Language Choice in Advertising for Multinational Corporations and Local Firms: A Reinquiry Focusing on Monolinguals

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This research involved conducting two studies to investigate whether the asymmetric language effects observed by Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008) among bilinguals can be replicated among monolinguals. In Study 1, we observed asymmetric language effects for local firms but not for multinational corporations (MNCs), which differs from Krishna and Ahluwalia's observations. Based on Study 1's results, Study 2 further proposes and tests two routes (language expectation and language-based association) that lead to consumer slogan evaluations. The findings of Study 2 suggest that slogan evaluations for MNCs were determined via the language expectation route, whereas evaluations for local firms were determined via the language-based association route. This research provides evidence that monolinguals have different responses to language choices in advertising than bilinguals do. Possible explanations and implications are discussed, and future research directions are outlined for this underexplored area.

Language choice in advertising serves as a marketing tool in positioning a firm's brand (local versus global; Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999; Chang 2008). Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008) examined language choice in advertising by multinational corporations (MNCs) and local firms with a focus on bilingual respondents. Their results revealed that language choice in ad slogans did not influence evaluations of ads used by local firms to market necessity and luxury goods. However, for MNCs, a foreign language (i.e., English) was more

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effective than the local language in marketing luxury goods, whereas the local language (i.e., Hindi) led to more favorable evaluations of ads for marketing necessity goods. These findings have crucial managerial implications for MNCs and local firms in marketing communications. Our research aims to answer this question: Can the asymmetric language effect among bilinguals mentioned here be generalized to a monolingual population?

Because of the growth of bilingual populations worldwide, code-switched ads, which contain two or more languages, have been widely adopted by marketers to attract the attention of bilinguals. The use of this advertising tactic has emerged as a trend in monolingual countries such as China, South Korea, and Taiwan. Longitudinal research involving content analysis has suggested that code-switched ads are widely used in Taiwan. Specifically, the use of English brand names in code-switched ads in the Taiwanese market has gradually increased over 80% in total in 2007, 2009, and 2012 (Lin and Yang 2013), particularly compared with the 53.90% observed in magazine ads sampled from 2003 to 2004 (Chang 2008).

Grosjean (1982, p. 51) stated that "[b]ilingualism is the regular use of two (or more) languages, and bilinguals are those people who need and use two (or more) languages in their everyday lives." Our target populations, called monolinguals in this research, do not communicate in two languages regularly. Previous research has identified differences (e.g., brain and cognition) between bilinguals and monolinguals (see Bialystok, Craik, and Luk 2012 for a review). For instance, bilinguals expend more effort retrieving a common word than monolinguals do (Jones et al. 2012); however, bilinguals have better executive control than do monolinguals (Bialystok, Craik, and Luk 2012). Research has also shown that the language-switching mechanism of bilinguals is different from that of monolinguals (Costa and Santesteban 2004). As such, the manner in which monolinguals process code-switched ads

should be different from that of bilinguals; thus, it is not appropriate to assume that findings observed among bilinguals can be generalized to monolinguals. This research entailed conceptually replicating Krishna and Ahluwalia's (2008) research in a monolingual context. Specifically, we reinvestigated the effects of asymmetric language on ad effectiveness and the underlying mechanisms among monolinguals. Examining language choice in advertising targeting monolinguals not only fills the research gap but also provides marketing communication implications for practitioners.

In contrast to Krishna and Ahluwalia's (2008) findings, we found that asymmetric language effects were not observed for MNCs but were observed for local firms. In Study 1 for MNCs, ad slogans with foreign language elements were evaluated more favorably by monolinguals than those with local language elements, regardless of the product type. For local firms, English slogans were evaluated more favorably than Chinese slogans in marketing luxury goods. However, Chinese slogans were more effective than English slogans in marketing necessities. Based on the Study 1 results, we further proposed and tested two routes (language expectation and language-based association) that lead to slogan evaluations among monolinguals in Study 2. The results suggest that slogan evaluations for MNCs were determined via the language expectation route, whereas evaluations for local firms were determined via the lan guage-based association route. Due to in-group favoritism, consumers are content focused when processing ad messages from local firms with which they share a group identity (i.e., nationalism). Consumers pay attention to the advertised content rather than the language used. Attitudes toward an ad slogan are more favorable if the association of the advertised product matches the language used in the ad. On other hand, when evaluating ad slogans by MNCs, consumers focus on peripherals (i.e., language used) instead of content. Monolinguals have less attentional control for incongruent stimuli, so the use of a language that meets expectation is preferred. Given this, our study goes beyond replicating previous advertising research on code switching and provides managerial implications for MNCs and local firms that can be used to inform their language choices in marketing products to monolingual populations (Carlson 2015).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Numerous studies have investigated language choice in advertising to bilinguals over the past decade (e.g., Bishop and Peterson 2010; Luna and Peracchio 2005a, 2005b), particularly in terms of the impact of code switching on ad persuasion. For example, picture–text congruity (Luna and Peracchio 2001) and motivation (Luna and Peracchio 2002) have been shown to facilitate second-language processing and thus enhance ad message recall and recognition. Consumer language attitude (Luna and Peracchio 2005a), attitude toward

code switching (Luna and Peracchio 2005b), and type of processing (Luna, Lerman, and Peracchio 2005) have been identified as moderating the effect of code-switched ads. Recent research has also shown that brand origin and product category (Krishna and Ahluwalia 2008) as well as ad content (Carroll and Luna 2011) and medium context (Bishop and Peterson 2010, 2011) should be considered in language choice in advertising.

Some researchers have shifted the focus to monolingual populations. Chang (2008) has shown that using the local language in a brand name enhances brand trust and liking among Taiwanese consumers across three product categories (telecommunications, fashion, and food). Villar, Ai, and Segev (2012) found that Chinese consumers prefer the language used in the brand name to match its brand origin. Due to different research designs and foci, the generalizability of these

TABLE 1
Language Use and Proficiency

Media and Language Use[a]	Bilinguals/ India (N = 41)	Monolinguals/ Taiwan (N = 50)
What type of music do you listen to?	2.76	2.82
What type of movies do you watch?	2.59	3.52
What language newspapers and magazines do you read?	4.15	2.16
In what language do you watch TV?	2.78	2.28
What language do you use in the following situations?[a]		
At home	2.44	1.22
At school	3.50	1.94
With friends	2.89	1.64
What medium of instruction have you had in your schooling?[a]	4.13	2.20
How proficient are you in English in the following areas?[b]		
Speaking	3.84	2.96
Writing	4.21	2.98
Reading	4.50	3.51
How proficient are you in Hindi/ Chinese in the following areas?[b]		
Speaking	4.14	4.54
Writing	3.30	4.46
Reading	3.80	4.58

Notes. [a]These questions used 5-point scales anchored at 1 = *Hindi/ Chinese* and 5 = *English*.
[b]These questions used 5-point scales anchored at 1 = *Very low* and 5 = *Very high*.

TABLE 2
Language Favorability

Measure	Bilinguals/ India (N = 41)		Monolinguals/ Taiwan (N = 50)	
	English	Hindi	English	Chinese
Open-ended				
Total positive thoughts	2.17	2.67	.68	.6
Total negative thoughts	.28	.93	.3	.0
Ratings based				
Language favorability rating (scale)	6.01	5.41	5.4	6.16
Inferiority rating	1.51	1.8	2.5	1.26
Embarrassing rating	1.37	1.49	2.6	1.24

research findings across two populations appears to be an important research gap.

Bilingualism research has shown differences in cognition and effort expended on such tasks as reading between bilinguals and monolinguals. Reading words demands more work from the brain of bilinguals than that of monolinguals (Jones et al. 2012). Bilinguals have a smaller receptive vocabulary size (Bialystok and Luk 2012) and slower responses to naming pictures (Costa and Santesteban 2004), comprehending (Ransdell and Fischler 1987), and producing words (Ivanova and Costa 2008) than do monolinguals. In contrast, bilinguals have better executive control and linguistic performance than monolinguals due to their lifetime experience managing attention to two languages (Bialystok, Craik, and Luk 2012). Bilinguals' language-switching mechanism is different from that of monolinguals (Costa and Santesteban 2004), in that switching from the weaker language to the more dominant language is more difficult than vice versa for monolinguals but not for bilinguals. Given these differences, it is likely that the asymmetric language effects observed among bilinguals will not be replicated among monolinguals.

To compare the results of our research with those of Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008), we replicated all of their studies, including the pilot study, four pretests, and two main experiments, as well as their procedures and measures. In the interest of brevity, we do not repeat all of the details in this article. In the pilot study, we report how language favorability and use of language differ between India and Taiwan. We develop the stimuli used for the two experiments in the pretests and then present our main studies and results. Finally, we discuss our findings and implications.

PILOT STUDY

The purpose of the pilot study was to understand the language use, proficiency, and perceived favorability of both

TABLE 3
Extent to Which Each Language Is Associated With Certain Images and Feelings

Variable	Bilinguals data (India) N = 41			Monolinguals (Taiwan) N = 50		
	Hindi	English	F	Chinese	English	F
Globalness	2.68	3.60	92.03[a]	3.34	4.44	42.63[a]
Family	3.54	2.00	75.39[a]	4.34	2.78	56.36[a]
Exclusivity	2.29	2.86	6.58[b]	3.24	3.14	.22
Cosmopolitan	1.91	3.30	58.33[a]	3.16	4.28	32.42[a]
Closeness	3.41	2.15	54.06[a]	4.42	2.96	59.28[a]
Sense of belonging	3.59	2.66	53.45[a]	4.44	2.82	56.55[a]
Professionalism	1.78	3.78	153.33[a]	3.28	4.34	44.91[a]
Prestige	2.22	3.46	35.17[a]	3.30	3.90	12.42[a]
Polite tone of voice	3.09	2.96	.32	3.50	3.22	1.79
Stern tone of voice	2.01	2.41	2.39	3.42	3.32	.21
Personal	3.29	2.54	14.73[a]	3.46	3.22	1.02
Distant	1.98	2.98	21.50[a]	2.64	3.46	12.30[a]
Caring	3.26	2.67	10.81[a]	3.68	2.70	20.75[a]
Middle class	3.26	2.15	40.74[a]	3.14	3.46	2.23
Upper class	1.91	3.48	75.35[a]	2.88	3.92	26.25[a]

Note. All variables measured on 5-point scales, anchored at 1 = *Not at all associated* and 5 = *Strongly associated*.
[a]Means for English versus Chinese different at *p* < .01.
[b]Means for English versus Chinese different at *p* < .05.

languages. In this study, 50 undergraduate students (M_{age} = 20.41, 36% male) from a university in Taiwan participated. Table 1 shows that Chinese is the dominant language used in Taiwan, both at home and at school. In addition, a self-assessment of language proficiency showed the subjects were more proficient in Chinese than in English, which indicates that our target population consisted of monolinguals.

To evaluate language favorability, the subjects were required to assess two languages. Table 2 summarizes responses to open-ended and rating-based items regarding language favorability. An open-ended question prompted subjects to describe their thoughts, images, and feelings when hearing someone speaking English (Chinese). The results showed that both languages were considered favorable, because positive thoughts were significantly more numerous than negative thoughts (Chinese: M = .6 versus .0, t (49) = 5.42, p < .001; English: M = .68 versus .3, t (49) = 2.91, p < .01). Consistent with these findings, the subjects reported that their feelings toward both languages were favorable (neutral midpoint = 4; English = 5.4, Chinese = 6.16, both differed from 4.00 at p < .001). For the two items regarding negative associations (inferior and embarrassing), both languages received low scores (midpoint = 3, inferiority: M = 2.5 and 1.26 for English and Chinese; embarrassing: M = 2.6 and 1.24 for English and Chinese; all four differed from 3.00 at p < .02), indicating that neither language was evaluated negatively.

The results (Table 3) indicate that English exhibited significantly stronger associations with all of the words representing sophistication (all ps < .001) except "exclusivity," whereas Chinese exhibited significantly stronger associations with most of the items representing belongingness (all ps < .001), except "personal." In addition, English was associated more strongly than Chinese with "distant" and "upper class" (p < .001). However, the languages did not differ in the extent to which they were perceived as polite or stern or associated with the middle class (all ps > .001).

Discussion

In Taiwan, both Chinese and English were evaluated favorably. Nevertheless, the subject population was more fluent in Chinese than in English. These results differ from Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008), in which the bilingual population in India was fluent in both the foreign (English) and local (Hindi) languages. Still, our pilot study revealed a language association pattern similar to that observed by Krishna and Ahluwalia,

namely that the local language (Chinese) was associated with belongingness (family, closeness, sense of belonging, and caring), whereas the foreign language (English) was associated with sophistication (globalness, cosmopolitanism, professionalism, and prestige) and the upper class.

PRETESTS AND DEVELOPMENT OF STIMULI

Pretests

Pretest 1: Language expectations. We recruited 40 master of business administration (MBA) students (M_{age} = 24.6, 37.5% male) from a large university in Taiwan. They were asked to rate the extent to which they expected (two 7-point scales, anchored by *Unexpected/Expected* and *Unlikely/Likely*) that an ad slogan from either a local company or an MNC would be in English, Chinese, or a mixed language (Cronbach's alphas for all three language types > .94). A Chinese slogan was more highly expected (M = 6.78) for local firms than a mixed language (M = 5.98) or English (M = 4.3, all ps < .01) slogan. By contrast, for MNCs, English (M = 6.5) and mixed-language (M = 6.4) slogans were similarly highly expected (p > .6), while a Chinese slogan was less expected and its mean value was significantly lower (M = 4.78, both p < .01). The results (Table 4) indicate that local firms were not expected to use foreign languages and MNCs were not expected to use local languages, which is similar to those of Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008). In contrast, a mixed language was not considered an unexpected language for an MNC among the monolinguals in our study.

Pretest 2: Relevance of belongingness and sophistication. We asked 22 different students (M_{age} = 21.09, 50% male) from the same university to participate in testing the relevance of associations with belongingness (closeness and friendliness, r = .9) and sophistication (sophistication and globalness, r = .85) in evaluating necessity and luxury goods. The results reveal that product category had a main effect on belongingness (F (1, 20) = 30.57, p < .001) and sophistication (F (1, 20) = 51.67, p < .001). For necessity goods, belongingness (M = 6.59) was rated as significantly more important than sophistication (M = 3.45, F (1, 10) = 79.88, p < .001); while for luxury goods, sophistication (M = 6.27) was rated as significantly more important than belongingness (M = 3.32, F (1, 10) = 23.29, p = .001). The results (Table 5) are similar to those observed by Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008).

TABLE 4
Language Expectations

Company Type	Bilinguals/India	Monolinguals/Taiwan
Local firm	No CS = CS (mixed language) > English	No CS > CS (mixed language) > English
Multinational corporation	English > CS (mixed language) > No CS	English = CS (mixed language) > No CS

Note. CS = code switching.

TABLE 5
Relevance of Belongingness and Sophistication Associations

Goods Type	Bilinguals/India	Monolinguals/Taiwan
Necessity	Belongingness ($M = 5.3$) > Sophistication ($M = 3.9$)	Belongingness ($M = 6.59$) > Sophistication ($M = 3.45$)
Luxury	Sophistication ($M = 5.45$) > Belongingness ($M = 4.55$)	Sophistication ($M = 6.27$) > Belongingness ($M = 3.32$)

Pretest 3: Product categories. Pretest 3 was conducted to select a target product for each category. Another 50 undergraduate students ($M_{age} = 22.62$, 34% male) from the same university were recruited. The results (Table 6) indicate that soap was perceived as a necessity ($M = 1.2$), whereas ice cream was perceived as a luxury ($M = 3.74$, $F (1, 49) = 174.81$, $p < .001$). These two products fulfilled the following requirements: (a) they were frequently purchased by the students; (b) price was not the only consideration in purchasing them; and (c) the students did not consider country of origin when purchasing them. Therefore, we used soap and ice cream as necessity and luxury goods, respectively, in our main study.

Pretest 4: Ad slogans. We developed four language formats for ad slogans for each product category (Table 7) in accordance with Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008). The different language versions were translated using the standard back-translation technique (Hui and Triandis 1985) to ensure that they had the same meaning. An additional pretest involving 40 undergraduate students ($M_{age} = 22.68$, 35% male) was conducted to ensure that all four ad slogans were free of confounds. No differences were observed among the four versions of the slogans in perceived flow, clarity, and appeal (all $ps > .2$).

STUDY 1: TESTING KRISHNA AND AHLUWALIA'S FRAMEWORK

Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008) suggest that when the language of a slogan is unexpected, bilinguals pay attention to language-based associations. Slogan evaluations were more positive when the associations matched the product category. In other words, the foreign language was associated with sophistication, which matches luxury goods, and thus enhances slogan evaluations for luxury goods. The local language was associated with belongingness, which matches necessity goods, and thus enhances slogan evaluations for necessity goods. Local-language and mixed-language slogans are unexpected for MNCs, whereas no language formats is unexpected for local firms. Thus, language-based ad effects have been observed for MNCs but not for local firms. The purpose of Study 1 is to test whether Krishna and Ahluwalia's framework is valid among monolinguals.

Method

A 2 (corporation: multinational versus local) × 2 (slogan language: English versus Chinese) × 2 (product type: luxury versus necessity) between-subjects design was used. A total of 327 students ($M_{age} = 20.36$, 43.1% male) enrolled in marketing classes in Taiwan participated in the study and were randomly assigned to one of eight treatment conditions. The subjects read a short paragraph describing the company that was advertising (the descriptions were identical except for information identifying the company as either a local firm or an MNC). Subsequently, a print ad (one of four versions: English ice cream, Chinese ice cream, English soap, Chinese soap) and dependent measures (slogan evaluation: *Good/Bad* and *Like/Dislike*, $r = .90$) as well as covariates (language

TABLE 6
Pretest 3 Results: Product Categories

Product	Product Category[*]	Frequently Purchased by the Students[**]	Consider Price When Purchasing[**]	Consider Country of Origin When Purchasing[**]
Detergent	1.22	4.28	5.10	3.24
Chocolate	3.60	4.64	4.80	4.42
Ketchup	2.82	3.12	4.76	3.18
House paint	3.06	2.48	4.40	4.22
Shampoo	1.60	4.86	5.10	4.16
Cold drinks	2.94	4.86	4.76	3.52
Bath soap	1.20	5.64	4.24	3.04
Ice cream	3.74	5.10	4.00	2.96

Notes. *Range from 1 to 6, 1 = *Necessity*, 6 = *Luxury*; **Range from 1 to 6, 1 = *Unlikely*, 6 = *Very likely*.

TABLE 7
Ad Slogan

Language Used in Ad Slogan	Ice Cream	Soap
Mostly Chinese	酷爽 and 美妙 ice cream	純粹 and 天然 soap
Mostly English	Cool and wonderful 冰淇淋	Pure and natural 肥皂
Chinese	酷爽 and 美妙 冰淇淋	純粹 and 天然 肥皂
English	Cool and wonderful ice cream	Pure and natural soap

fluency: reading, writing, and speaking, $\alpha = .85$; net language favorability: difference between reported evaluations of English and Chinese) were presented. The covariates had no significant effects on the dependent variable. Thus, we did not include them in the analysis.

Results

The data were analyzed as a 2 (corporation) × 2 (slogan language) × 2 (product type) factorial design. Degrees of freedom for all measures are 1 and 319 unless otherwise indicated. Treatment means are listed in Table 8. The three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed a main effect of product type ($F = 9.63$, $p < .01$) and slogan language ($F = 9.15$, $p < .01$) on slogan evaluation. The results suggest that, among the different conditions, the soap ad ($M = 5.10$) was evaluated more favorably than the ice cream ad ($M = 4.74$); the English slogan ($M = 5.09$) was considered more favorably than the Chinese slogan ($M = 4.74$); and the interactions of corporation with slogan language ($F = 8.83$, $p < .01$) and product type with slogan language ($F = 36.98$, $p < .001$) were significant. These effects were qualified by a significant three-way interaction ($F = 13.25$, $p < .001$). For the MNC, the interaction of language with product type was marginally significant ($F = 3.23$, $p = .07$). The results showed that for necessities the English slogan ($M = 5.31$) was evaluated more favorably than was the Chinese slogan ($M = 4.9$; $F = 3.09$, $p < .08$). A similar result pattern was observed for luxury goods. The English slogan ($M = 5.36$) was evaluated more favorably than the Chinese

slogan ($M = 4.38$; $F = 18.03$, $p < .001$). For the local firm, we observed a significant two-way interaction between slogan language and product type ($F = 47.41$, $p < .001$). The subjects evaluated the Chinese slogan more favorably than the English slogan ($M_{Chinese} = 5.64$, $M_{English} = 4.52$, $F = 23.45$, $p < .001$) for necessity goods. However, for luxuries, the subjects evaluated the English slogan more favorably than the Chinese slogan ($M_{English} = 4.04$, $M_{Chinese} = 5.17$, $F = 23.96$, $p < .001$).

Discussion

The results of our study conducted in Taiwan, a monolingual country, exhibit a different pattern than Krishna and Ahluwalia's (2008) research. Our results suggest that for an MNC, when the language choice is consistent with the firm's country of origin, slogan evaluations are enhanced. Therefore, MNCs should use a foreign language to market their products regardless of the product type. However, for local firms, the language choice for ad slogans should depend on the product type. The local language should be used for marketing necessity goods, whereas a foreign language should be used for marketing luxury goods.

Based on the results of Study 1, we propose two possible routes that lead to the formation of slogan evaluation among monolinguals: language expectation and language-based association. If slogan evaluations are formed through language expectation, the expected language should be used for marketing communication. MNCs should use a foreign language, whereas local firms should use the local language. If slogan

TABLE 8
Study 1: Slogan Evaluation Results

	Bilinguals/India				Monolinguals/Taiwan			
	MNC		Local Firm		MNC		Local Firm	
Language	Luxury Goods	Necessity Goods	Luxury Goods	Necessity Goods	Luxury Goods	Necessity Goods	Luxury Goods	Necessity Goods
English	3.73[b]	2.94[a]	3.22[a]	4.21[a]	5.36[b](.98)	5.31[b](.95)	5.17[b](1.10)	4.52[a](1.05)
Hindi/Chinese	2.4[a]	4.08[b]	2.84[a]	4.16[a]	4.38[a](1.04)	4.9[a](1.05)	4.04[a](1.17)	5.64[b](1.03)

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses. Means within a column are significantly different at $p < .05$ if they do not share a common superscript. MNC = multinational corporation.
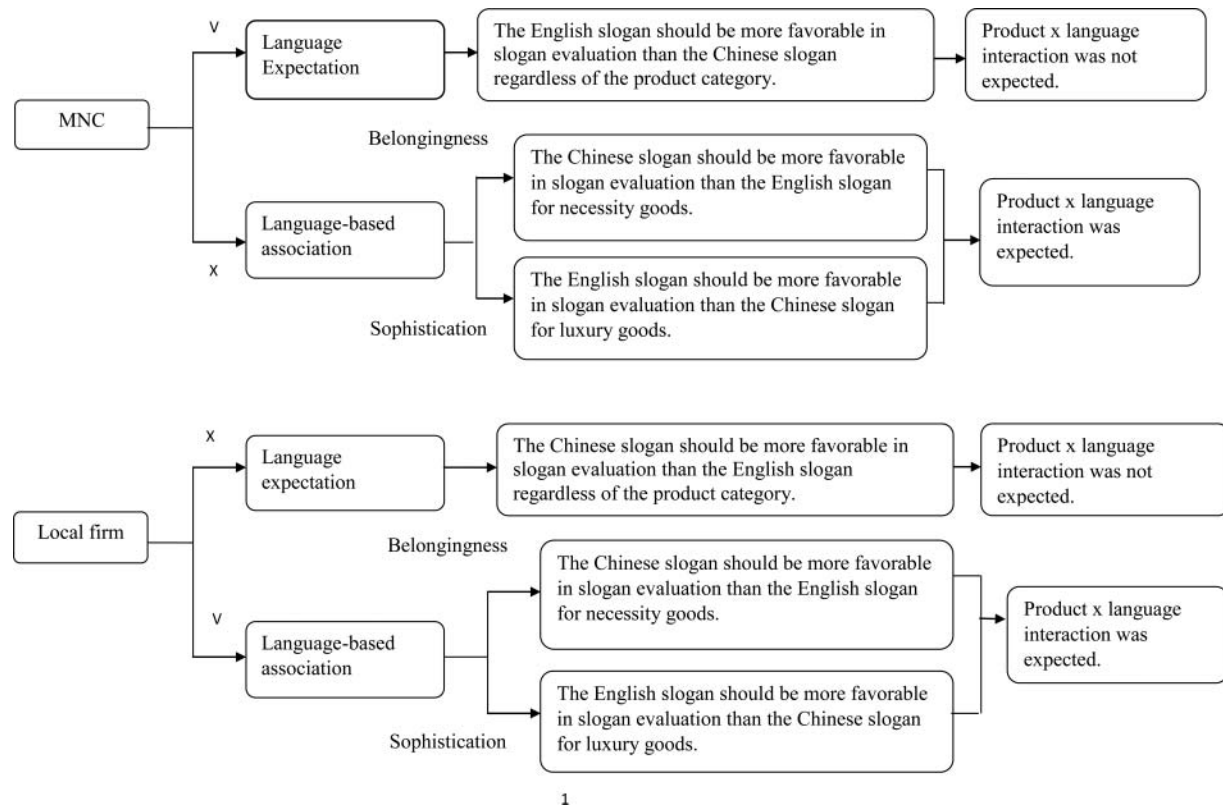
FIG. 1.   Proposed routes to slogan evaluation formation: Summary of predictions for the slogan evaluation as a function of country of origin, slogan language, and product type. *Note.* V = prediction supported; X = prediction not supported; MNC = multinational corporation.

evaluations are formed through language-based associations, they are more positive when the associations match the product category. The foreign language is associated with sophistication, which matches luxury goods and thus enhances the slogan evaluations for this category. The local language is associated with belongingness, which matches necessity goods and thus enhances the slogan evaluations for this category. Figure 1 illustrates the predictions of slogan evaluation. Study 2 was conducted to test our proposed routes.

STUDY 2: ROUTE OF SLOGAN EVALUATION AND THE UNDERLYING PROCESS

Because our findings in Study 1 differed from those of Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008), instead of following their study and investigating the mechanism underlying the effects only for MNCs we examined slogan evaluations for both MNCs and local firms. In addition to testing whether the findings of Study 1 could be replicated using mixed-language slogans, Study 2 tested the proposed routes to slogan evaluation formation. A total of 571 undergraduate students ($M_{age} = 21.74$, 42.2% male) participated in this study and were randomly assigned to groups according to a 2 (corporation: multinational versus local) × 2 (product type: luxury versus necessity) × 4 (language: English versus most English versus most Chinese versus Chinese) between-subjects design. All ad versions used

in this study are listed in Table 7. The procedure and key dependent variable (slogan evaluation: $r = .90$) were identical to those of Study 1. Participants' perceptions of the slogan in the dimension of belongingness were evaluated using three 7-point scales anchored by *Impersonal/Personal*, *Distant/Close like family*, and *Formal/Friendly* ($\alpha = .71$), whereas perceptions of sophistication were assessed using three 7-point scales anchored by *Rural/Cosmopolitan*, *Middle class/Upper class*, and *Local/Global* ($\alpha = .76$).

Results

Overall omnibus analysis. The data were analyzed as a 2 (corporation) × 2 (product type) × 4 (language) factorial design. Degrees of freedom for all measures are 3 and 555 unless otherwise indicated. The three-way ANOVA on slogan evaluation revealed the overall main effects of product type ($F (1, 555) = 7.13, p < .01$) and language ($F = 3.62, p < .02$). The main effect of product type revealed a higher slogan evaluation for necessity ($M = 5.02$) than for luxury goods ($M = 4.8$). The main effect of language showed that the Chinese slogan was evaluated lower ($M = 4.69$) than the mostly Chinese slogan ($M = 4.93$), the mostly English slogan ($M = 5.07$), and the English slogan ($M = 4.94$, $ps < .01$). There were no differences among the last three slogan evaluations. The two-way interactions of corporation with language ($F = 4.61, p < .01$)

and product type with language ($F = 8.47$, $p < .001$) were significant. These two-way interactions must be interpreted in light of a significant three-way interaction ($F = 7.24$, $p < .001$). We further examined the product type and language interaction regarding local firms and MNCs. Means, by condition, are presented in Table 9.

Multinational corporation. A 2 (product category) × 4 (language type) ANOVA revealed that the two-way interaction was significant ($F = 3.14$, $p < .05$), which indicates that slogan evaluation in different language formats exhibited different patterns between necessity and luxury goods. When the product was a luxury good, the language format of the slogan exerted a significant effect on slogan evaluation ($F = 3.41$, $p < .05$). The pattern of slogan evaluation revealed that the Chinese slogan ($M = 4.53$), the mostly Chinese slogan ($M = 4.91$), and the mostly English slogan ($M = 4.8$) were evaluated lower than the English slogan ($M = 5.25$; all $ps < .05$). The former three were not significantly different. When the product was a necessity, the language format of the slogan exerted a significant effect on the slogan evaluation ($F = 6.62$, $p < .001$). The Chinese slogan ($M = 4.37$) was considered the least favorable, followed by the English slogan ($M = 4.85$). The two mixed versions exhibited a similar evaluation ($M = 5.28$ and 5.3 for the mostly Chinese and mostly English slogans, respectively) and were evaluated significantly more highly than the Chinese slogans (all $ps < .05$). The results suggest that, for MNCs, slogans with English elements (e.g., an English or a mixed-language slogan) were evaluated more favorably than the Chinese slogan in marketing luxury goods. The Chinese slogan was the least favorable in both product categories for an MNC. These results support the prediction of the language expectation route rather than the language-based association route.

Local firm. A 2 (product category) × 4 (language format) ANOVA revealed that the two-way interaction was significant ($F = 12.30$, $p < .001$). When the product was a luxury good, the language format of the slogan exerted a significant effect on the slogan evaluation ($F = 7.02$, $p < .001$). The English ($M = 5.10$) and mostly English slogans ($M = 5.10$) were the most favorable, followed by the mostly Chinese slogan ($M = 4.46$). The Chinese slogan was rated the least favorable ($M = 4.23$). When the product was a necessity, the language format of the slogan exerted a significant effect on the slogan

evaluation ($F = 6.70$, $p < .001$). The Chinese slogan ($M = 5.63$) was the most favorable, followed by the mostly Chinese ($M = 5.08$) and mostly English slogans ($M = 5.09$). The English slogan was rated the least favorable ($M = 4.56$). The latter three slogan evaluations were not significantly different. The results suggest that for local firms, the Chinese slogan was the most favorable for marketing necessities; however, English or mostly English slogans were more favorable for marketing luxury goods. Results support the prediction of the language-based association route.

Underlying mechanism. To test the prediction that belongingness (sophistication) perceptions mediate slogan evaluations for necessity goods (luxury goods), we conducted a moderated mediation analysis in accordance with Hayes (2013). A bootstrapping method supported the claim that belongingness perceptions mediate the effect of slogan language on slogan evaluations for necessity goods, with the 95% confidence interval (CI) of the indirect effect excluding zero (lower limit [LL] CI = −.2237; upper limit [UL] CI = −.0356). As expected, belongingness did not mediate slogan evaluations for luxury goods, with the 95% CI of the indirect effect including zero (LL CI = −.0496; UL CI = .1132). Conversely, a bootstrapping method supported the claim that sophistication perceptions mediate the effect of slogan language on slogan evaluations for luxury goods, with the 95% CI of the indirect effect excluding zero (LL CI = .0215; UL CI = .1110). However, sophistication also mediated slogan evaluations for necessity goods, with the 95% CI of the indirect effect excluding zero (LL CI = .0189; UL CI = .1173). This mediation effect was not expected.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The results of the two studies in this research show that Krishna and Ahluwalia's (2008) findings regarding bilinguals in India cannot be replicated among monolinguals. The language choice in ad slogans by MNCs and local firms targeting monolinguals seems more complex than that for slogans targeting bilinguals. In the two studies, for MNCs, the English (or mixed-language) slogan was evaluated more favorably than the Chinese slogan, regardless of the product category. The findings support the language expectation route. In con-

TABLE 9
Study 2: Slogan Evaluation Results

Goods Type	MNC				Local Firm			
	Chinese Slogan	Mostly Chinese Slogan	Mostly English Slogan	English Slogan	Chinese Slogan	Mostly Chinese Slogan	Mostly English Slogan	English Slogan
Luxury	4.53[a](1.2)	4.91[a](1.09)	4.8[a](1.00)	5.25[b](.97)	4.23[a] (.87)	4.46[ab] (1.46)	5.10[b] (.78)	5.10[b] (.87)
Necessity	4.37[a](1.02)	5.28[b](.09)	5.3[b](.88)	4.85[ab](.86)	5.63[b] (1.06)	5.08[a] (.82)	5.09[a] (.8)	4.56[a] (1.14)

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses. Means within a row are significantly different at $p < .05$ if they do not share a common superscript. MNC = multinational corporation.

trast, the results for local firms seem to support the language-based association route. In both studies, for local firms, the English slogan was evaluated more favorably than the Chinese slogan in marketing luxuries, whereas the Chinese slogan was more favorable than the English slogan in marketing necessities. Study 2 further shows that the English slogan was considered as favorably as the mostly English slogan and more favorably than the Chinese slogan in marketing luxuries. Slogans with foreign-language elements (except when the local language is dominant) are superior in positioning a brand as a luxury, whereas slogans with local-language elements are superior in positioning a brand as a necessity.

In-group favoritism, which refers to when a group member tends to have a more favorable attitude toward other group members than people outside the group (Tajfel and Turner 1986), may explain why the two routes were taken. Researchers have indicated that messages from in-group members evoke content-focused processing (Mackie, Worth, and Asuncion 1990). Consumers share a group identity (i.e., nationalism) with local firms but not with MNCs; thus, when they see ads from local firms they are likely to pay attention to the advertised content (e.g., messages and product category), not simply the language used. When the product category association matches the language used, slogan evaluation is more favorable. On the other hand, for MNCs, consumers focus on the peripherals (e.g., language used). Research has indicated that monolinguals possess inferior attentional control over incongruent stimuli (Bialystok, Craik, and Luk 2012). Thus, it is likely that when they view mixed-language or English slogans by MNCs they prefer the use of language that meets their expectation, which supports the language expectation route. MNCs should be aware in monolingual markets that using only the local language in ad slogans to position a brand (i.e., local positioning) might not be as effective as expected (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999; Chang 2008).

Regarding the underlying mechanism, findings concerning the mediation effects of belongingness and sophistication were mixed. As expected, belongingness mediated the effect of language on slogan evaluations for necessity goods but not for luxury goods. Our pilot study results show that Chinese is associated with belongingness, whereas English is associated with sophistication. Taiwan's history of Japanese occupation and rule also enhances the Chinese–belongingness association. Using Chinese activates consumers' belongingness association. Thus, Chinese is more relevant than English in evaluating necessities, and English is more relevant in evaluating luxury products. However, our findings show that sophistication mediates the effect of language on slogan evaluations for both necessity and luxury goods. This unexpected result has two possible causes. The ad slogans used in the studies were different for the two product categories. The mediation effect was likely caused by the slogans rather than the product categories. In addition, in accordance with Krishna and Ahluwalia's (2008) study, the relevance of product category association to

sophistication was measured on two scales, sophistication and globalness, whereas the mediation effect of sophistication was measured on three scales anchored by rural/cosmopolitan, middle class/upper class, and local/global. The former construct focused on the association of sophistication with product categories, whereas the latter construct was used to measure respondents' perceptions of slogans on sophistication. The differences in the foci of the measures might be problematic.

Our findings seem consistent with the ad practices in Taiwan observed by Chang (2008), who indicated that the product category with the highest percentage of English brand names was luxury goods (e.g., fashion and cosmetics), whereas the product category with the highest percentage of Chinese brand names was necessity goods (e.g., daily consumption products and food). In addition, Chang (2008) indicated that English brand names enhanced the perceived globalness of a brand and Western models enhanced the perceived product quality, whereas Chinese brand names were associated with brand friendliness and trust among monolinguals in Taiwan. These factors might explain the effects that we observed for local firms in our study. Further research is required.

Language–product and language–country-of-origin (language-based association) congruity effects may provide an alternative theoretical explanation for our research findings. For slogan evaluations to be positive, language associations must match country-of-origin and product-type associations. When there is a language–product or language–country-of-origin mismatch, evaluations are low. For monolinguals, foreign language ads are salient; monolinguals pay attention to these ads because they are unfamiliar with the language and the ads break their everyday norms. For MNCs, if the language matches the country-of-origin association, evaluations are high. Mixed-language slogans are more effective than English-only slogans because they are understood better by monolinguals (Study 2). Including only a small portion of English activates congruent associations. For local firms, if language associations match product associations, evaluations are high. Thus, a foreign language should be used to advertise luxury products.

This research was designed to compare Krishna and Ahluwalia's (2008) findings with findings obtained from a monolingual population. However, the research design has limitations. First, we used different ad slogans for different product categories. The differences between ad slogan evaluations may have been caused by differences in the phrases rather than the language formats. Future research is encouraged to use an identical ad slogan for different product categories and test the ad effectiveness. Second, this research included only monolingual samples. The asymmetric code-switching effect can be compared between bilinguals and monolinguals by using the same research design in a single study. Similarly, due to difficulties defining the term *bilingual* (Francis 1999), future research should develop a scale for measuring the level of bilingualism as a continuous variable and

thereby test the moderating effect of bilingualism on code-switched ad effectiveness.

This research also provides valuable directions for future research. Our findings suggest two routes that lead to slogan evaluations for MNCs and local firms, namely language expectation and language-based association, respectively. More empirical studies should be conducted to determine how each route is taken and explore other conditions that influence the route chosen. In addition, due to significant differences in how the English and Chinese languages are written and processed (Ahn and Ferle 2008; Unger 2011), code switching between English and Chinese is likely different from that between other languages. Future research should explore how these factors may influence ad persuasiveness based on language.

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