a generally favorable perception of the American products and willingness to buy them. While Mexican consumers' ethnocentrism tested very high in the study, animosity toward the United States has proven to be very low among younger consumers, and moderate among the older respondents.

HYPOTHESES

The main objective of this study is to assess the effects of the language used in advertising to Mexican consumers. First, consistent with the perspectives of consumer ethnocentrism and the concept of *malinchismo* that is deeply rooted in the Mexican culture, we argue that consumers will prefer the use of Spanish to the English language in the context of advertising a Mexican-made product. The following hypothesis is offered:

H1: In the context of advertising a Mexican brand (a Mexican soft drink, Jarritos), Mexican consumers will:

a. Have less positive attitudes toward ads with English marked elements compared to ads in Spanish exclusively.
b. Exhibit lesser brand trust toward the Mexican brand advertised with English marked elements compared to ads in Spanish exclusively.

Second, consistent with the perspectives of the code-switching and markedness model, we argue that in the context of advertising an American brand, Mexican consumers will favor ads with marked elements (an English tag line) because the marked element will facilitate the connection of this product to its American origin and will emphasize brand personality characteristics consistent with the country of origin of the brand. Thus, we offer the following hypothesis:

H2: In the context of advertising an American brand (Coca-Cola), Mexican consumers will:

a. Have more positive attitudes toward ads with English marked elements compared to ads in Spanish exclusively.
b. Exhibit greater brand trust toward the American brand advertised with English marked elements compared to ads in Spanish exclusively.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 postulate the main effect of language in the context of advertising a particular brand. In the next hypothesis (H3), we include the interactive effect of brand and language. Thus, we examine the effects of brand and language simultaneously to show that the Mexican brand will evoke more favorable consumer reactions than an American brand, if Spanish is used exclusively. This is consistent with the consumer ethnocentrism perspective and the *malinchismo* concept. In contrast, the ad for the American brand with the English language marked element will be perceived more favorably and consumers will view it as more trustworthy, because of the natural linkage of the marked element to the country of origin. Hypothesis 3 is different from H1 and H2 in that it compares the brand's advertising and brand trust measures between brands in the

context of a particular language used (e.g., Jarritos vs. Coca-Cola in the Spanish language condition, rather than perceptions of ads for Jarritos alone). The following hypothesis is offered:

H3: In the context of advertising a Mexican (Jarritos) and an American brand (Coca-Cola), a brand by language interaction will be observed such that:

a. Mexican consumers will exhibit more favorable ad attitudes and brand trust for the American brand than Mexican brand when the English marker is used.
b. Mexican consumers will exhibit more favorable ad attitudes and brand trust for the Mexican brand than the American brand when Spanish is used exclusively.

There also has been a discussion in the literature relating to the linguistic inferiority complex, which explains why under some circumstances consumers in less developed countries might appreciate the use of marked elements associated with the highly developed economies, because such elements often communicate better quality and higher prestige for the brand and provide a stronger link with its country of origin. If this effect were present, Mexican consumers who view the country of Mexico as inferior to the United States would probably favor a product or brand with a linkage to the country that is perceived as superior. Thus, we argue that including an English marked element in an ad would facilitate more favorable perceptions and greater brand trust among those consumers who have less positive attitudes toward Mexico. In contrast, consumers who perceive Mexico more favorably would prefer ads with Spanish language only, including ads for American brands.

H4: Attitude toward the country of Mexico will moderate the effects of language use in such a way that Mexican consumers who have more positive attitude toward the country of Mexico, will generally:

a. Have a more positive attitude toward advertisements using Spanish language exclusively than those with an English marked element.
b. Exhibit greater brand trust toward Mexican brands advertised in Spanish exclusively compared to ads with English marked elements.

METHODOLOGY

Authors developed four sample ads (see Figure 1), two for Coca-Cola and two for Jarritos (a traditional Mexican soda), as stimulus material for the experiment. The ads for each of the brands were identical except for the language of the tag line (see Figure 2 for translations). Two versions were developed both for Coca-Cola and Jarritos: One was a Spanish-only version, and the other was a Spanish version with the tag line in English (English marked element).

The choice of the products has been driven by their popularity among Mexican consumers. Coca-Cola is the world's largest manufacturer and distributor of nonalcoholic beverages. FEMSA, founded in Monterrey, Mexico, is the leading beverage company in Latin America and controls an integrated beverage platform that comprises Coca-Cola FEMSA, the largest Coca-Cola bottler in the region; FEMSA Cerveza, one of the leading brewers in Mexico and important beer exporter to the United States; and Oxxo, the largest and most rapidly growing convenience store chain in Mexico with more than 4,900 stores. Coca-Cola FEMSA, S.A.B. de C.V., produces and distributes Coca-Cola, Sprite, Fanta, Lift, and other trademarked beverages of the Coca-Cola Company in Mexico. Per-capita consumption of Coke in Mexico stood at 573 servings in 2007, a growth of over 100 percent since 1987 (The Coca-Cola Company, FEMSA). Coca-Cola has heavily invested

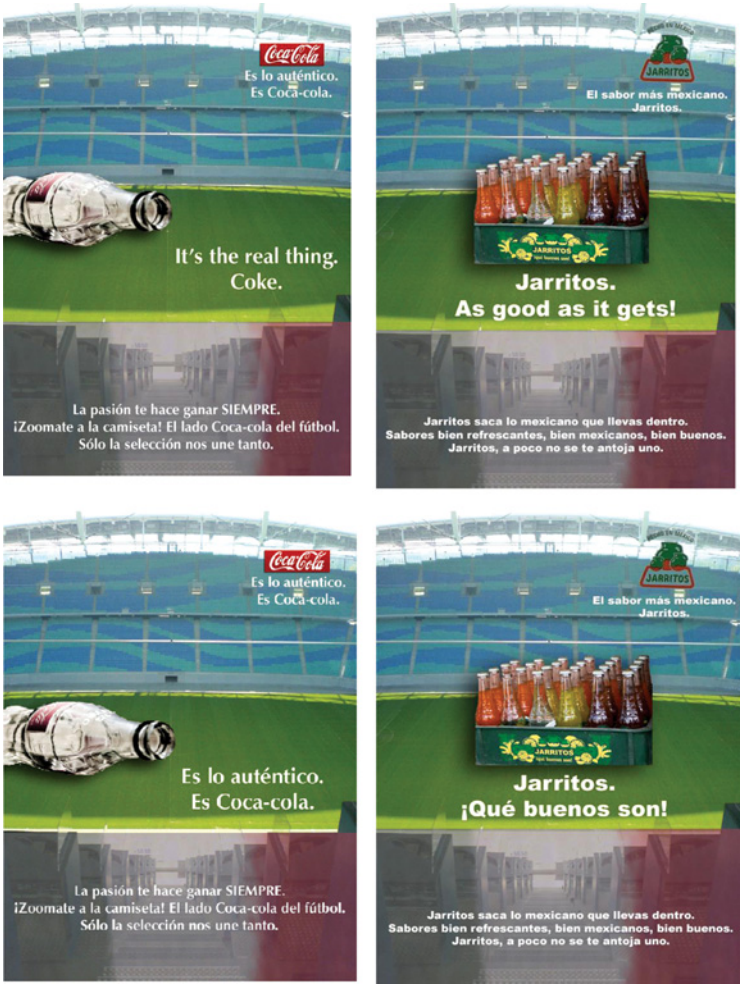

FIGURE 1 Advertising stimuli. (Color figure available online.)

in global and local sport sponsorships, positioning itself as a dynamic and leading brand of high vitality linked to unforgettable moments while also being able to make daily life interesting and fun. Coca-Cola consumers perceived it as part of their daily lives and show a high degree of loyalty to the brand (Business 2000 Case Study n.d.).

Jarritos was the first national Mexican soft drink, established in 1948. It is made from natural fruit extracts that reflect the country flavors and tastes of the Mexican people. Its name comes from the Mexican tradition of drinking from hand-made clay pottery jars, called *jarritos*, to maintain beverages fresh and cool. The Jarritos brand personality contains elements that elicit strong Mexican cultural identification. Jarritos's brand personality can be described as surprising, humorous, and satisfying, and it is perceived as purely authentic with distinctive equity attributes that evoke the Mexican heritage (Jarritos Trademark Licensing Program n.d.).

Coca-Cola	Jarritos
Upper right corner logo: *It's the real thing.* *It's Coke.*	Upper right corner logo: *The most authentic Mexican flavor.* *Jarritos.*
Center headline: *It's the real thing.* *Coke.*	Center headline: *Jarritos.* *As good as it gets.*
Body copy (bottom portion): *Passion makes you ALWAYS win.* *Join the colors. The Coca-Cola face of soccer.* *Only the national team can bring us so close together.*	Body copy (bottom portion): *Jarritos brings your Mexican identity alive.* *Very refreshing flavors, very Mexican, very good.* *Jarritos, perhaps you feel like having one.*

FIGURE 2 Translation of advertising copy.

Data Collection

The authors developed a questionnaire in English, translated it to Spanish, and then back-translated to English to ensure equivalence. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 200 college students at a private Mexican university. It included 80 males and 120 females in the age group of 18 to 26 years. The experiment was a between-subjects design. Participants were assigned randomly to either the Spanish-only or the English marked element condition for one of the two brands, resulting in four different treatment groups. Each group was located in a separate classroom and the participants were exposed to the stimulus material (one version of the ad per group) using a projection screen. Lastly, they were asked to complete a questionnaire in response to the advertisement shown. The questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scales to measure the constructs under study.

Measurement

Attitude toward advertisement and brand trust. To measure attitude toward the four versions of advertisements, we adapted items from previously developed scales such as the Emotional Quotient and Reaction Profile (EQRP; Wells 1964), and the Advertising Believability (Beltramini 1982). The EQRP scale measures global emotional reactions toward ads and specific reactions such as the ad's attractiveness and meaningfulness, while the Advertising Believability assesses the extent to which an ad can evoke confidence in its truthfulness and acceptability to consumers. Based on the content of the selected items, we

divided them into two categories: cognitive (six items) and affective (seven items) measures of attitudes (see Table 1).

Both scales had an acceptable reliability, measured by Cronbach's alpha of 0.80. In this study, we also measured brand trust using items adapted from the Perceived Brand Trust scale (Hess 1995). The eight-item measure of brand trust had Cronbach's alpha of 0.77. All measures exceeded the recommended alpha minimum of 0.70 (Nunnally 1978).

Attitude toward country. To measure the construct of attitude toward the country, we adapted items from Country Image Scale (Martin and Eroglu 1993). The nine-item scales had reliabilities of Cronbach's alpha 0.79 and 0.76 for Mexico and the United States, respectively.

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1, a and b

We predicted that use of English markers would diminish the attitude toward the ad and the level of brand trust toward a traditional Mexican brand. In support of H1ab, in the Jarritos condition, the results indicate statistically significant differences between the means of ad attitude scores

TABLE 1
Measures of Attitudes Toward the Advertisements and Brand Trust

Affective attitude toward ad (Cronbach's alpha = 0.80)
This ad is attractive.
This ad is in bad taste.
This ad touches my heart.
This ad is dishonest.
This ad is untrustworthy.
I like what the ad says.
Cognitive attitude toward ad (Cronbach's alpha = 0.80)
This ad is meaningful.
This ad is ineffective.
This ad is convincing.
This ad is believable.
I understand what the ad says.
I agree with what the ad says.
Perceived brand trust (Cronbach's alpha = 0.77)
Coca-Cola is interested in more than just selling me a drink and making a profit.
Coca-Cola is genuinely committed to my satisfaction.
When I see a Coca-Cola advertisement I believe the information in it is accurate.
Most of what Coca-Cola says about its products is true.
I think some of Coca-Cola's ads exaggerate how good it really is.
If Coca-Cola makes a claim or a promise about its product, it´s probably true.
Whenever I buy Coca-Cola, I am satisfied.
If I bought another drink from Coca-Cola company, I feel like I would know what to expect.

and brand trust. Ads for Jarritos generate less positive attitudes and lesser brand trust when English marker is used compared to the ad in Spanish exclusively (see Table 2). The effect sizes measured by Cohen's *d* were 0.54 for Affective Attitude, 0.66 for Cognitive Attitude, and 0.78 for Brand Trust. These effects indicate medium effect sizes due to language manipulation.

Hypothesis 2, a and b

We predicted that use of English marker would enhance the attitude toward the ad and the level of brand trust toward a traditionally American brand advertised in Mexico. We did not find support for these hypotheses. In the Coca-Cola condition, the results showed no statistically significant differences between the means of attitude scores and brand trust for ads with English markers versus Spanish exclusively; thus, no effect due to language manipulation was observed (see Table 2).

Hypothesis 3, a and b

For Hypothesis 3, a and b, we analyzed brand-by-language interactions. We found that for the affective component of the attitude toward the ad, the interaction was significant ($F = 3.95$, df = 1, $p < 0.05$). Detailed analysis of this interaction effect shows that there is a significant main effect of brand in the English marker condition (see Table 3). In the context of the ads with the English marker, the ad for Coca-Cola evokes more positive affective attitudes than the ad for Jarritos. However, when Spanish is used exclusively, there is no brand effect. In other words, ads in Spanish without the English marker result in the same affective attitude perceptions regardless of the brand (see Table 3 and Figure 3).

For the cognitive attitude, the interaction was not statistically significant and analysis of this interaction did not reveal any main effect of the brand (see Table 3). Thus, consumers' cognitive attitudes toward the ad do not differ between the brands in the respective language conditions, even though Jarritos brand benefits from exclusive use of Spanish (main effect of language), while for Coca-Cola the use of language does not matter (see Figure 4).

The brand-by-language interaction for brand trust was statistically significant ($F = 8.06$, df = 1, $p < 0.01$). The analysis of the interaction reveals that in the English marker condition, the ad for Coca Cola evokes greater brand trust than Jarritos, but for the Spanish-only condition there

TABLE 2
Attitude Toward the Ad and Brand Trust Scores and *t*-Tests for Within-Brand Comparisons Between the Two Language Conditions (Measured on a 5-Point Scale, 1 = Strongly Disagree)

	Jarritos			*Coca-Cola*		
	Spanish	*English*	*t-Test (df = 98)*	*Spanish*	*English*	*t-Test (df = 98)*
Affective attitude toward ad	3.38	3.01	2.67**	3.27	3.29	n.s.
Cognitive attitude toward ad	3.23	2.79	3.28**	3.00	2.96	n.s.
Brand trust	3.54	3.11	3.94**	3.37	3.44	n.s.

**$p < 0.01$; n.s = not statistically significant.

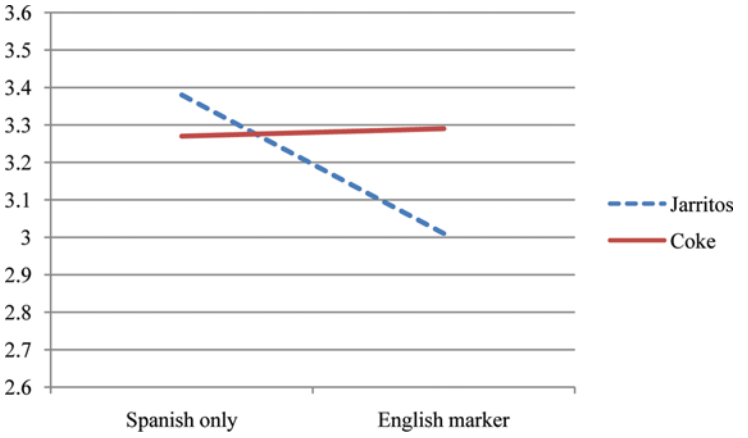

FIGURE 3 Brand-by-language interaction: affective attitude. The interaction is statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. (Color figure available online.)

is no brand effect (see Table 3 and Figure 5). Again, this analysis confirms preference for Spanish only ads for the Mexican brand (main effect of language for the Jarritos ads, but not Coke).

Hypothesis 4, a and b

Hypothesis 4, a and b, stated that consumers who have more positive attitude toward the country of Mexico will have a more positive attitude toward advertisements using Spanish language exclusively and greater brand trust for such products, compared to ads with an English marked element. We found that the participants had generally more favorable attitude toward the United

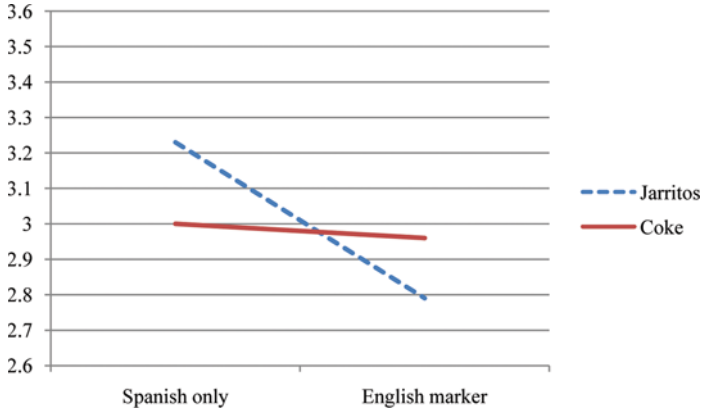

FIGURE 4 Brand-by-language interaction: cognitive attitude. The interaction is not statistically significant ($p = 0.06$). (Color figure available online.)

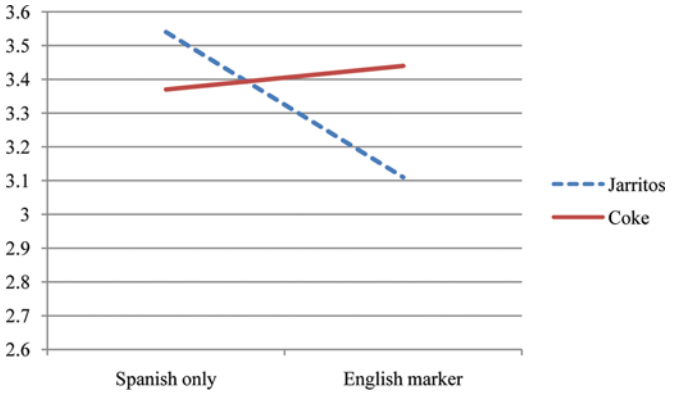

FIGURE 5 Brand-by-language interaction: brand trust. The interaction is statistically significant at $p < 0.01$.(Color figure available online.)

States than toward Mexico. (on a 5-point scale: U.S. Attitude = 4.07, Mexico Attitude = 2.57, $t = 33.82$, df = 199, $p < 0.01$). To assess these hypotheses, we analyzed interactions of country attitude by language for each brand separately.

In both the Jarritos and Coca-Cola conditions, we found no significant country attitude-by-language interaction effects for any of the dependent measures (affective and cognitive attitudes toward ads and brand trust). Thus, we conclude that the country attitude toward Mexico does not moderate the ad attitudes or brand trust perceptions between the two language conditions.

Limitations

The main limitation of this research is the use of a convenience sample of college students in Mexico. However, the choice of students here can be justified by the need to conduct this research with a sample of consumers who know some English to be able to understand the English marked element. Indeed, more than 95 percent of respondents self-reported a fair or better English proficiency (more than 70 percent reported good or excellent proficiency). Future studies could examine these experimental effects in the sample of general population to assess the language manipulation effects among both those who are proficient in English and those who do not understand the language.

As with any experiment, one has to be concerned with demand effects and other potential confounding variables. In this experiment, we have used two well-established consumer brands. Individual consumer preferences for a particular brand may have confounded the results. The random assignment of subjects to the experimental conditions generally helps to alleviate this potential pitfall. However, future studies could also measure the overall attitude toward each of the brands prior to presentation of any stimulus material to ensure that prior attitudes are controlled for.

Also, future studies could consider higher involvement product categories, because it is possible that some of the effects may be different. For example, consumers may appreciate the linkage to the country of origin more if the product's quality or durability is a more salient choice criterion.

Implications and Conclusions

An important implication of this study is that for a Mexican brand such as Jarritos, Spanish language should be used exclusively. Even if consumers have negative attitudes toward Mexico, they still express more positive feelings toward ads using Spanish exclusively, compared to ads with the English marker. This finding points to the importance of appealing to patriotic feelings, linguistic pride, and consumer ethnocentrism when advertising local brands. In the present study, Jarritos is characterized as a Mexican traditional and sincere brand. Participants perceived the use of English in the Jarritos advertising message as a transgression and potential violation of commitment to its original brand promise. This is true for both the emotions related to the ads (affective attitude) and rational evaluations (cognitive attitude) of the content of the ads.

Coca-Cola, on the other hand, has been perceived as a dynamic and exciting American brand in Mexico. This explains why consumers accept Coca-Cola's linguistic linkage to its American origin. This research suggests that for an American brand (such as Coca-Cola), English marked elements can be used without detriment to the brand, although the use of English does not necessarily enhance the brand trust or attitudes toward the ads, reflected in the virtually horizontal lines in the interaction charts.

Additionally, the results showed that even consumers who have more positive attitudes toward Mexico accept the use of English in advertising American brands. This has some implications for advertising targeted toward both residents and tourists from English-speaking countries. Thus, it appears that English markers could be used in ads for global brands to maintain brand connections and familiarity with established products, without diminishing trust toward a brand or attitudes toward the ads among local consumers.

This research also shows that the language inferiority complex does not operate in the context of advertising of local or global brands in Mexico. Use of English, which is the language of the country (United States) for which the respondents reported much more positive attitudes than for Mexico, does not enhance brand trust or attitudes toward the ads. Rather, consumers seem to prefer that advertisers use language that is consistent with the origin of the brand. Indeed, compared to the ads with English marker for Jarritos, ads for Coke that also used an English marker resulted in greater brand trust and more positive feelings toward the ad itself.

In conclusion, it appears that local brands perceived by consumers as traditional are subjected to more boundaries than global brands when developing marketing campaigns using English tag lines. In advertising, language matters as far as it connects with the personality of the brand and the identity of the consumers. Code-mixed messages are firmly rejected when they challenge the identity of the brand and threaten the brand trust. On the other hand, ads with English markers appear to be a better choice for brands with broader global appeal because the use of English is not a detriment for the local consumer, but might be helpful for tourists frequently visiting Mexico. Further, the use of English to increase prestige or brand appeal when targeting a local population might not be an effective strategy. However, future studies could examine such effects in other product categories such as luxury goods or high-tech products. Additionally, future studies could examine similar effects in other markets in the world where many consumers can read and understand the English language such as Japan, India, or French-speaking areas of Canada. It would also be interesting to examine whether the effects of code-switching are different among consumers with varying levels of English proficiency.

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