

COPENHAGEN BUSINESS SCHOOL  
M.SC. IN INTERNATIONAL MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT  
MASTER THESIS

---

# ACCENTS SPEAK LOUDER THAN WORDS

– A STUDY ON HOW LANGUAGE AND ACCENT IN  
VIDEO COMMERCIALS AFFECT BRAND PERCEPTION

---

SOFIE LINDBLOM (108116)  
JULIA WILHELMSSON (107857)

SUPERVISOR: ARNE LYCKE

CHARACTERS: 260.177

STANDARD PAGES: 120

SUBMISSION DATE: 2018/05/15

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We want to thank a number of people who enabled this thesis to be created.

First of all, we would like to thank our supervisor Arne Lycke for his guidance throughout the process. The help we received, often with very short notice, has been truly appreciated. It is always a pleasure having a supervisor meeting with Arne.

Secondly, we would like to thank Patrik Windahl and Robin Töndel for their invaluable and encouraging help in the creation of the video commercial. Without them, this study could not have been successfully conducted.

Lastly, we would like to thank professor Johan Anselmsson, Dano Marr and Michaela Di Dato for their passionate participation and valuable inputs, which gave us a practical view on how our results can be applied in real life.

Thank you!

Sofie and Julia

# ABSTRACT

As part of the globalisation, English has gained the status of being a *lingua franca*, an international language that is spoken all around the world. Increased use of English, and increased proficiency among speakers, opens new gates for businesses. However, it also raises new questions for companies to consider in terms of what language to use in their business in general and in their marketing in particular. Therefore, this study assessed how different languages and accents used in video commercials affect consumers' perception of, and attitudes towards, the advertised brand. In addition to this, the study investigated how these findings can be used in practice. Four video commercials were created with four different voice-overs; Swedish, American, British and Australian. Besides the voice-over, the commercials were identical. A quantitative study was conducted using a survey, in which the respondents were first exposed to one of the commercials and then were asked about their perceptions (brand personality, source credibility and likability) of the brand and their attitudes (attention and purchase intention) towards it. Differences were found, both between Swedish and English, and among the three different English accents. When looking at the Swedish commercial, the brand was perceived as more attractive and the respondents paid more attention to the message. However, the English commercials yielded higher likability and the brand was perceived as more competent. When comparing the three English accents many differences were found. In terms of perception, the brand was perceived as trustworthy, exciting, and competent by respondents who were exposed to the American version. The British commercial elicited feelings of the brand being charming and sincere while the Australian version sparked associations of the brand being rugged and outdoorsy. In terms of attention, the British commercial outperformed the other versions, while the American one resulted in a higher purchase intention. The results of the study have several implications for companies' marketing tactics. Whether a company is considering standardizing or localizing its marketing communications, or whether it is looking to enhance its brand personality, and thus brand image, considerations must be made regarding what language or accent to use in commercials. Moreover, with the vast amount of consumer data available for companies today, it is believed that increased knowledge on brand perception can enable customized communications, not only for new markets but also for the individual consumer.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. Introduction .....	1
1.1. Background.....	1
1.2. Problem Statement.....	2
1.3. Delimitation.....	3
1.4. Outline of the Study.....	7
2. Methodology: .....	10
2.1. Deductive and Inductive Approach .....	10
2.2. Ontological Considerations .....	11
2.3. Epistemological Considerations .....	12
2.3.1. Critical Realism .....	13
2.4. Method.....	13
2.4.1. Primary and Secondary Data .....	14
2.4.2. Research Design .....	15
2.4.3. Research Method .....	16
2.4.4. Closed-Ended Questions.....	17
2.4.5. The Likert Scale.....	18
2.5. Sampling.....	19
2.5.1. Population.....	19
2.5.2. Target Population .....	19
2.5.3. Sampling Method .....	20
2.5.4. Sample Size .....	22
2.6. Interviews .....	22
3. Theory and Previous Research .....	23
3.1. Marketing Background and Branding Theories .....	24
3.1.1. Brand Equity.....	24
3.1.2. Brand Personality .....	25
3.1.3. SOR .....	28
3.1.4. Elaboration Likelihood Model.....	29
3.2. What Might Influence Brand Perception.....	31
3.2.1. The Perceptual Process .....	31
3.2.2. Language or Accent?.....	32
3.2.3. Accent Standardness.....	32
3.2.4. Social Identity Theory .....	35

3.2.5. Stereotypes .....	35
3.2.6. Culture of Brand Origin.....	38
3.3. How Brand Perception might be Impacted.....	39
3.3.1. Source Credibility.....	39
3.3.2. Likability .....	40
3.3.3. Accent Relationship.....	41
3.3.4. Purchase Intention .....	41
3.3.5. Attention .....	42
3.4. Formation of hypotheses .....	42
4. Primary Data Collection .....	46
4.1. Creation of the Video Commercial.....	47
4.1.1. The Making of a Commercial.....	47
4.1.2. Unknown Brand & Low-Involvement Product .....	48
4.1.3. Neutrality .....	49
4.1.4. Visuals and Sound .....	50
4.2. Preparing The Study .....	52
4.2.1. Questions on Attention .....	53
4.2.2. Questions on Brand Perception .....	53
4.2.3. Questions on Purchase Intention .....	54
4.2.4. Questions on Personal Facts .....	55
4.3. Quality of Data .....	56
4.3.1. Validity .....	56
4.3.2. Reliability .....	57
5. Data Processing .....	59
5.1. Choice of Software .....	59
5.2. Data Cleansing.....	60
5.3. Data Coding.....	61
5.4. Variable Creation.....	61
5.5. Descriptive Statistics of the Sample .....	62
5.6. Statistical Tests Used for Analysis .....	64
5.6.1. Kruskal-Wallis One-Way ANOVA.....	64
5.6.2. Chi-Square Test for Independence .....	65
5.6.3. Kendall's Rank-Order Correlation .....	66
5.6.4. Significance Level and P-Value .....	66
6. Results and Analysis.....	67
6.1. Hypothesis Testing .....	67

6.1.1. H1: The commercials communicate different brand personalities .....	68
6.1.2. H2: The commercials communicate different levels of source credibility .....	73
6.1.3. H3: The commercials evoke different levels of likability .....	78
6.1.4. H4: The closer relationship the respondent has to an accent, the more favourably a commercial in this accent will be rated .....	80
6.1.5. H5: The commercials lead to different degrees of purchase intention .....	84
6.1.6. H6: The commercials attract different levels of attention .....	89
6.1.7. The results change when looking at perceived accent .....	93
6.2. Managerial Implications .....	96
6.2.1. Who Does it Concern?.....	96
6.2.2. Whether to Standardize or Adapt to Local Markets .....	97
6.2.3. Building Brand Equity.....	99
6.2.4. Big Data and Customized Communication .....	101
6.3. Answer to Research Question.....	102
7. Discussion.....	104
7.1. Generalisability of Results.....	104
7.1.1. Magnitude of Impact .....	106
7.3. Criticism .....	106
7.3.1. The Lack of Standard and Non-Standard Language Varieties .....	106
7.3.2. No Research on the Underlying Factors .....	107
7.3.3. Perception of the Brand .....	107
7.3.3. Non-Randomized Sampling .....	108
7.3.4. The Assumed Level of Involvement.....	108
7.3.5. Quality of Data .....	109
7.4. Future Research .....	110
7.4.1. Accents the Consumers Believe They Hear .....	110
7.4.2. Map More Accents' Relative Relationships .....	110
7.4.3. Accents' Effect on Existing Brands.....	111
7.4.4. Other Propositions .....	112
8. Conclusion.....	113
9. References .....	116
Appendices .....	125

# 1. INTRODUCTION

---

## 1.1. BACKGROUND

---

Globalisation, defined as “the interconnections of global economic, political, cultural and environmental processes that continually transform present conditions”, has had and will continue to have effects on many aspects of society (Steger, 2013, p. 7-8). One major effect on society is the increase in spread and interconnection of languages in general and of English in particular (Crystal, 2000). It is the fastest-spreading language in the history and is, in varying degrees of proficiencies, spoken by 1.75 billion people worldwide (Neeley, 2012). Out of these three fourths are non-native speakers, which makes it a *lingua franca* (i.e. global language). Being essential to international communication, English has become the language of global business (EF, 2017). The use of English facilitates communication and eases performance across geographically diverse businesses and it is therefore of crucial importance that companies who operate in the global market devise a language strategy in order to not limit their growth opportunities (Neeley, 2012). Globalisation in form of increased cross-border population mobility and technology facilitating electronic mobility has resulted in the convergence of consumer needs around the world. With increasing similarities in consumption needs, marketers can target larger consumer segments, spanning several continents and in that way gain from economies of scale not only in production but also in promotion (Lim & O’Cass, 2001). Thanks to English being a *lingua franca*, it can be used in commercials as a means to reach more customers. Despite all similarities, however, differences such as culture, geography and history still exist between the different markets. Therefore, companies’ marketing strategies differ, where some choose to adapt to different countries by advertising in the native languages, and some choose a global advertising strategy in which the same language is used around the globe (Armstrong & Kotler, 2017; Hirsh, 2018).

Globalisation do, however, not only lead to a bigger and more diverse group of consumers, but also to increased competition (Armstrong & Kotler, 2017) and there is an urgency for companies to differentiate. In the digital era, technological solutions and a continuous stream big data, facilitates differentiation and customization can be more refined than ever (Gandomi & Haider, 2015). Therefore, companies should also take into consideration how different *language varieties* (from here on used as a collective name for languages and accents) are perceived by various consumers. One thing that plays an important part in

stating people's identity is language varieties (Crystal, 1997). For example, Tsalikis, DeShields and LaTour (1991) show in a meta-study that different accents are associated with different personality traits such as intelligence or confidence. Carrie (2017) states another example and claims different accents evoke various levels of likability.

The matter of language is, as marketing professor Johan Anselmsson states, "a focal point in global marketing and brand building" and thus an important field of marketing research (Appendix 3). However, while research and interest in the visual aspects of advertising has exploded, research on the effects of audio has been limited (Lalwani, Lwin & Leng Li, 2005). Still, consumers' beliefs, attitudes and intentions vary not only depending on visual but also verbal elements of advertisements (Percy & Woodside, 1983). Even though languages are considered focal in academia, the strategic use of languages in practice seem to be limited. For example, Michaela Di Dato, CEO of a communications agency and Dano Marr, program manager at Hyper Island, both states that a neutral accent is preferred when making commercials, but cannot motivate why (Appendix 1 & 2). At the same time they both emphasise the importance of audio in commercials and agree that if they had more knowledge about how languages and accents affect consumers, they would make use of it in practice. Hence, by researching the influence of different language varieties in commercials, marketers and other stakeholders could get scientifically rooted knowledge about how to create even more effective advertising.

---

## 1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

---

Globalisation and an increasing number of corporations operating internationally (Attar & Köprülü, 2017), lead to marketing strategy concerns. Companies must evaluate whether to globalise or localize their marketing efforts, with one concern being whether to use English as the communicative language or adapt the language to the domestic market. Even though language is considered an important factor in brand building, companies tend to be reluctant to changing and adapting their marketing efforts to new markets when launching globally (Johan Anselmsson, Appendix 3). In addition to this, globalisation intensify competition and the need to position and differentiate thus becomes increasingly important (Hitt, Ireland & Hoskinsson, 2015). Jetten, Spears and Manstead (2001) showed that differentiation can be based on the use of linguistic differences, and it is therefore of value to know if the choice of language or accent in advertising help create associations that can position the brand in comparison to other players in the



market. This study aims at providing further knowledge about whether to localize or standardize marketing efforts, but also to contribute with insights about how language varieties can be used to differentiate a brand.

As of today, there is extensive research on how written language affect brand attitudes and perceptions. However, limited research has been done on the field of language effects on brands when it comes to audio and in particular in combination with video (Mai & Hoffmann, 2014). While some scholars have focused on the linguistic side of it, showing how different languages and accents provide different perceptions of the person speaking, fewer have concentrated on how these language and accent cues affect advertised products and brands per se. In addition to this, it is believed that the area of research is evolving quickly with increasing globalisation and growing English proficiency, and a fresh eye on the subject will benefit the academic field as well as help corporate brand management in decision-making about how to acknowledge language varieties when creating or enforcing brand associations and image. To research all countries of interest, however, would be time consuming and was considered beyond the scope of this study. Looking at English proficiency around the globe, Sweden ranks the highest among countries where English is not an official language. On this background, together with the convenience in the researchers being Swedish, language varieties' effect on brand perception will be tested based on the case of Sweden.

From the above reasoning, this interdisciplinary study builds on both marketing and linguistic theories to answer the following research question:

*How does the choice of language variety used in video commercials affect the perception of, and attitude towards, brands in Sweden – and what implications does it have for companies' marketing tactics?*

---

### 1.3. DELIMITATION

---

There is already recognition among psychology and linguistics researchers that language varieties have impact on what personality traits are subscribed to people (Tsalikis et al. 1991). However, there is still a wide research gap within marketing research, and how brand attitudes are affected by varieties in language (Morales et al. 2012). In fact, the research gap is too broad to be fully covered in this paper. Therefore, in order to limit the scope of the research, delimitations have been made to clarify the included and excluded

areas of investigation and thereby facilitate the outline of the study. A summary of the delimitations can be found in Figure 1.

### *Language proficiency*

According to Crystal (2002), there are three groups of English speakers; those who speak English as their mother tongue, as a second language or as a foreign language. Previous research has focused on bilinguals (i.e. the first group) who speak English as well as another language as their native language. Because this group has been subject to substantially more research than the others (Mai & Hoffmann, 2014), it is not

English Proficiency	Country
Very high proficiency	Netherlands
	Sweden
	Denmark
	Norway
	Singapore
	Finland
	Luxembourg
	South Africa
High proficiency	Germany
	Austria
	Poland
	Belgium
	Malaysia
	Switzerland
	Philippines
	Serbia
	Romania
	Portugal
	Hungary
	Czech Republic
	Slovakia

*Table 1. Countries with very high and high English proficiency (EF, 2017). The countries not marked in red are included in the scope of the study.*

the focus on this study. Countries where English is spoken as a foreign language, with low to medium English proficiency, is neither included in the scope since the population must be able to understand English in order for the study to yield interesting results. Therefore, this study is delimited to countries where English is not an official language but is still spoken with high proficiency, that is individuals speaking English as a second language. According to EF's English Proficiency Index, a yearly report ranking countries based on English language skills, there are 21 countries in the group of "high" and "very high" proficiency (EF, 2017). Out of these countries three (Singapore, South Africa and the Philippines) have English listed as an official language (CIA, 2018). Moreover, two of the remaining countries, Netherlands and Malaysia, have states where English is an official language even though English is not regarded as official on a national level (Sen Nag, 2017; Tawie, 2015; Povera, 2015). By excluding the countries where English is an official language on a national or state level, 16 are left out of which all are European. In Europe, English is the most popular foreign language in all but five countries, and it has thereby extruded the competition to become the common tongue of the continent (Doughty, 2013). This makes the group of countries with

High/Very high proficiency an interesting target group, see Table 1. All

these countries are however too big of a scope for this study, which means that only one case is chosen (see section below). The ambition is however, that testing for language variety in one countries will provide insights also about the other 16 countries of interest.

## ***Geography***

When excluding Netherlands from the list, Sweden is the country ranked as number one with the highest English proficiency (EF, 2017) and is therefore the chosen market of investigation. Moreover, the authors of this study are Swedish, and it is therefore believed to be more convenient and cheaper to collect data of good quality in Sweden compared to other countries on the list. Sweden is part of the European Union which have free cross-country trade, and in combination with the fact that all countries with high/very high English proficiency are European (ibid.), it is believed that if studying Sweden, it is likely that the other countries of interest would yield similar results.

English is not an official language in Sweden and few people have it as their first language (The Local, 2014). Yet, the usage of English is increasing in Sweden (European Commission, 2012), which makes it an important issue in many aspects, not least in advertising. Even though English lacks the status of a second language in Sweden, and is not official, it cannot be seen as just another foreign language. It is rather a quite familiar language which is naturally used, compared to for example Italian and Russian (Piller, 2001:155). This means that English is, like in many other European countries, used to some extent in advertising. Exact statistics are difficult to obtain, however, an empirical study from 2013 suggests that out of all TV commercials in Sweden, 28% contained elements of English (disregarding English brand names and song lyrics) (Fransson, 2013). One can imagine the percentage of online commercials to be even bigger.

## ***Age***

The whole Swedish population is too wide for the purpose of the study for two main reasons. First of all, English proficiency differ depending of age group and it is unlikely that companies targeting population groups with less English knowledge would prefer broadcasting a commercial in English. Secondly, advertising is today distributed to a large extent online and on social media (Statista, 2018a), see Appendix 4. Segments of the Swedish population use internet and social media to a varying extent, which should also affect the scope of study. Therefore, in order to get a result that is likely to hold in practice, this study is limited to individuals in the age group 16-45. (More on this in section 2.5.2. Target Population).

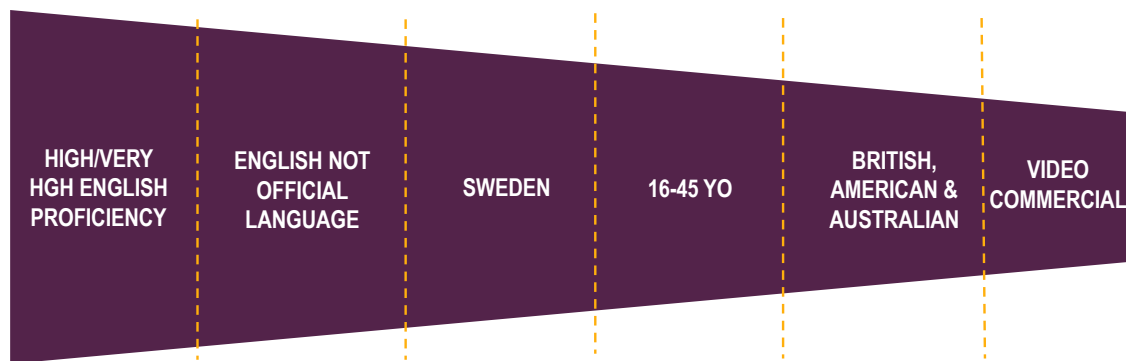
### ***English accents***

There exist almost uncountable numbers of different English accents in the world, both in terms of number of accents but also because of the difficulty in drawing a line of what is counted as an accent. According to Crystal (2003), there are three general categories constituting the major native English accents, namely those of North America, British Isles and Australasia. Therefore, the three English accents investigated in this study are the most standard accents of the three categories; General *American*, Received Pronunciation (*British*) and General *Australian*. Most existing research have only focused on English, where a standard accent has been compared to a local accent of English, i.e. an accent of the second language spoken in English-native countries. For example, in the English-speaking country Singapore, Standard English (RP) has been compared to Singaporean English (Lalwani et al., 2005; Lwin & Wee, 2000) and in USA, where the Hispanic population is growing, American accent has been compared to Spanish-American accent (DeShields, 2015; DeShields & de los Santos, 2000). There is a gap in the research on English accents targeted towards non-native English speakers. The English proficiency is very high in Sweden but neither of the three English accents can be said to be ‘official’ within the country. It is therefore of bigger interest to test three different types of standard English instead of for example comparing American English with English spoken with a Swedish accent. In Sweden, one could assume that it is rather Swedish that is perceived as standard. Therefore, since Swedes, and other nationalities with high proficiency in English, are not bilingual, Swedish will be tested in addition to different varieties of English.

### ***Choice of format - Video***

As mentioned in section 1.2, research has to this point mainly been done for written language. The effects of the spoken language, i.e. audio, have not been researched to the same extent. Most studies of audio effects on advertising have been conducted using radio commercials. Studies on video commercials are fewer, and those conducted have focused on the spokesperson’s visual appearance in combination with the language variety, rather than the effects on brand perception based only on language variety (Lwin & Wee, 2000); DeShields & Kara, 2011). In Sweden, TV and digital media make up 66% of companies advertising investments (Institute for Advertising and Media Statistics, 2017). Even though digital media does not only consist of video advertising, the high percentage highlight the importance of video commercials. Something that is also pointed out by the Swedish Institute for Advertising and Media Statistics who says that “video advertising is going stronger, even stronger than before” (Asplund, 2017). Looking worldwide, TV has for a long time been the media channels that companies invest the most of

their advertising budget in, but in 2017 investment in digital advertising surpassed TV (Mackhé, 2017). This means that digital media and TV are the two biggest advertising channels on a global level, which further stress the importance of knowledge in video advertising. With this statistics as well as previous research in mind, this study aims at conducting research on the effects of different varieties of spoken language on brand perception in video commercial where the respondents are given no cues of the spokesperson but the voice.



*Figure 1. Delimitations.*

---

## 1.4. OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

---

The following section will briefly state the outline of the study and summarize the research method used to answer the research question. Lastly, a vocabulary of frequently used words is presented. In Figure 2, the chapters of the study are presented.

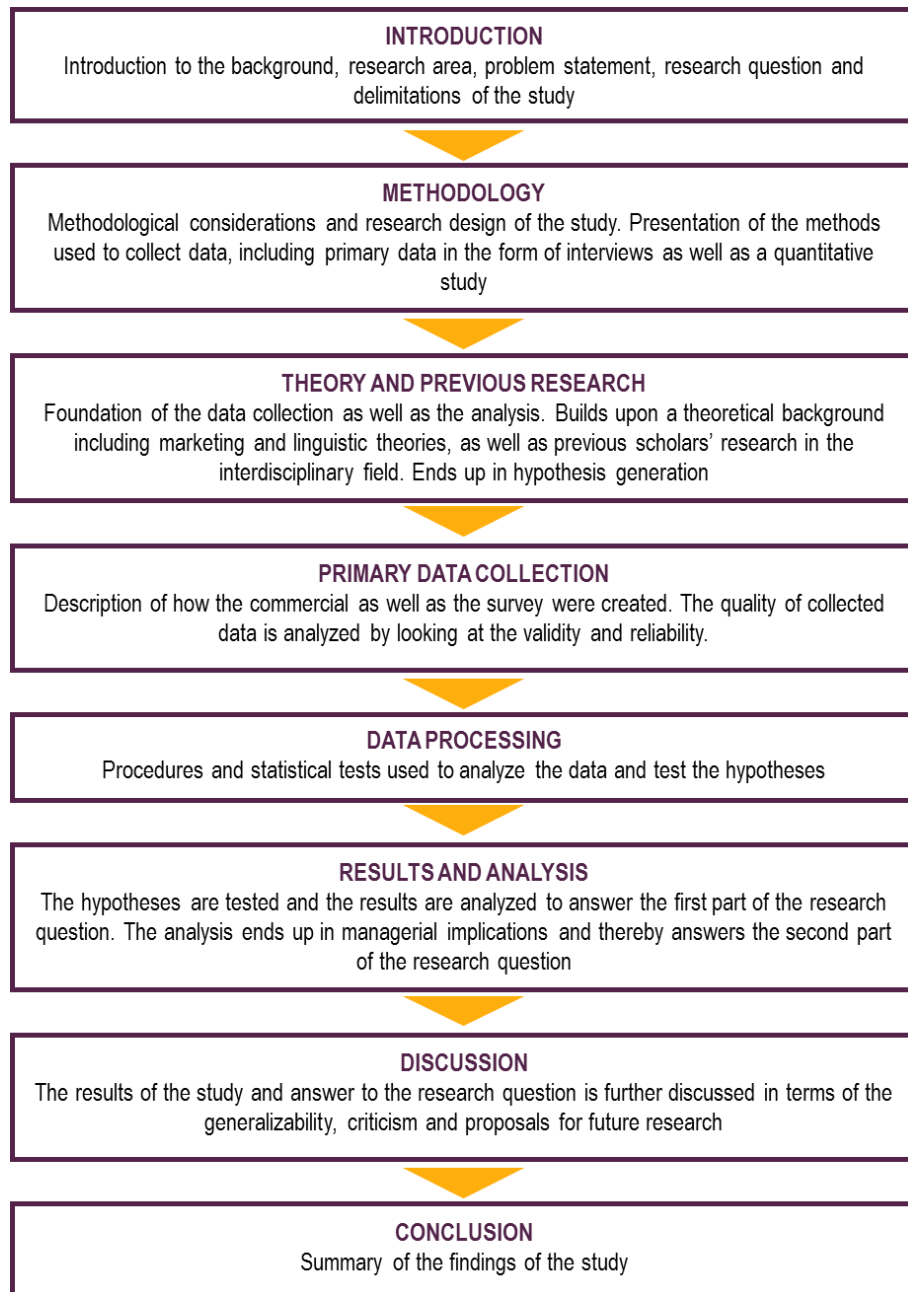


Figure 2. The outline of the study.

In order to answer the research question, four versions of the same video commercial will be created, with different voice-overs as the only variation. Swedish will be compared to English, and three different English accents (American, British and Australian) will be compared to each other. A survey will be used to collect data where the respondents answers questions regarding the advertised brand's *brand personality*, *source credibility*, *likability*, *attention* and *purchase intention*. The data will then be analysed and theories applied to discuss whether the respondents' perceptions and attitudes differ depending on language variety, and what implications it might have for managers. To increase the

understanding of the subject and facilitate further reading, short descriptions of words and concepts frequently used throughout the thesis can be found in Table 2.

Term	Explanation
Language variety	Collective name for languages, dialects and accents
Brand perception	In this study consisting of Brand personality, credibility and likability
Brand attitude	In this study consisting of attention to message and purchase intention
Brand personality	Concept consisting of 5 personality traits; sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness
Source credibility	Concept consisting of trustworthiness, expertise and attractiveness
Likability	How liked a brand is
Purchase intention	Consumers likelihood of buying a brand or product
Attention	Attention to message communicated (connected to the respondents short-term memory)
Brand equity	Intangible value from having a strong brand
Brand associations (associative network)	Feelings and attitudes towards a brand (network of many associations directly or indirectly connected to a brand)
Brand identity	How companies strive to be perceived
Brand image	How consumers perceive a brand
Standard accent	An accent with as little regional connection as possible

*Table 2. Vocabulary of frequently used words and concepts.*

## 2. METHODOLOGY:

*This chapter starts by describing the methodological choices that has been made. The choice of a deductive research approach is discussed followed by ontological and epistemological considerations. In this study, the researchers take the ontological position of objectivism and applies the epistemological paradigm of critical realism. The chapter continues by describing how the quantitative method of a cross-sectional research design was used for the collection of primary data. The target population is described as well as how the sampling was carried out in order to represent the right audience. Lastly, the method of three qualitative interviews is described. These interviews provided the researchers with information about the background of the problem as well as the practical implications of the results.*

---

### 2.1. DEDUCTIVE AND INDUCTIVE APPROACH

---

Theory is providing the background and justifies the research being conducted. Furthermore, a theoretical framework is formed of the theory, which helps the researcher understand social phenomena and interpret the findings of the research. According to Bryman and Bell (2015), there are two main approaches characterizing the link between theory and research; the deductive and inductive approach. The most common view of the relationship between theory and research, and the approach followed in this research, is the deductive approach. The *deductive* approach has its foundation in theoretical considerations and this relationship between theory and research implies that hypotheses are deduced drawn on what is already known in a specific subject and on relevant theories. Theory is used to deduce hypotheses, which drives the process of data gathering. The data collected is then analysed in order to confirm or reject hypotheses (Bryman, 2016). When using a deductive approach, conclusions from research can be presumed to be true as long as they are based on established theory and measurable facts (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In the last step the implications of the findings are added back into the theory upon which the research is originally built (Bryman, 2016).

The *inductive* approach, on the other hand, is more commonly applied when investigating an unexplored phenomenon since it, instead of relying on existing theory, allows the researchers to view and understand social phenomena from the participants' perspective (Bryman & Bell, 2015). By applying an inductive



stance on the relationship between theory and research, generalisable inferences are drawn out of observations and instead of conducting research based on theory, theory is the outcome of the research.

In this thesis, the literature review (chapter 3) provided the background knowledge about linguistics and branding as well as previous research, which served as the foundation for the hypotheses generation. The assumptions from the theoretical review further guided the choice of method and data collection. The findings from the data collection was later used to either support or reject the hypotheses.

---

## 2.2. ONTOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

---

Ontology deals with the perception of the world and is concerned with the nature of social entities and whether these entities should be considered objective entities or social constructions (Malhotra, Birks & Wills, 2012). In other words, ontology describes one's fundamental assumptions of the truth and the nature of the world, if the reality is external to social actors or if it is built upon actions and perceptions of social actors. There are mainly two ontologies in social research; constructivism and objectivism. In the ontological position of *constructivism*, social phenomena and their meanings are perceived to continually be created by perceptions and actions of actors concerned with the existence of the social phenomena. That is, things exist because they are perceived. *Objectivism* on the other hand implies that we are confronted by social phenomena as external facts. The existence of the social phenomena is independent and separate from actors, and they are beyond our reach and influence. That is, things exist external to individuals' perceptions to them (Bryman, 2016). One classical example of how constructivism and objectivism can be distinguished is by answering the question originally posed by George Berkeley; "If a tree falls in the forest and no one is around to hear it, does it make a sound?". Subjectivists would argue that the tree is not making a sound if no one is there to perceive it. Extreme subjectivist could further argue that there does not even exist a tree, if no one is there to perceive it. Objectivists, on the contrary, would argue that firstly; the tree exists even if no one sees, and secondly; it would indeed give of soundwaves if falling. The soundwaves would just not be interpreted as noise, since no one is there to hear it (Whalen, 2017). Following the logic above, it can be concluded that the ontological position followed in this study was objectivism. This because the aim of the study was to find possible differences in *how* the respondents' perception of and attitudes towards brands is affected depending on language varieties. The language varieties are perceived as social phenomena that is external to the respondents.

Hence, the respondents have opinions about certain languages and accents but these opinions are not part in forming the execution of the social phenomena, i.e. language variety have their own objective realities which is not dependent on anyone perceiving them.

---

## 2.3. EPISTEMOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

---

The choice of methods and techniques used in research depends the way the researchers understands the world. The question of what is accepted as knowledge in a discipline is an issue of epistemology (Bryman, 2016). Epistemology describes the researcher's acquisition and interpretation of knowledge and describes how truths are found and ultimately builds the assumptions of the ontology (Egholm, 2014; University of Idaho, 2016). There is a consensus within the social sciences that no technique or method of investigation is self-validating, but still two philosophical paradigms are dominating, namely *positivism* and *interpretivism*. The positivist and interpretivist paradigms have fundamentally different ways of viewing the world and its social phenomena.

When applying interpretivism there are several subjective realities, since it shifts depending on the researcher and his/her motifs for conducting and interpreting the study. It is therefore important to be aware of that the outcome of the study can be affected by the researcher and hence it is complex to generalise the result to a broader population (Malhotra et al., 2012). The interpretivist approach is thus better suited for qualitative studies. Due to the objective ontology and the formulation of the research question, the interpretivist approach was considered too subjective for the purpose of this study. The epistemological position of positivism on the other hand affirms the importance of imitating the natural sciences (Bryman, 2016). When conducting research using the positivistic paradigm, the researchers assume that there is only one reality, which is unbiased, quantifiable and verifiable (Malhotra et al., 2012). The main purpose of taking a scientific approach to social research is the ability to predict and explain social phenomena by establishing causal laws. These laws are based on reliable information, or 'facts'. By emphasizing these 'facts' in the research process, focus is put on objectivity, rigour and measurement (Malhotra et al., 2012). Even though the language varieties were considered external to the respondents, their perceptions could still be affected by other factors than the language variety itself. Hence, the respondents were not part in creating the social phenomena but their opinions could be highly individual and not dependent on 'facts' that caused the result. Therefore, despite the dominance within social

research, neither interpretivism nor positivism was ideal for the purpose of this study. Therefore the alternative epistemological approach of critical realism was applied and will be further discussed in the following section.

### 2.3.1. CRITICAL REALISM

---

Critical realism is a relatively new philosophical paradigm, bridging the two conventional paradigms of positivism and interpretivism. According to Gorski (2013), critical realism is the choice for researchers wanting to call off the search for ‘general laws’ but still not abandon the goal of causal explanation. Critical realists assume that a tangible world do exists, and is in that way similar to positivism. On the other hand, just like interpretivists argue, they also believe that such an assumption can never be verified nor falsified (Easton, 2010). Furthermore, according to critical realists we only experience the tip of an iceberg, but that does not mean that what we cannot see is not there or is not connected to what we actually see. In that respect critical realists' opinion differ from those of positivism who believes that it is impossible to gain knowledge about something that is unobservable with our senses. At the same time, critical realists believe, unlike interpretivists, that structures and mechanism can be mapped out without interpreting individuals' attitudes towards those structures (Bhaskar & Archer, 1998). Critical realism is thus bridging positivism and interpretivism, and was therefore the selected approach for the aim of this study. Critical realism was preferable since the investigation of individuals' perceptions and feelings about brands was not dependent on the respondents' senses and thus was not a part of a tangible world, meaning that the researchers could not see *why* the respondents perceive the same brand differently depending on language variety used. However, when testing the hypotheses, measurable relationships could be found between the tangible stimuli (the commercial) and the respondents' perceptions. These relationships were believed to be dependent on underlying factors that affected the respondents' perceptions, why the foundation of analysis could not be based on 'facts' or 'general laws' embedded in the stimuli. Hence, the findings was based on correlations rather than causality. Therefore, critical realism was the preferred philosophical paradigm.

---

## 2.4. METHOD

---

The following section will introduce and motivate the choice of methods that was used for the collection of data. To begin, the research design of this study is *quantitative*. When comparing quantitative research

to *qualitative*, the most obvious distinction is the fact that only the quantitative research employ measurement. While the presence or absence of measurement is rather superficial, many writers also suggest that the differences are deeper than that. For example, the epistemological foundations of the two types of research differ. The quantitative research strategy emphasize quantification in both collection and interpretation of data. The quantitative research design is characterised by an deductive approach in which theories are tested. (Bryman, 2016)

#### 2.4.1. PRIMARY AND SECONDARY DATA

---

In order to form and test hypotheses, data must be collected. Data can be categorized as either primary or secondary, and both types of data were used in this study. Primary data is defined by Malhotra and Birks (2007, p. 45) as “data originated by the researcher for the specific purpose of addressing the research problem” and can be compared to the secondary data which is defined as “data collected for some purpose other than the problem at hand” (Ibid., p. 45).

When conducting a deductive study, the data collection should always start with gathering secondary data. This is an important step in formulating the problem statement and understanding what kind of primary data that needs to be collected to in order to answer the research question. Secondary data is basically any information made available by businesses, governments, online databases, academic articles and similar. This information has not been collected for the specific purpose of the study, but can still provide valuable background information and insights (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). In this study secondary data was collected from academic books and articles, as well as web sites and reports from both private companies and governmental institutions. The secondary data was used for three reasons. Firstly, as background information to help find a relevant problem formulation. Secondly, it guided the primary data collection. Finally, it guided the analysis and served as an enforcement of the primary data implications. Hence, it also served as a foundation for answering the second part of the research question, i.e. what implications the result have for managers.

Primary data is collected by the researchers or at the researchers’ request. Such data collection is more resource consuming than secondary data collection, both in terms of time and financial resources. On the other hand, it has the advantage of being more precise and likely of higher quality because it is collected

for the specific research purpose. This study used two types of primary data, a survey and interviews. The survey was of quantitative nature and was used to answer the first part of the research question, i.e. “if” there are any differences in perception and attitudes towards brands depending on the language variety of the commercial. The survey was the main source of data used in this study.

The interviews were, like the secondary data, used to understand the situation today and help answer the second part of the research question about what managerial implications accent differences might have. They were supplementing the secondary data by taking a more practical perspective.

#### 2.4.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

---

A research design provides the researcher with a framework which will act as a guide to collect and analyse data. By choosing a research design, a range of dimensions are prioritized throughout the process. In this thesis, a *cross-sectional* research design was chosen. This means that the researchers detected patterns of associations in quantifiable data collected on a sample of cases at a single point in time. By employing a cross-sectional research design, the researcher aims to investigate variations in the collected data. In order to establish variations, more than one case need to be examined. Therefore, a cross-sectional design often include a relatively large number of cases. The variations can be found in several different variables. By collecting quantifiable data, the researcher is provided with a consistent benchmark. This further enables gauging variations in a systematic and standardized way, which are examined to find patterns of observations. When conducting cross-sectional research, the gathering of data testing the different variables is taking place more or less simultaneously, in comparison to for example experimental research designs where a participant is pre-tested before being exposed to the experiment and then post-tested. (Bryman, 2016).

The variables investigated using a cross-sectional design are non-manipulable. Therefore, researchers need to be cautious and refer to correlations rather than causality, alternatively argue that a variable is independent rather than dependent using theoretical grounds. As mentioned in section 2.3.1 about critical realism, the researchers’ aim was to find correlations but not necessarily establish causality. Furthermore, a cross-sectional research design have commonly been used in previous research studying the effects on

language variety and since these studies have generated significant results, it was believed that making a cross-sectional research design was the best option for the purpose of the study. (Bryman, 2016)

### 2.4.3. RESEARCH METHOD

---

The concept of research method is often believed to be synonymous with research design. However, even though research methods are associated with research designs, it is crucial to differentiate the two terms. By choosing a research method, the technique for collecting data is defined. There are many different ways to collect data, ranging from questionnaires to interview schedules and observations of participants (Bryman, 2016). In this study, a self-administered survey was used for the primary data collection. The survey being self-administered means that the respondents answered the questions of the survey themselves without the researchers' guidance. There are several advantages associated with self-administered survey such as the ability to reach a large audience relatively efficiently both in terms of cost and time. Furthermore, it erases interviewer variability, and provides greater convenience as well as anonymity for the respondent (Ibid.) It is also convenient when collecting data from different geographical locations. Despite the advantages, there are also several drawbacks from using self-administered surveys including respondents getting bored of non-salient questions or other people than the intended person completes (or helps complete) the questions.

Data can be collected with self-administered surveys in different ways. In this study, a mixed-mode survey was used to collect the data. The two modes used were a web survey and a supervised survey. In reality, the two surveys were the same since they included exactly the same questions. The decision to use both techniques was made due to the different advantages they offer. By making the survey *web-based*, some common disadvantages of self-administered surveys could be minimised, such as respondents skipping questions or being able to read the full survey before answering the questions (Ibid.). Furthermore, collecting data using the web allowed responses from a wider audience since it facilitated the ability to reach geographically as well as demographically diverse groups. Therefore, the web-survey method was considered most appropriate for the scope and purpose of this study. The reasons for also conducting supervised surveys were, firstly, that it was considered easier to reach younger respondents (i.e. high school students) if asking a few school teachers to get access to their classes, rather than reaching out to these students individually for example on social media. Secondly, getting access to school classes

facilitated the data collection since several respondents could be reached simultaneously and thereby a larger sample could be drawn.

Mixing survey modes raises the question of whether the mode of a survey affects its result, i.e. if the results of the two different modes differ (Bryman, 2016). Research indicate, however, that if done properly survey mode should not affect the result significantly (McCabe, 2004; Denscombe, 2006; Flemming & Bowden, 2009). It can be assumed that the mode of collection did not affect the results in this study since the supervised survey included exactly the same questions as the web-based survey. The only differences were that the researchers were present in the room and the respondents filled out the survey on paper. The possibility that the researchers' presence, or the environment in which the supervised surveys were conducted, affected the respondents' answers was assumed to be little, and was also outweighed by the advantage of being able to help the respondents understand all questions correctly.

#### 2.4.4. CLOSED-ENDED QUESTIONS

---

When conducting a cross-sectional research design, one of the most important method considerations for the researchers is whether to use open-ended or closed-ended questions in the research. Open-ended questions allows the respondents to reply however they wish, while closed-ended questions provides the respondents with several fixed alternatives out of which they choose appropriate answers. Both types of questions comes with advantages and disadvantages (Bryman, 2016), briefly described in the following section.

The advantages of open-ended questions are connected to the respondents' ability to answer in a way that is not forced by pre-set terms, which allows for unusual answer not accounted for by the researcher. Furthermore, the respondents' knowledge and understanding of the issue being researched can be tapped while it at the same time allows the researchers to gain new knowledge about areas in which they have limited knowledge. Open-ended questions can however also be quite problematic. They are more time-consuming for the researchers to administer, both when conducting the data collection as well as when compiling the results, since all answers have to be 'coded'. Moreover, greater effort is required from the respondents, which can result in a lower response rate. Due to the disadvantages of open-ended questions, closed-ended questions are often used by survey researchers and was the chosen type of questions used in

this research. Closed-ended questions are easier to process for both the researcher as well as the respondents and it enhances the opportunity to compare answers. Having fixed answers to choose from can clarify the meaning of the questions, which can result in a higher response rate (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016). The disadvantages include the loss of spontaneity in the answers as well as the difficulty of making the answers mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive (MECE). The interpretation of the pre-set answers may vary between the respondents, and they may be irritated if not finding an answer appealing to them (Bryman, 2016). Actions have been taken in order to make the disadvantages as small as possible. To encounter the risk of answer alternatives that are not MECE, a Likert scale (see the following section) was applied to as many questions as possible, which most likely limited the feeling of not finding an appropriate answer. For questions that were not possible to answer using a Likert scale, effort was put on making the answers mutually exclusive to the greatest extent possible, and where applicable the responses “other” or “don’t know” were added to ensure that the answers were collectively exhaustive. Closed-ended questions were also the chosen method since the aim was to find possible differences in perception and attitudes due to language varieties and not necessarily the reasons behind the differences. It is therefore suggested that more open-ended questions will be used in future research where, if any, differences can be investigated by collecting more spontaneous answers (Bryman, 2016).

#### 2.4.5. THE LIKERT SCALE

---

Most closed-ended questions in the survey were investigated using the Likert Scale. The Likert scale is one of the most common techniques used for investigating attitudes relating to a certain area. Several items (i.e. questions) within a specific area, in this case brand perception, are rated on a five-point scale reaching between two extremes of the same thing, thereby being MECE (Bryman, 2016). A Likert scale can be either unipolar, reaching from “not at all” to “extreme”, or bipolar, reaching from “extreme one way” to “extreme the other way” (Statistics Sweden, 2011; Surveymonkey, 2018). In this study a unipolar scale was used. The advantages with using a unipolar scale is that they are easier for respondents to understand, and eliminate the risk of the extreme in the one direction not being an exact opposite of the extreme in the other direction (Surveymonkey, 2018). Since the survey was based on previous research as well as Aaker’s (1997) Brand Personality Framework (see more in chapter 3), in which the Likert Scale was commonly used, the Likert Scale was considered appropriate for this study.



---

## 2.5. SAMPLING

---

### 2.5.1. POPULATION

---

In social research, a population is the broader group of people that share a common set of characteristics, that is of interest for the results from answering the research question (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Since there is a wide research gap on the study of perception of English language varieties in non-native English speaking countries, the population constitutes all countries with high English proficiency (See full list in Table 1). It is believed that this population is proficient and knowledgeable enough in order to understand and react to commercials in English and thus create different brand perceptions and attitudes. It can, however, be difficult to collect enough cases, from all countries in the population, to make such a conclusion. The population must therefore be redefined to become more manageable (Saunders et al., 2016).

### 2.5.2. TARGET POPULATION

---

In this study, the population is first redefined to only investigate the research question on a Swedish audience. This decision was based on English proficiency as well as geography (see Delimitation 1.2.). This study is, like mentioned above, applying a cross-sectional research design using a survey. When conducting a survey, it can be made as a census, with the goal to reach every individual of the population. This is however frequently, as is the case in this research, impractical and even impossible to reach the whole population (Blumberg et al., 2014). Even if redefining the population and only highlighting Sweden in the research question, reaching the full population in this research is, due to its size and geographical widespread, an impossible task to approach and hence further delimitations must be made. A *target population* is therefore established from which the actual sample will be drawn. The target population consists of the individuals that the researchers aim to make inferences and generalisations about.

The target population in this study is defined by two elements; the nationality/native language of the respondents as well as their age. Firstly, the target population in this research consists of Swedes or people who speaks Swedish fluently. This due to the fact that 91% of the Swedish population consider themselves being able to speak at least one more language than Swedish. Out of these, 86% would speak English as their second language (European Commission, 2012). Therefore, in order to secure the English proficiency of the sample, Swedish individuals are targeted. Secondly, the target population is limited to

individuals in the age group 16-45. The restriction in age is applied since younger people in Sweden, in the age group 15-25, are more likely to rate their ability to use and understand the English language higher than those in the age group 55+ (European Commission, 2012). Moreover, people who use Internet on a daily basis are also more likely to perceive their English skills as very good, compared to those who sometimes or never use Internet (European Commission, 2012). The Internet usage in Sweden is generally high in all age groups, but highest among individuals up to 45 years old, who use Internet on a daily basis, which should correspond to better English knowledge (Statista, 2018b/Appendix 5). Furthermore, the social media usage is highest among individuals between 25 and 35, where 90-92% use social media on a daily basis (Statista, 2018c/Appendix 6). The Internet and social media presence is considered corresponding well to the aim of this study, since advertising often takes place online. Per media, the biggest spend on advertising is online (15.732 million SEK) and on second place is TV (5.452 million SEK) (Statista, 2018a/Appendix 4). The age group of 16-45 is selected based on these statistics.

The actual *sample* will be drawn from the target population and thus only include individuals who speaks Swedish fluently and are in the age group 16-45. While the generalisability of the study may be limited by only targeting individuals in the age group of 16 to 45 years, this group is considered to be representative of an important target audience for Swedish as well as international advertisers. Even though a broader age group is proficient in English and could have been included in the target population, it would be difficult to create a video commercial relevant for all respondents. Furthermore, the survey includes questions regarding personal information, such as age, gender and occupation. If differences are found between the age groups, the generalisations will be carefully considered.

### 2.5.3. SAMPLING METHOD

---

#### ***Probability and Non-probability sampling***

When conducting a quantitative research there are several methods to use for sampling. The different methods can be divided in probability and non-probability sampling methods. The biggest difference between the two techniques is that by using *probability* sampling, conclusions can be made about the full population out of which the sample is made. This is because researchers use a random selection of elements to remove or decrease the risk of bias within the sample (Blumberg et al., 2014). *Non-probability* sampling on the other hand is more subjective. Cases to be included in the sample can be chosen in many different ways, which increases the risk for bias in the sample. Whether a probability sampling is needed

or if non-probability sampling is sufficient depends on the objective of the research. A probability sample is needed if the aim is to generalise. In this research however, the objective was not to find an accurate size of an effect, but rather if there exist an effect. In addition to that, what was investigated in this research, i.e. perception and attitudes, does not have a common scale and cannot be measured in accepted numbers such as currency or number of units sold. Therefore, since a non-probability sample is both cheaper and easier to collect, it was considered sufficient and provided the research with relevant data (Blumberg et al., 2014).

### ***Convenience and Purposive Sampling***

There are two non-probability approaches to use for sampling; *convenience* and *purposive* sampling (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In this study a combination of the two non-probability sampling techniques was used. With purposive sampling the researchers use their own judgement when selecting what cases to include in order to answer the research question. Purposive sampling was used in this study by applying predefined criteria in terms of age and language proficiency, to ensure the respondents corresponded to the target group. Respondents that were not included in the sampling frame were excluded from the analysis. This was done to ensure that the respondents were relevant as well as contributing to the study (Malhotra et al., 2012; Bryman & Bell, 2015). When the predefined criteria were set however, convenience sampling was carried out, meaning that the researchers chose the respondents they could find. Even though convenience sampling is considered the least reliable one, it is still considered useful when testing ideas, or in early stages of an exploratory study (Blumberg et al., 2014). Convenience sampling can act as a pilot study to test if the research tool works in practice. A more generalisable study could in future research be conducted based on the findings of the convenient pilot study (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Since the aim of this study is not to generalise the findings to the full population but rather to find different effects, convenience sampling was considered good enough for the purpose of the study. The sampling was conducted in two different ways. Firstly, the researchers visited several high school classes where the commercial was shown on a big screen and the students filled out the survey on paper. This was done in order to quickly collect large numbers of data and resulted in a total of 170 respondents. The remaining 245 respondents were collected via Internet. The link to the survey was shared on Facebook and LinkedIn, inviting people to take part in the survey.

#### 2.5.4. SAMPLE SIZE

---

There are no exact numbers on how large the size of the sample needs to be, but it depends on the variation in the population parameters and the desired estimation precision. Since the previous research of the studied population is scarce, the variation is unknown. Therefore, in order to determine a sample size that would be sufficient for the task at hand, previous studies investigating similar problems were used as a benchmark. Morales, Scott & Yorkston (2012) conducted a study on the role of accents in radio commercials, in which four conditions were randomly assigned to a total of 347 participants, meaning approximately 87 respondents per condition. Lalwani et al. (2005) investigated consumer responses to English accent variations in advertising, where a total of 320 university students were randomly exposed to four different versions of a radio advertisement, meaning approximately 80 respondents per version. Lastly, Lwin & Wee (2012) investigated how a spokesperson's race in relation to accents influenced the outcome of television commercials. In this research 397 respondents were exposed to four different videos, approximately 99 per video. Since these three studies generated significant results, they were used as a benchmark. Furthermore, even though emphasizing the complexity of estimating an appropriate size, a sample of 97 respondents is considered enough for populations larger than 100.000 (SurveyMonkey, 2017). Therefore, the goal when collecting the data was to receive answers from a total of 400 respondents, divided equally on the four different language varieties.

---

## 2.6. INTERVIEWS

---

In order to understand the need for, and result of, the survey, three interviews were conducted, in excess of the quantitative survey. Two interviews were conducted prior to the study, to gain an understanding of what the situation looks like today. An interview with Michaela Di Dato, the CEO of a Stockholm based communications agency (BERG Kommunikation, 2018), was conducted prior to the research in order to understand if and how a company working with communication use different languages and accents on a strategic level. Furthermore, an interview was conducted with Dano Marr, the program manager of the Motion Creative program at Hyper Island. Hyper Island is a global college focusing on creative and digitalization learning in close collaboration with the "real world" (Hyper Island, 2018). This interview was conducted to understand if the use of languages and accents is being taught in a highly relevant education, where they create marketing solutions to a variety of clients. A third interview was conducted after the results of the study had been compiled and analysed. The results were discussed with Johan Anselmsson, professor in Marketing at Lund University and responsible for the marketing department.

He conducts research about how strong brands can create customer loyalty and works primarily with quantitative analyses. Furthermore, he prioritizes practical relevance, both in education and research (Lund University, n.d.). His thoughts about the results were therefore considered valuable since he could connect the research to the academic field as well as the practical use in businesses. All three interviews can be found in full length in Appendix 1, 2 and 3.

### ***Semi-structured interviews***

The interviews were semi-structured, meaning that questions were prepared based on fixed themes, but with a loose structure. This allowed the researchers to obtain additional knowledge throughout the data collection since researchers can ask follow up questions, and it is possible to lead the interview in different directions. Furthermore, the questions were to a large extent open-ended nature which means that the respondents were allowed to talk freely about the subjects (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

### ***Sampling Interviews***

The respondents for all three interviews were sampled from the researchers' own networks which makes it a non-randomized sampling. This was however considered the best option since the respondents' professional backgrounds and knowledge were very important in order to obtain relevant information. Since the interviews were only conducted to improve the researchers' knowledge and hence were not part of, nor investigating the same topics as the survey, no generalisations were to be made. Three interviews were therefore considered enough for the purpose of understanding the background as well as how the results can be applied in practice.

## **3. THEORY AND PREVIOUS RESEARCH**

*In this chapter, theories and previous research are presented. In order to answer the research question of whether language varieties in video commercials affect the brand perception the theoretical background needs to build upon both marketing and linguistic research. This chapter starts with broad marketing and communication theories, including the concepts of brand equity and brand personality. Hereafter, previous scholars' research on the linguistics field is summarised. The chapter ends with hypothesis generation. Ultimately, the following empirical research will build upon the marketing and linguistics theories and elaborate on previous research.*

---

## 3.1. MARKETING BACKGROUND AND BRANDING THEORIES

---

*In the following sections general marketing models and frameworks will be described. The models give support to the research question and lay the foundation for the design of the empirical study as well as for the analysis of the results. To begin, the concept of brand equity is introduced and from that follows brand image, brand associations and finally brand personality. Later on, the cognitive concepts of S-O-R and Elaboration Likelihood Model are described.*

### 3.1.1. BRAND EQUITY

---

*Brand Equity* is the value created from having a strong brand and is generated by consumers' favourable associations. Financial value can follow from brand value if the brand equity make consumers purchase a product from the company in question rather than from a competitor, or if the brand equity allows a price premium (Kapferer, 2008). The founding father of the brand equity concept, David Aaker, defines the idea as "a set of assets (and liabilities) linked to a brand's name and symbol that adds to or subtracts from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or that firm's customers" (Aaker, 1991, p.15). The Brand Equity Model exists of 5 categories of assets/liabilities namely brand loyalty, name awareness, perceived quality, brand associations and other proprietary assets (e.g. patents and channel relationships). In this study, extra focus is put on *brand associations* since the purpose of the research is to reveal whether consumers are affected by (i.e. generate associations with) accents and languages in video commercials. Associations can create positive feelings and attitudes towards a brand and product, and can affect both purchase intention and user-experience.

An important part of brand associations are *associative networks*. An associative network is a web of many pieces of related information (Solomon, 2015). When a consumer is exposed to information it is stored in a node in this mental web and as such gets connected to existing knowledge/experiences, as well as helps build a foundation for future associations. If accents affect the perception of brands, it is likely that this is a result of the activation of different parts of a person's associative network (e.g. connecting the Australian accent to Australian stereotypes which then affect the brand perception). Associative networks in turn, result in *brand image*, which Aaker (1991) defines as "a set of associations, usually organised in some meaningful way" (p.109). Brand image is a concept different from *brand identity*, with the former being how consumers perceive a brand and the latter what companies actually try to

communicate (Kapferer, 2008). This means that associations are just consumer perceptions and does not necessarily reflect the truth or reality. Still, brand associations can create true value for the company. By using cues to spark associations, a company can increase the likelihood of recall among consumers and also summarize information for the consumers that would have been expensive and difficult for the company to communicate in full. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, associations can help a company differentiate from competitors, they can also induce positive attitudes and feelings linked to the brand. The right associations can thereby create brand credibility and the increase the confidence to make a purchase-decision (Aaker, 1991).

### 3.1.2. BRAND PERSONALITY

Brand image is, according to Joseph Plummer (2000), built up by three parts. First are physical attributes, which are objectively verifiable. Second are consumer benefits, which are characteristics that can also be independently verifiable, but as well have an internal effect on consumers (you can for example feel like a conscious shopper if you buy organic products). The third part of brand image is *brand personality*, which is subjective from person to person and based entirely on communications. This part is therefore extra interesting to research in order to get a good understanding of consumers' mind-set and brand perception. Brand personality is defined by Aaker (1997, p.347) as "the sets of human characteristics associated with a brand" and builds on the concept of *animism* which means that people tend to ascribe human traits to non-living objects, e.g. brands (Heding et al., 2016). Brand

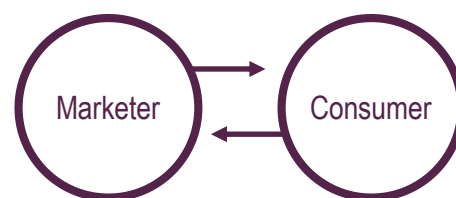
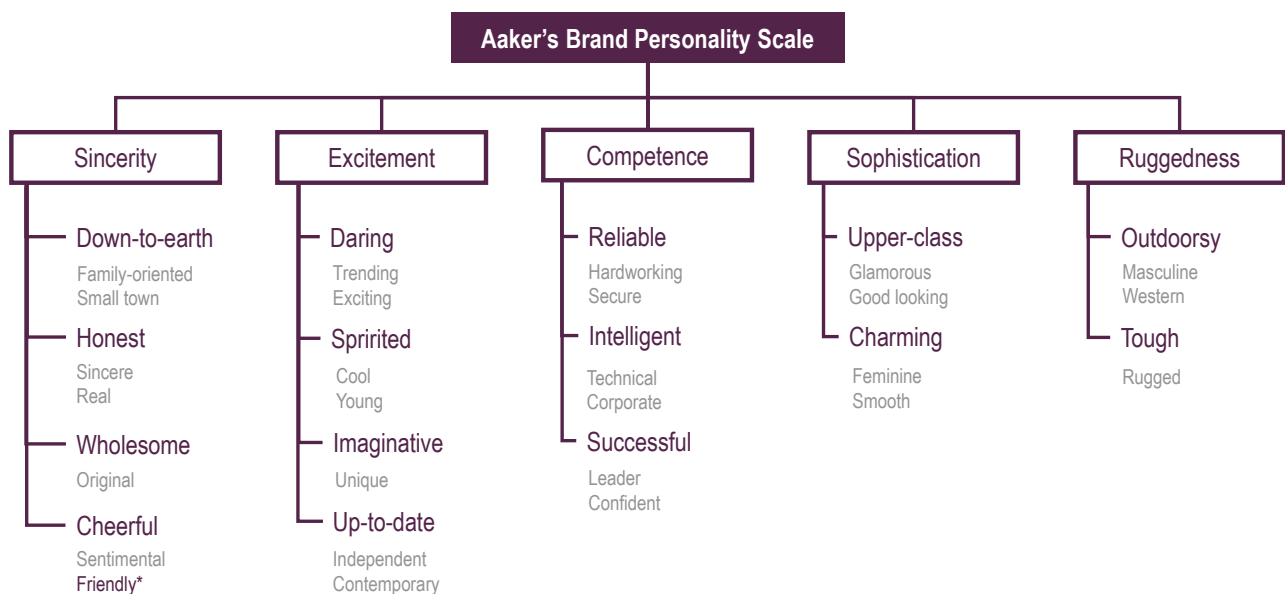


Figure 3. The dyadic relationship.

personality plays a pivotal role in brand attractiveness and a positive attitude towards a brand can strengthen the brand-consumer relationship and can thus be an important guide in brand management (Ibid.). Heding et al. (2016) describes brand personality as part of a dyadic relationship between brand and consumers (Figure 3). This means that, when doing empirical research on brand perception, it is important to keep in mind that brand personality is created through a cognitive process which is affected both by the brand's message and the personality of the message receiver.

A pioneer in the brand personality research field is Jennifer Aaker, who in 1997 identified five brand personality dimensions which are applicable across product categories; sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness (Figure 4). The dimensions are closely related to the human psychology

field's "Big Five", but is applicable on brands rather than humans. "The Big Five" is based on human personality psychology and suggests that individuals have certain characteristics that are central in defining their personalities, independent of the surrounding culture and environment. There are five dimensions of human personality, which all individuals have varying degrees of (Kotler & Keller, 2012). The five characteristics are usually referred to as OCEAN (De Raad & Perugini, 2002) and are described in Figure 5. According to Aaker (1997), three of the brand personality traits are similar for the big five of humans and of brands. Those are agreeableness/sincerity, extroversion/excitement and conscientiousness/competence. Two brand personalities are, however, standing out (sophistication and ruggedness) by being traits people desire, but do not necessarily possess (Aaker, 1997). This proves the need for a framework adapted for brands, such as Aaker's.



\* In this study the subtrait *friendly* is used instead of its over-trait *cheerful*. The reason is that the trait *friendly* was regarded to better catch the essence of sincerity when translated to Swedish

Figure 4. Aaker's Brand Personality Framework.



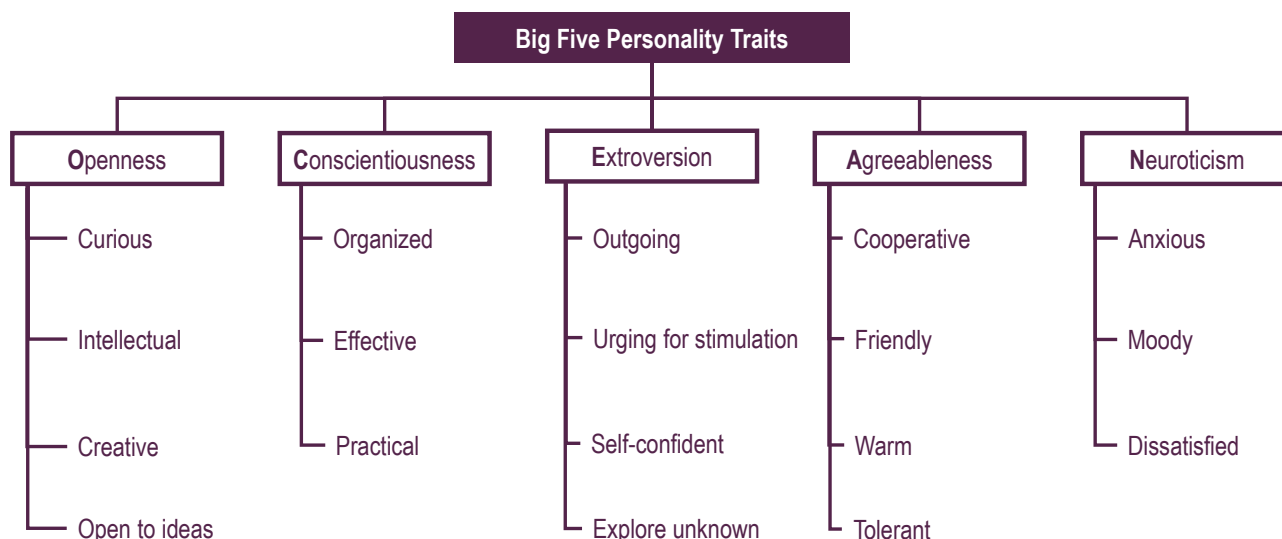
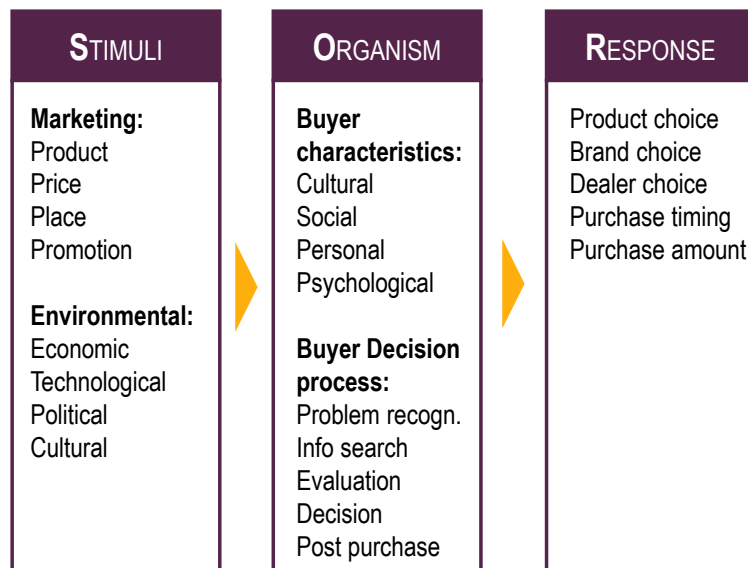


Figure 5. “The Big Five”.

Aaker’s brand personality framework has received some criticism over the years for not being generalisable across cultures. There are studies made on different countries showing that some of the five dimensions are valid in the specific culture, while others are not. For example, Ferrandi, Valette-Florence and Fine-Falcy (2000) developed a personality scale for France and found that four dimensions corresponded to Aaker’s (1997) framework, but the fifth dimension, *competence*, had no reciprocal in the French culture. Instead the personality trait “conviviality” was discovered as a universally applicable dimension. It could therefore be argued that one should not apply this framework on a new audience (such as Swedes) without testing the relevance of the traits first. However, as professor Johan Anselmsson mentions, many attempts have been made to create an improved framework (e.g. a European version has been made) but these turn out to be just as hard to generalise (Appendix 3). Even if the original framework has been doubted, many studies have been able to replicate the study (Heding et al., 2016) and despite its criticism, Aaker’s brand personality scale is considered a great contribution to the research field and is widely used in empirical research on brand personality and consumer behaviour (Ahmad & Thyagaraj, 2014). A further reason to apply it in this study is that there are two sneaker brands (Reebok and Nike) among the brands that Aaker (1997) originally tested the traits on. Hence, the product category should be able to be tested using the Brand Personality Scale.

### 3.1.3. SOR

Since the brand image is dependent on what the brand is communicating towards the consumers, it is of importance to understand the process of advertising and how communication can be used to affect consumers. The basis for understanding consumer behaviour is the Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) model (Figure 6) which visualise consumers' psychological process when exposed to any type of marketing or communication. The cognitive process starts with one or several stimuli entering the



Kotler et al., Marketing Management, Pearson Prentice Hall, 2009

consciousness of the organism (i.e. the consumer) making him/her evaluate a product or brand and make a purchase decision. Stimuli include marketing stimuli - such as a certain product, its price and communication - but can also be environmental stimuli including economic, political, technological and cultural factors. The stimuli is then sensed and interpreted by the consumer

Figure 6. Stimuli-Organism-Response Model

depending on the person in question. Factors affecting how a stimulus is interpreted could be psychological, such as motivation and perception, and characteristics including cultural, social and personal factors. Lastly, the stimuli make the organism enter the consumer decision-making process including evaluation of alternatives and brand choice (Kotler & Keller, 2012).

One can imagine several factors of the S-O-R model being important for the understanding of how language varieties might affect brand perception and attitudes. It is for example close to hand to think that cultural stimuli, such as accent, in commercials play part in how consumers form brand perception. This study aims at putting light on such potential synergies.

### 3.1.4. ELABORATION LIKELIHOOD MODEL

As mentioned in the previous section, consumers respond differently to different stimuli. Hence, advertising should be adapted depending on the objective of the message. Even though there is no single clear model of how advertising works, it is known that the right audience must be targeted with a message that is relevant, accepted, understandable and gains attention, in order to be successfully communicated. Some views of how this is done have been prominent, and one of these views is the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM). When studying different interpretations of how marketing communications work, it is clear

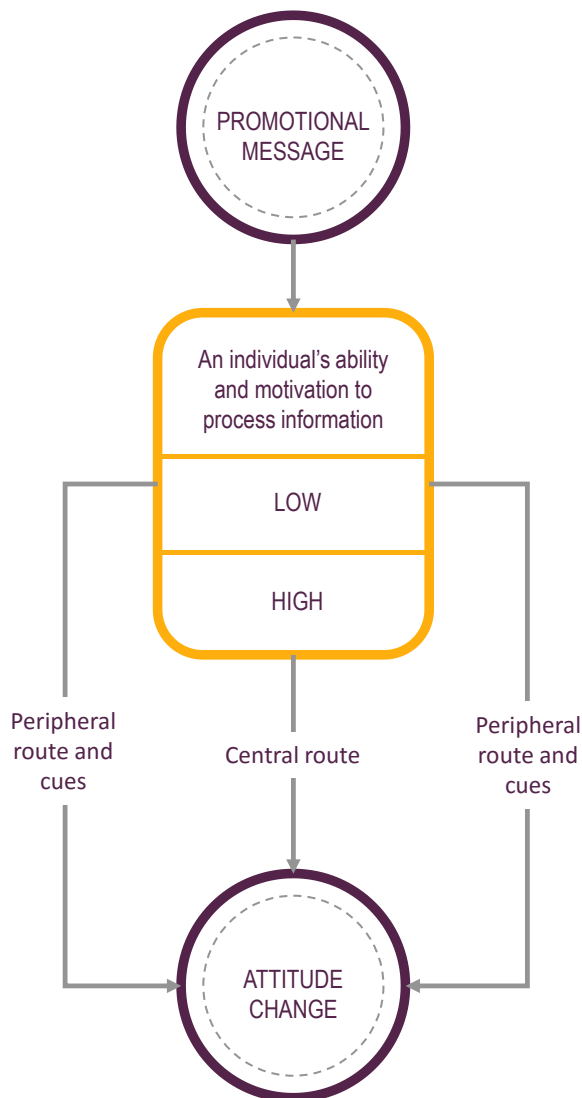


Figure 7. Elaboration Likelihood Model.

that neither a purely emotional nor a purely cognitive interpretation is realistic. The degree of emphasis varies depending on the context in which the message is communicated, but both these elements are important (Fill & Turnbull, 2016). ELM was developed by Petty and Cacioppo (1983) and explains how different levels of involvement affect how cognitive processing, persuasion and attitude change occur. Elaboration is said to be high if the message receiver has the ability to process information and a high motivation to do so. On the contrary, if the ability and motivation to process information is poor, the elaboration of the message will likely be low. Elaboration is high when the consumer takes the central route to persuasion, while it is low when (s)he takes the peripheral route (Fill & Turnbull, 2016). Both persuasion routes are explained in detail below.

When the message receiver is active and involved, (s)he takes the central route to

persuasion (Fill & Turnbull, 2016). This is because when the consumer finds the information in a message interesting and relevant (s)he is more likely to pay attention to it; the consumer focuses on the arguments presented by the sender and generates cognitive responses to the message. Furthermore, when having

prior knowledge about the message content, the consumer is more likely to generate more thoughts about the message and increase the number of counterarguments (Solomon, 2015). Therefore, when taking the central route, the ability of the message to successfully persuade will depend on the argument's quality rather than how it is executed. For example, the decision to purchase a high involvement product such as a car will probably be based on arguments that justify the car model for that specific buyer who will also likely be willing to read brochures and gather information (Fill & Turnbull, 2016).

If the message receiver takes the peripheral route however, (s)he is not likely to engage in cognitive processing and lacks the ability to process information. In these cases, the receiver is more likely to rely on 'peripheral cues' instead of evaluating and thinking about the message content. These peripheral cues are extraneous to, and surround, the actual message and include factors such as expertise or attractiveness of the message source, packaging and the context of the message. Peripheral cues may be incidental to the message content and in low-involvement situation, they can influence the receivers' attitudes positively (Fill & Turnbull, 2016). The paradox of low involvement is a result of the peripheral route to persuasion and implies that when we don't care much about the message per se, the presentation of the message becomes increasingly important. The implication is that consumers involved in emotional or behavioural decision-making rely more on peripheral cues than consumers in high-involvement decision-making (Solomon, 2015).

According to ELM, the expected level of cognitive processing to occur by the target audience should influence the communications strategy in order to affect attitudinal change. If the involvement and motivation is low, the peripheral route is dominating, and emphasis should be placed on the target audience's emotions and the execution of the message in order to influence that (Heath, 2000). When the target audience is expected to take the central route, the executional aspects only need to be satisfactory and the message content should be dominant in order to persuade the receivers (Fill & Turnbull, 2016). Following the logic of ELM, in order to make the language variety used in the video commercial affect the respondents, a low involvement product will be advertised.

## 3.2. WHAT MIGHT INFLUENCE BRAND PERCEPTION

*In the following sections models and concepts are explained which connects linguistics research to marketing and branding theory. It starts of with the Perceptual Process, which forms a link between the two fields of research. That section is followed by a short explanation of what a language and an accent actually are. Later the concept of Accent Standardness is discussed followed by Tajfel's Social Identity theory which lays the foundation for in-group and outgroup behaviour. Lastly follows a review of research on Stereotypes and Culture of Brand Origin*

### 3.2.1. THE PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

Up until this point, the study has assumed that sound is a possible stimulus for brand perception, but on what logic is that expectation built, and why should language varieties matter? The assumption is based on the theory of the *perceptual process* (Figure 8). The perceptual process can be seen as a detailed view of the first two steps of the S-O-R model and implies that, in order for a person (in this case the consumer or respondent) to make an interpretation (of a brand), (s)he needs to pay attention to an exposure. This exposure is a sensory stimulus, including sounds. Hence the logic that in order for a person to form a brand perception, (s)he needs to be exposed to a stimuli of which sound (e.g. a commercial voice-over) is one. However, before going into the empirical research, a few linguistic concepts and theories must be explained.

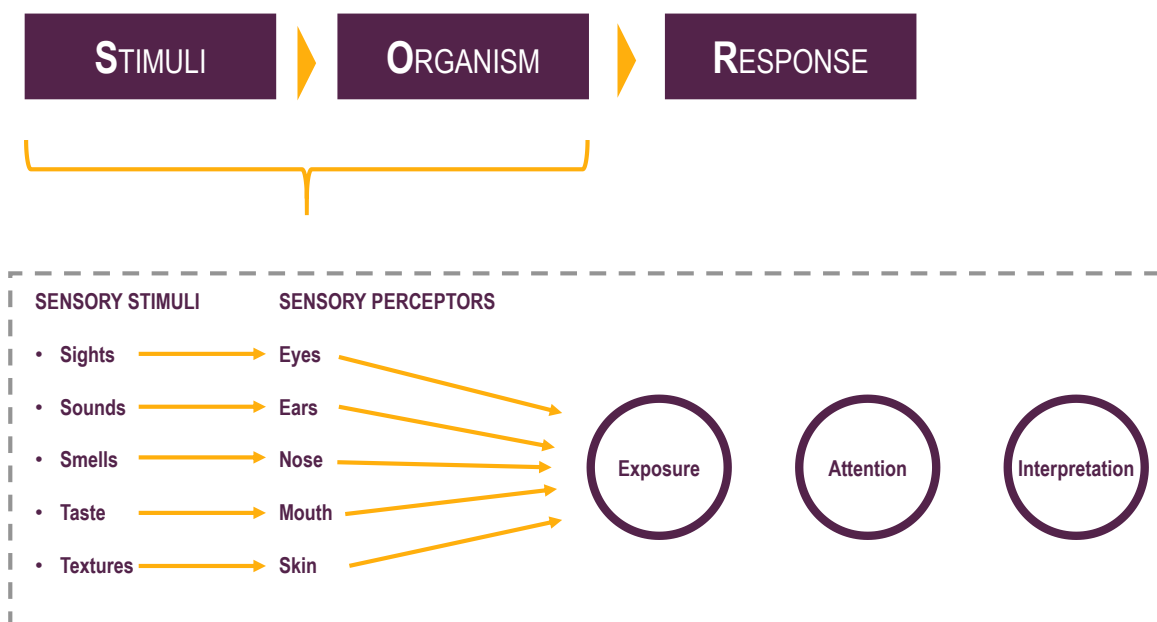


Figure 8. The Perceptual Process.

### 3.2.2. LANGUAGE OR ACCENT?

---

Firstly, since this study is investigating both languages (Swedish and English) as well as accents (American, Australian and British), the differences between these concepts must be explained. A language is what human beings use to communicate with each other. This system of communication is based on words, which are combined into sentences. People basing their communication on the same words and combination of words speak the same language (Pereltsvaig, 2012). Accents are different versions of the same language and is defined by Finch (2000) as “the set of pronunciation features which identify where a person is from, regionally or socially”. Accents are only concerned with auditory effects, in contrast to dialects which also include varieties in vocabulary and grammar (Ibid.). This means that British, American and Australian are three different accents and not three different dialects.

### 3.2.3. ACCENT STANDARDNESS

---

Accents can act as perceptual cues as to where the person speaking comes from. There exists uncountable numbers of accents but all accents from within a country can be placed on a “standard - no standard continuum” depending on how regionally neutral they are perceived (Morales et al., 2012). Since the accents used in this research are of crucial importance for the result, an effort has been made to select commercial spokespersons with an accent as close as possible to the most standard accent of the particular country. As mentioned in the delimitation (Section 1.2), three different English accents will be tested in addition to Swedish. In Great Britain the most standard accent is the Received Pronunciation (RP), or BBC English as it is also called. RP does not belong to a specific geographical region, but is regarded the neutral, most standard English, and is associated with Civil Service and public schools (Finch, 2000). The use of RP can be criticised since the accent is becoming less and less common (today around 3% of the British population speak it), but it is still considered the most standard and neutral accent (Oxford English Dictionary, n.d.). In the United States, the concept of Standard American is not as clear cut. In many ways this is due to the lack of an “American academy” which means authors and linguistics themselves promote different standards of the language (Hickey, 2015). As a consequence, Standard American English is non-existing. Instead the term General American (GA) is used to describe the most common or ‘default’ type of American, i.e. an accent without an easily identifiable regional pronunciation (Ghorshi, Vaseghi & Qin Yan, 2008). The GA concept has been criticised for being too vague and continues to be debated, but a common ground is that GA is the English accent spoken in the ‘Midwest’ (Kortmann & Schneider, 2004). Australian is known for being a very young accent with few regional differences and the few differences that exist are sociocultural rather than regional (The Macquarie Globe, 2007). In the 1960’s, linguists A.G.

Mitchell and Arthur Delbridge developed a categorisation which is up until today the most accepted grouping of Australian accents. They divided Australian into a broad, general and cultivated accent (Mannell, n.d.), with the General Australian accent being the mid-way and also the one most widely spoken (Das, 2005). General Australian is hence what will be used in this study as “standard Australian”. In Sweden, the numbers of accents are considerably more than in Australia, and the accents differ a lot from each other (Institutet för språk och folkminnen, 2011). Furthermore, it has been proved that Swedish accents come with preconceptions, where for example someone with a typical Stockholm accent is perceived as ‘posh’ and someone with a typical Gothenburg accent is more likely perceived as ‘witty’ (Institutet för språk och folkminnen, 2017). Therefore, again, a spokesperson with the most neutral Swedish accent will be used when conducting the study. In Sweden, this type of accent is called ‘rikssvenska’ and is a standard accent widely accepted as being stylistic neutral (NE, 2018a).

There is extensive research confirming the theory that diverse accents are perceived in different ways and induce various meanings, emotions and impressions and it is today widely accepted that standard accents (SA) are perceived more favourably than non-standard accents (NSA) (Dragojevic, Giles, & Watson, 2013). However, while there is consensus among scholars that accents affect attitudes and perception, a majority of the research conducted has compared SAs to NSAs, instead of accents from different english-speaking countries. The following section will briefly bring up some examples, both older and more recent, of studies showing a correlation between perception and different accents as well as standardness of accents.

Tsalikis et al. (1991) concluded from a literature review that, in English-speaking countries, people with SAs or big city accents were associated with intelligence, ambition and confidence, while those speaking with NSAs were perceived as reliable and generous. They also made their own experiment of how different accents in radio commercial affect the salesperson’s effectiveness, including competence and intention, and showed that an American audience judges standard American accent more positively than a sales pitch in a Greek-English accent. An extra interesting note from the paper is that a respondent’s exposure to a specific accent did not affect his/her evaluation of the accent. Another paper investigating source credibility, concludes that SAs have higher ratings compared to NSAs on source credibility in general and expertise and trustworthiness in particular (Reinares-Lara, Martín-Santana & Muela-Molina, 2016). Moreover, on the note of credibility, Giles (1973) let teenagers listen to four persons with different

accents stating the same argument against capital punishment for murder. The results showed that the more prestigious the accent was rated, the higher the quality of the argument was rated.

In this study, it can be difficult to compare the results previous research on SAs and NSAs, since both the Swedish and the English language varieties tested are by definition standard accents. Noteworthy is that this is compared to other accents within the particular country. Which of the four language varieties are more standard relative to each other has not been unravelled in research. Therefore, if the ambition is to compare the results of this study to previous research, one must make an educated guess of which variety is perceived as the standard one. Because the study is conducted on a Swedish population, and because a standard accent is one that is as regionally neutral as possible (Morales et al., 2012), the Swedish variety is estimated to be the more standard one. It is simply believed that consumers react the least to accent origin if the commercial is in their domestic language compared to the three English language varieties.

Which of the three English accents that is perceived as more standard is harder to estimate. However, by looking at frequencies and descriptives from the quantitative data set in this study (see more in Chapter 5

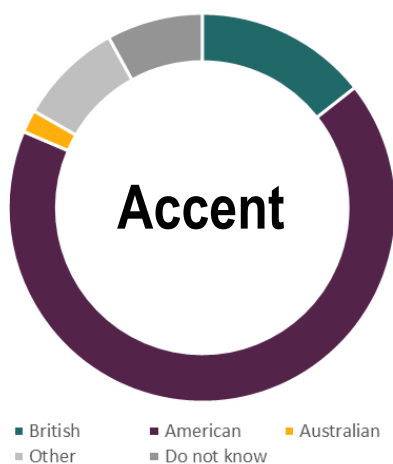


Figure 9. Accents spoken by the respondents.

and 6), it is believed that the American can be seen as more standard than British and Australian. This assumption is built upon the logic that American is, as can be seen in *Figure 9*, by far the most commonly spoken accent among the respondents (67%) and is also the most common accent to watch TV series and other media in (89% watch media in American at least once a week - the same numbers for British and Australian are 41% and 9% respectively). It is therefore believed that consumers react less to the accent origin of an American commercial since they are more used to that accent. Support for this estimated guess can also be found in the interview with BERG CEO Michaela Di Dato (Appendix 1) who says that they usually go for an American voice-over in their English videos because:

*“People are used to it...It is easier for people to understand [the message] than if they would pay attention to an accent”*



### 3.2.4. SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY

---

So why is it expected that different accents, and also different languages, evoke different associations and feelings in the mind of the consumer? One explanation is that people tend to like and positively associate towards individuals that they can identify with. The more similarities a person shares with another individual, the greater the possibility of positive feelings. Since accents can, as previously mentioned, be a major part of an individual's identity and thus it forms how (s)he is perceived, they become an important part in forming likability (Cialdini, 2010). Why this is the case can be explained by the results of social psychologist Henri Tajfel's (1919-1982) research in the field of social identity. His most famous contribution is the Social Identity Theory (SIT), originally known as the Categorization-Identity-Comparison Theory (CIC), explaining how people form opinions about others (Worchel, Morales, Pàez & Deschamps, 1998). Firstly, the message receiver evaluates a person's credibility by grouping him/her according to some *categories* important for the receiver in question. Such categories could be gender, age or other personal characteristics. Then the receiver *identifies* with the spokesperson based on these criteria. Lastly, the receiver uses the categories to make a social *comparison* between him-/herself and the spokesperson (DeShields & de los Santos, 2000). When the receiver feels similar to the spokesperson, the receiver tends to be positively influenced by him/her. The logic being that people with a stronger relationship towards a specific country, language or accent should evaluate this more positively than others. DeShields and de los Santos (2000) suggest that this has an impact on advertisement and argue for using spokespersons who are positively identified with the important categories (e.g. accent) of the target market in order to effectively reach them.

### 3.2.5. STEREOTYPES

---

As mentioned in Section 3.2.2, the spoken language can be used to identify the speaker as part of regional or social groups. The stimulus of spoken language varieties can also evoke stereotypes (Edwards, 1999), since the listener's attitudes towards a particular group may be generalised to the spokesperson based on the language as only cue (Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner and Fillenbaum, 1960). A stereotype is "...a fixed, over generalised belief about a particular group or class of people." (Cardwell, 1996, p. 78). Stereotypes come with both advantages and disadvantages. For example, stereotypes allow rapid responses to situations but also lead to possible false generalisations about people (McLeod, 2015). Individuals do often have different opinions and preconceptions about accents (Bruce, 2010). For example, Bennet and Loken (2008) investigate whether the use of different accents in radio commercials can create associations of a stereotype and ultimately affect the perception of a brand. They argue that when hearing a British

accent, stereotypes often becomes salient and the spokesperson is thought of as having attributes such as 'highly educated' and 'proper'. The associations elicited were transferred to the brand being advertised, meaning it was perceived as being more sophisticated, unique and expensive compared to an American accent. The authors even suggest that just like a celebrity endorser can be used as a spokesperson for a specific brand, an unknown spokesperson speaking with a specific accent could be used. The accent itself should be enough to create associations to a brand (Bennett & Loken, 2008). The accent spoken is a clear indication of where a person comes from, which creates stereotypes and gives him/her a social identity.

### ***British, American and Australian Stereotypes***

Finding reliable research on what is considered typical national stereotypes is difficult, probably in part because stereotypes is something that is created in individuals' minds, i.e. it is subjective. However, some indications on what is considered typical American, British and Australian follows. It should be noted that the research below is conducted on spokesperson and not brand, but with the logic of *animism* (Aaker, 1997; Heding et al. 2016) they are believed to be possible to apply on brands as well.

Several scholars (Kreuger, 1996; Stephan, Ageyev, Stephan, Abalakina, Stefanenko and Coates-Shrider, 1993; Ladegaard, 1998), find that Americans are perceived as being ambitious, proud and competitive, which correspond well with the brand personality trait *competence*. They are also considered pleasure-loving, outgoing, impulsive, fascinating, exciting and progressive, which correspond well with the *excitement* brand personality. Lastly, Americans are perceived as being friendly which can be connected both to the *sincerity* brand personality trait as well as *social attractiveness* which is part of source credibility (Aaker, 1997; Tsalikis et al., 2013).

The British stereotype is described as being conservative, practical, reserved and sophisticated, which are traits that correspond well to Aaker's brand personality *sophistication* (Kreuger, 1996). Brits are further associated with characteristics such as intelligence, leadership and self-confidence, which corresponds well with the *competence* brand personality trait. Connections can also be found to *source credibility* as the British accent is eliciting associations of being highly educated, having social status and being intelligent (Ladegaard, 1998).

Lastly, the perceptions of Australians are firstly connected to the brand personality trait *sincerity*, as they are perceived as being laid-back, easy-going and calm, which can be described with Aaker's (1997)

*sincerity* sub-trait *down-to-earth*. Furthermore, spoken Australian elicits feelings of ‘relaxing with a beer’ (Ladegaard, 1998) which is more connected to masculine traits and thus the *ruggedness* personality. Australian is also perceived as being reliable and thus *competent*. A summary of the previous literature on American, British and Australian stereotypes is found Table 3.

Worth to notice is that in the study conducted on Danish individuals, a majority of the informants did not consciously identify the spokesperson as being Australian. However, national stereotypes were produced that are frequently associated with Australia. This finding implies that either there is something ‘relaxed’ and ‘easy-going’ in the Australian accent itself, or the stereotypes are based on some social evaluation which is subconscious in the minds of the individuals (Ladegaard, 1998). Giles, Bourhis & Davies (1974), claim that there can be two different reasons for why an accent is perceived the way it is, referring to *the inherent way* and *the imposed norm*. The inherent way suggests that an accent is perceived the way it is because of its linguistic characteristics. That means the actual sound of an accent could be perceived as for example beautiful or ugly. If that is the case, the accent perception is not dependent on from where the spokesperson originates. The imposed norm, on the other hand, means that the accent in itself do not give rise to associations, instead the perceptions are based solely on cultural and social norms. Such an explanation would mean that perception is very much dependent on the accent’s origin.

Trait in this study	British	American	Australian
Sincerity		Friendly	Laid-back, easy-going, calm, friendly
Excitement		Pleasure-loving, individualistic, outgoing, impulsive, fascinating, exciting, progressive	
Competence	Intelligence, leadership, self-confidence	Ambitious, proud, competitive	Reliable
Sophistication	Conservative, practical, reserved, sophisticated		
Ruggedness			Masculine
Credibility	Education, social status, intelligence	Friendly	Helpful, trustworthy

Table 3. Stereotypes of the different English accents.

### 3.2.6. CULTURE OF BRAND ORIGIN

---

How the consumer responds to different stimuli about a brand as well as how they think about a brand is determined by *brand knowledge* (Keller, 1993). If companies understand consumer brand knowledge it will help them to become more effective in their marketing communication towards consumers (Lim & O'Cass, 2001). There are many factors influencing consumers' brand knowledge. Due to the international competition of today, country-of-origin (COO), i.e. from what country a product is believed to originate, is considered one of the most influential factors. It seems to especially impact perceived quality, preference and purchase intention (Khachaturian & Morganosky, 1990; Ahmed & d'Astou, 1993). COO effects have in previous research implied that consumers tend to be more positive in their evaluations of products from their own country compared to imported products (Kaynak & Cavusgil, 1983). The traditional view of country-of-origins effects can however be seen as quite confusing and even misleading since products are typically not designed, manufactured and assembled in the same country, but are rather "hybrid products" with diverse origins (Chao, 1993).

One solution of the problem is to look at the brand level rather than product level in consumer evaluation. Culture-of-brand-origin (COBO) is therefore used in place of COO since it is a result of consumers being exposed to a brand's marketing activities (Lim & O'Cass, 2001). This perspective has been illustrated by Thakor and Kohli (1996) who suggest that, due to the globalisation of corporations, the traditional view of COO, in terms of country of manufacture, is no longer significant to consumer purchase behaviour. Instead they propose the perceived brand origin as a more relevant variable, which they define as "the place, region or country to which a brand is perceived to belong by its target consumers" (Ibid., p.27). Leclerc et al. (1994) address the same concern and discovered that implications of a brand's origin, rather than country-of-origin, was a more differentiated cue for brand perception. This was found by investigating the product perceptions and attitudes as a result of foreign branding, where the brand name was spelled and pronounced in a foreign language, which indicated different cultural origins of the brand (Leclerc et al., 2004). According to Lim and O'Cass (2001), it may be easier for consumers to extract cultural origin of a brand than country of origin, which would make it a more effective strategy when marketing hybrid products.

When consumers determine a brand's image, the brand-origin plays a potentially important role (Takhor & Lavack, 2003). Furthermore, Samiee et al. (2005) found that when consumers classify brands with their

COBO they do it based on the spelling and pronunciation of the brand as well as the similarity of the brand-origin language. The importance of language is confirmed by Usunier (2011), who suggests that linguistic cues are the most important factors for consumers when determining their perception of the brand origin. This is further confirmed in a study by Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic (2011), in which the results show that brand attitudes are strongly affected by the perceived brand origin, regardless of whether the perception is correct or not. Considering the importance of accent on perception of brand origin, as well as brand origin as an influence on brand attitudes, the different language varieties should elicit varying results. Especially since respondents cannot have any previous perceptions of brand origin since they have never been exposed to the fictitious brand used in the commercials before.

---

### 3.3. HOW BRAND PERCEPTION MIGHT BE IMPACTED

---

*Different accents, standard or non-standard, leads to different perceptions. Depending on which accent consumers are exposed to, they think differently of the person speaking and ultimately the product being advertised. This has been discussed above in terms of Aaker's (1997) Brand Personality Scale explaining how accents might affect perceived brand personality. There are, however, also other parts related to the brand which are likely to be affected by the accent spoken in commercials. Therefore, in the following section, accents' effects on credibility, likability, brand relationship, purchase intention and attention will be briefly summarised.*

#### 3.3.1. SOURCE CREDIBILITY

---

In the early 90's Roobina Ohanian published two articles (1990; 1991), which received a lot of attention and has been widely cited in academia, both in the marketing and the linguistic field. Her research put emphasis on the importance of *source credibility* in advertising and aim for a consistent measurement of source credibility, which had up to this point been vague and incoherent. Ohanian defines source credibility as "a communicator's positive characteristics that affect the receiver's acceptance of a message" (Ohanian, 1990, p.41), and divides the concept into three dimensions; *trustworthiness*, *expertise* and *attractiveness*. Trustworthiness describes a listener's acceptance of, and confidence in, the speaker and message. Expertise includes the listener's perception of the speaker's competence and ability to make valid arguments. Lastly, attractiveness is in Ohanian's research physical attractiveness and is suggested to be an important cue in forming an impression of the spokesperson.

In 1999, Birch and McPhail published a paper where they looked at how Australians perceive video commercials in American, British and Australian accents respectively. Looking at source credibility, including expertise, trustworthiness and source attractiveness, it is suggested that Australians rate Australian spokespersons more favourably, but that the accent does not affect the overall impression of the commercial. The article is however self-critical since real commercials from known brands were used which could have had impact on the respondents holistic impression. Overall, source credibility has been widely used in linguistic research as a measurement of accent effects, however almost exclusively with the purpose of evaluating the spokesperson (Birch & McPhail, 1999; Lalwani, Lwin & Leng Li, 2005; Tsalikis, DeShields & LaTour, 2013; Reinares-Lara, Martín-Santana & Muela-Molina, 2016). With the logic of brand personality, i.e. that human characteristics can be transferred to a brand (Aaker, 1997), it is of interest to also investigate if the concept of source credibility can also transmit to a brand. However, since physical attractiveness cannot be ascribed to a voice, Ohanian's (1990;1991) framework have been adapted to include *social attractiveness* instead of physical. Social attractiveness has been researched by many scholars and has been suggested to include traits like "friendly" and "humble" (Tsalikis et al., 2013) rather than the physical attractiveness attributes in Ohanian's original framework (1990; 1991).

### 3.3.2. LIKABILITY

---

Birch & McPhail (1999) investigated how accents affect attitude towards an advertisement. Likability is referred to as the "affection for the source as a result of the source's physical appearance, behaviour and other personal characteristics". Therefore, a spokesperson's likability is perceived as a powerful determinant of persuasion. In the study conducted in Australia, Australian spokespersons were perceived as more likeable than American and British, which indicate a higher likability towards the domestic accent (Birch & McPhail, 1999). This result confirms Cialdini's (2010) result and Tajfel's Social Identity theory (Worchel et al., 1998), which highlights that people tend to like others that they feel similar to. Contradictory to Birch & McPhail's study however, several scholars have found that it is rather a non-standard accent that is more likely to elicit higher likability (Carrie, 2017). Both studies test the likability of a spokesperson. However, with the *animism* logic that a brand can be ascribed human characteristics (Aaker, 1997; Heding et al., 2016), these results can be transmitted to brands. Therefore, the opposing findings make up an interesting background to testing the brand likability of the language varieties on a Swedish audience.

### 3.3.3. ACCENT RELATIONSHIP

---

Tajfel's Social Identity Theory forms a basis for the concept of in-group and outgroup behaviour. According to social identity research people hold two identities, one individual (based on own personal characteristics) and one social (based on our group memberships). The social identity can in turn be divided into *in-group* and *outgroup* identity. The former being how one identifies with belonging to a group and the latter being how one identifies as being parted from a group. This means that people tend to stress the characteristics which they share with their in-group or which distinguish them from the outgroup (Worchel et al., 1998; Heding et al., 2016) and this includes choosing to consume brands which unite or separate them from the respective groups (Heding et al., 2016). When sharing characteristics with others, people identify as belonging to a group. If applying the Social Identity Theory, this should mean that in-group relationships positively influence brand attitudes. Furthermore, Bruce (2010), who has conducted research on the Swedish population, argues that individuals' perception of their own accent and language usage affect how we perceive others. Generally, people think highly of their own accent and want to preserve it (Bruce, 2010). This can be connected to the theories of Social Identity and in-groups. How accents can affect cultural identity and stereotypes is further discussed in Section 3.2.5.

### 3.3.4. PURCHASE INTENTION

---

The effect accents have on purchase intention have been discussed by many researchers, with varying results as well as underlying causations. While many scholars agree that purchase intention indeed is affected by accents, it is often not because of the accent per se but rather an indirect effect of perceptual factors. Tsalikis et al. (1991) argue that a standard accent is perceived as more competent, socially attractive and credible and thus result in a greater purchase intention than for a non-standard accent. DeShields, Kara and Kaynak (1996) agree and resonate that since accents affect the perceived source credibility and credibility in turn affects purchase intention, accents act as an informational cue affecting the purchase intention. In another study by DeShields, de los Santos, Berumen & Torres (1997), the same result was found; purchase intention is affected by accent. However, the impact is rather attributed to the relationship between the consumer's country-of-origin and the spokesperson's accent. If, for example, advertising towards an audience in the US, a standard American accents elicits a more favourable purchase intention than a Spanish-English accent. Also Lwin and Wee (2000), who tested standard British English compared to Singaporean 'Singlish' found that the purchase intention was significantly higher for the standard accent. There exist several findings that foreign accents have a detrimental effect on purchase intention, while a standard accent can elicit positive effects (Mai & Hoffmann, 2014). Lalwani et al.

(2005) found that purchase intention is more strongly affected by the accent when advertising a low involvement product, compared to high involvement which corresponds well with the Elaboration Likelihood Model. Furthermore, several scholars emphasize the importance of culture of brand origin in order to influence the purchase intention. Accents with which consumers negatively connote an image elicit negative effects on purchase intention, while the positive consequences of a positive country image are weaker or non-existing (Mai & Hoffmann, 2014).

### 3.3.5. ATTENTION

---

Previous research has found differences in attention to the message, and memory of the information given, depending on what accent is used (Lalwani et al., 2005). Therefore it is of interest to see whether the tested language varieties in this study have effect on consumer attention. Morales, Scott and Yorkston (2012) showed in a study, comparing British standard accent (i.e. received pronunciation) and the non-standard accent Southern American in radio advertising, that while a standard accent is rated more favourably than a non-standard accent, it actually results in lower brand recall. Lalwani et al. (2005) also looked at radio advertising, but in Singapore, and found that advertisements using a ‘Singlish’ accent got more attention from respondents than did advertisements using a British accent. This could also be seen as a comparison between standard and non-standard accents, just like in the study of Morales et al. (2012). It therefore seems to be a trade-off in the choice of accent, where the marketer must choose between advert liking or advert recall. According to Solomon (2015), there are three types of memory. The sensory memory lasts for a few seconds and is a temporary storage of sensory information. The short-term memory lasts no longer than 20 seconds and is a brief storage of the information currently used. The long-term memory is a relatively permanent storage of information. In order to go from short- to long-term memory, information must be rehearsed or processed thoroughly. This is too extensive to test in this study. Going from sensory to short-term memory can, however, be tested. Short-term memory is achieved through *attention*, i.e. the person must be attentive to the sensory stimuli to be able to remember it short-term.

---

## 3.4. FORMATION OF HYPOTHESES

---

To summarize, the theoretical background has provided the foundation for the following research. It is believed that by altering the accents used in video commercials the perception of the brand will be affected in terms of brand personality, credibility and likability. It is further believed that the accent will affect the



respondents' purchase intention as well as their attention to the message. The reason behind the differences is thought to be affected by the respondents' relationship with the accent they are being exposed to as well as underlying stereotypes. By altering the accent in commercials it is only the sound stimulus that is changed. Ultimately, by taking the accent into consideration when advertising, marketers should be able to affect how their brand is perceived and thereby increase their brand equity. The results of the study should give insights about how language varieties affect the perception of, and attitude towards, brands. Below follows the hypotheses tested together with short summaries of previous research and expected results.

### **H1: Brand personality**

Brand personality is one of three dimensions building brand image and also the one most affected by communicative elements (Plummer, 2000). According to Aaker (1997), consumers associate brands with human characteristics which determines the brand's personality. How the brand personality is determined is largely dependent on individuals' associative networks in which many pieces of relevant information is stored. Marketers can use cues to spark consumers' associations and thereby affect the perception of a brand. For example, if the definitions of stereotypes from previous literature will be found in this research, the American commercial should elicit associations to excitement and competence in particular. The brand should in the British commercial be considered competent and sophisticated, while the Australian accent should associate the brand with mainly sincerity and ruggedness (Kreuger, 1996; Stephan et al., 1993; Ladegaard, 1998). Since the exposure to sound is a determinant sensory stimuli affecting consumer perception and accents can spark associative networks (Solomon, 2015), the first hypothesis is developed:

H1: The commercials communicate different brand personalities

*H1a: The Swedish commercial communicates a brand personality different from the English commercials*

*H1b: At least one of the English commercials communicates a brand personality different from the others*

### **H2: Credibility**

Ohanian (1990; 1991) emphasizes the importance of source credibility in advertising, which she means that receivers' acceptance of a message is dependent upon. While several researchers have measured

accent effects on the credibility of the spokesperson (Birch & McPhail, 1999; Lalwani, Lwin & Leng Li, 2005; Tsalikis et al., 2013; Reinares-Lara, Martín-Santana & Muela-Molina, 2016), less has been studied on brands. Following the same logic as for brand personality, associations made to the spoken accent can influence consumers perception of the spokesperson's credibility. If then human characteristics can be transferred to a brand (Aaker, 1997), it is of interest to investigate the source credibility of a brand. Hence, the second hypothesis follows:

H2: The commercials communicate different levels of source credibility

*H2a: The Swedish commercial communicates a source credibility level different from the English commercials*

*H2b: At least one of the English commercials communicates a source credibility level different from the others*

### **H3: Likeability**

Likability of a spokesperson is described as an effect of the source's physical appearance, behaviour and other personal characteristics (Birch & McPhail, 1999). Previous research has found contradictory results on what type of accents evoke greater likability (Birch & McPhail, 1999; Carrie, 2017). Since the assumption can be made that companies want their brands to be liked, the third hypothesis aims to test if either of the so far contradictory results can be found for brand likability:

H3: The commercials evoke different levels of likability

*H3a: The Swedish commercial evokes a brand likability different from the English commercials*

*H3b: At least one of the English commercials evokes a higher brand likability than the others*

### **H4: Relationship**

The relationship between a brand and its consumers can be strengthened by the consumer's positive attitude towards the brand (Heding et al., 2016). According to the Social Identity Theory, the receiver of

a message tend to think positively about the spokesperson when (s)he identifies with him/her (DeShields & de los Santos, 2000). A strong relationship towards a specific country, language or accent could therefore evoke positive attitudes towards a brand. This theory is further developed into the concept of in-group and outgroup behaviour, which insinuate that consumers choose brands that unite or separate them from that group. By sharing characteristics with others, the feeling of belongingness to a group increases (Heding et al., 2016). The language and accent that individuals speak themselves affect how they perceive others (Bruce, 2010), and can therefore influence the Social Identity as well as in-groups and outgroups. Based on the above reasoning, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H4: The closer relationship the respondent has to an accent, the more favourably a commercial in this accent will be rated

This hypothesis is only tested for the three different English accents, and not for differences between the Swedish and English commercials. The reason is that the hypothesis is tested on a Swedish population and it is therefore assumed that all respondents have a very strong relationship to Swedish. This prevents a correlation analysis for the Swedish commercial.

### **H5: Purchase intention**

The ultimate goal for many companies is to persuade consumers to purchase which means their brand equity is translated into actual financial value. Accents can affect purchase intentions indirectly in more than one way. Firstly, accents affect perceptions of competency, attractiveness and source credibility which in turn affect purchase intention (Tsalikis et al., 1991; DeShields et al., 1996). Secondly, the relationship between the consumer's and the spokesperson's country-of-origin impacts the consumer's purchase intention (DeShields et al., 1997). Lastly, foreign accents can have a detrimental effect, contrary to a standard accent which can elicit positive effect, on purchase intention. This is strongly connected to culture of brand origin which tend to have effects on brand image and thus purchase intentions (Mai & Hoffmann, 2014). Due to the many underlying factors affecting purchase intention, the following hypothesis is tested:

H5: The commercials lead to different degrees of purchase intention

*H5a: The Swedish commercial leads to a different degree of purchase intention than the English commercials*

*H5b: At least one of the English commercials leads to different degree of purchase intention than the others*

## **H6: Attention**

Previous research have found that depending on the accent used in a message, the attention to the message as well as the memory of information given varies (Lalwani et al., 2005). Standard accents have been shown to be rated more favourably than a non-standard accent, but a non-standard accent results in better brand recall (Morales et al., 2012; Lalwani et al., 2005) which creates a trade-off for marketers. Since the previous research have tested standard versus non-standard accent there exists a gap in whether these findings are applicable when comparing several standard accents. Therefore, the last hypothesis tests:

H6: The commercials attract different levels of attention

*H6a: The Swedish commercial attracts another level of attention than the English commercials*

*H6b: At least one of the English commercials attracts a level of attention different from the others*

## **4. PRIMARY DATA COLLECTION**

*In this chapter, the practical process of the data collection is explained in detail. Firstly, a thorough explanation of the creative process of creating the video commercial is done, since a lot time and effort was required in order to make it as realistic as possible. Secondly, a guidance of how the quantitative survey was created follows. The survey builds upon the theory and previous research in chapter 3. Finally, it is discussed how the quality of the data can be ensured by applying the concepts of validity and reliability.*

---

## 4.1. CREATION OF THE VIDEO COMMERCIAL

---

In order to be conduct the survey it was necessary to show the respondents a video commercial. However, this could not be an already existing commercial for two reasons. Firstly because user rights are needed if one wants to use other companies' intellectual property. Secondly, and more importantly for the purpose of the study, using a commercial from an existing brand entailed a risk of the respondents recognising the brand. If that would be the case, the respondents could already have a perception of this brand, hence it would induce the study with a potential bias. However, since the differences between language varieties rather than the absolute result, is of interest in the study, a greater concern would be that respondents know where the brand comes from or connects the brand to a certain country. If this would be the case, there would be risk of culture of brand origin bias. For example a commercial from an American brand with an American voice-over might have been rated more favourably than the same commercial with a British voice-over (Lim & O'Cass, 2001). In order to overcome these biases, the decision was taken to make a short film from scratch, and as accurately as possible simulate a real video commercial.

This approach had mainly two problems, one in terms of research process and one in terms of bias in the study. In terms of the research process, the greatest issue was that the approach was very time consuming because external expertise had to be involved to make the film. In terms of research validity, the biggest concern was that the film would end up not looking like an actual commercial which could have effect on the respondents attitude towards it, and affect the result. This second problem, however, was believed to be subordinate since, as previously stated, the importance measure would be the difference in result between language varieties, and not the absolute score. The essence being that it did not matter for the study whether the brand was rated high or low on certain parameters, it was a question of whether one or several language varieties rated higher or lower than the others. After some considerations, it was decided that the procedure of making the film from scratch had advantages and disadvantages that combined outweighs the advantages and disadvantages in using an existing commercial with a pre-known brand.

### 4.1.1. THE MAKING OF A COMMERCIAL

---

The greatest concern with creating a commercial was that external knowledge and professional equipment was needed. This issue was amplified by the low budget of this study, which made it impossible to hire professionals. To overcome this problem in the best way, social capital was used rather than financial capital to the greatest extent possible, meaning great advantage was taken of private and social networks.

Through friends of friends, two filmmakers were hired. They are not yet professionals, but are both studying a degree in Visual Effects at Jönköping University. The program is one of the best educations of its sort, with Academy Award winners among its former students (Jönköpings University, 2018). Visual effects include, among other things, post-production and editing of moving pictures and computer games. These film-makers also owned the basic equipment needed, including camera, reflectors and voice-recording equipment. A smaller monetary compensation was paid for their help with recording and editing the commercial.

In total four commercials were created, which were all similar in terms of visuals, but had different voice-overs. The commercials can be accessed through these links:

British: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jclrI3OecWg>

American: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lQokKo9QTRE>

Australian: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0nahnQxD5hQ>

Swedish: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D2yRGr75oS0>

#### 4.1.2. UNKNOWN BRAND & LOW-INVOLVEMENT PRODUCT

---

Following the logic of the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Fill & Turnbull, 2016), the choice of language variety in commercials should mostly affect consumers who follow the peripheral route to persuasion. Foremost, the language variety could in itself be regarded a peripheral cue since it is an extraneous factor rather than part of the message content. In addition to this, previous research has shown a relationship between a spokesperson's accent and his/her perceived expertise and attractiveness (Birch & McPhail, 1999; Tsalikis et al., 2013). Both expertise and attractiveness are traits especially stated as examples of peripheral cues which makes it close to hand to think that language variety plays a part in peripheral persuasion. Therefore, the commercial needed to expose a low-involvement product in order to test language varieties effect on brand perception and purchase intention. In addition to this, the commercial shown in the empirical study is a new one which has never been shown before and is containing a fictional brand. The reason behind this choice is Solomon's (2015) suggestion that the consumer is more likely to pay attention to the message, rather than to peripheral cues, if (s)he has prior knowledge of the brand content (i.e. following the central route to persuasion). By showing an unknown brand, the respondents are more likely to take the peripheral route and as such focus more on cues like language variety. The neutrality principle is developed further in the next section.

#### 4.1.3. NEUTRALITY

---

Previous research investigates how different language varieties have perceptual effects based on the congruity between the brand and the language variety (Puzakova, Kwak & Bell, 2012), but the knowledge is scarce when it comes to country-neutral products. Testing this, however, is believed to yield even more interesting results because it provides basic knowledge of how language varieties per se affect consumer perception. In order to avoid country or culture of brand origin bias (Lim & O’Cass, 2001), it was therefore of utter importance to have a commercial that, to the highest degree possible, was not connected to one of the four countries of language varieties; Sweden, Great Britain, USA or Australia. Moreover, the commercial could not show any existing brands or logos. Therefore great effort was put on ensuring neutrality in the commercial, with extra focus on the product and the setting. There were five aims when deciding on what product or service to feature in the commercial and to think with the surroundings and audio.

The first three aims consider the product being advertised. Firstly, the product needed to be country-neutral. That is, it would not be specifically connected of either of the countries Sweden, Great Britain, USA or Australia. Secondly, it had to be a product that could easily obtain a personality, meaning that the it should be a product that was easy for respondents to describe or put adjectives on. Thirdly, as explained in section 4.1.2., the commercial had to advertise a low-involvement product in order for the study participants to take a peripheral route to persuasion. Considering the criteria above, regular sneakers were chosen to be advertised in the commercial, since that type of shoes were considered being similar in style and fashion in the four countries of interest. Thus, sneakers were considered a country-neutral product. The commercial could also be filmed without showing the appearance of the spokesperson, which was important since the race of the salesperson or person featured in the commercial affects the consumer perception (Lwin & Wee, 2000). Further, it was believed that all brand personality traits could be applied to sneakers, and it was also regarded to be a low-involvement product (Cambridge Dictionary, 2018c) because of its relatively low financial investment. Whether or not a product is low- or high-involvement is, however, ambiguous and depends on the personal values of the specific consumer. For example, sneakers could be considered high-involvement if it is an important artefact of a person’s lifestyle (Business Dictionary, 2018). Despite this criticism, it was judged that sneakers leaned more towards the low rather than the high end of involvement for a majority of consumers and, together with the requirements of neutrality and brand personality, it was considered the best choice of product.

The fourth step of neutrality was to show as little as possible of the surroundings where the film was set. However, in the absence of a professional studio to shoot the film, some filming had to take place outside. Great effort was therefore placed on making sure that the milieus did not remind of one country rather than another. The fact that the film was shot in Denmark and not in Sweden, however, simplified this process as less effort had to be put on making sure no one recognised the surroundings. Still, national cues such as buses, had to be edited out of the film afterwards.

The last step of neutrality dealt with the neutrality of the spokesperson. Emphasis was put on only using standard accents from all four countries in order to not spark associations connected to “local stereotypes”. The aim was to get a neutral image of the four countries and not affect the perception with non-standard accents. More about the choice of standard accents can be read in 1.2 Delimitation and in 4.1.4 Visuals and Sound.

#### 4.1.4. VISUALS AND SOUND

---

##### *Visuals*

After having decided on product, extensive research was made on how a shoe commercial tends to look like. How the shoes were filmed, how the models moved, how the clips were edited, what type of music was played in the background etc., were all factors documented. This resulted in a manuscript draft that was shown to the two film-makers for inspiration. Filming took place during two days in March at different locations in Copenhagen. The editing took a few more days and the commercial was all ready by the beginning of April.

##### *Sound*

The visuals can be considered a necessity that should be kept as neutral as possible, the true importance lies within the sound of the commercial, i.e. the voice-overs. The first step in creating the voice-overs was to write a sound manuscript. This had to be realistic, but at the same time country neutral, and with as little given brand personality as possible. In order to write a manuscript, many shoe commercials were watched and written descriptions of shoe brands online were read for inspiration. The manuscript can be found in Appendix 7. Next step was to find people who could do the voice-overs, in total four persons were needed, one for each language variety. Once again, because of the lack of extensive financial means,



professionals could not be employed. Hence social networks were used to find suitable people to do the voice-overs. It did not matter as much how the people sounded as long as their voices were similar to each other (see theory on Verbal Guise Technique in the following section). Therefore, the search began broadly and was narrowed down to four people who sounded similar and had the desired accent for each specific language variety. These were four men, John, Carl, Adam and Paul, of which the three former were found within the personal network, and the latter in a social network on Facebook. The recordings of the voice-overs took place in a regular apartment in Copenhagen, but with professional sound-recording equipment. Each person recorded the manuscript several times, and the best parts of each take were edited together to form the final voice-over.

When creating voice-overs in several different languages and accents, with the aim to make them sound as similar as possible, two techniques can be used; *matched guise* or *verbal guise*. Research conducted using the matched guise technique (MGT) can be traced back to the 1960. This technique means that the same text is normally read in different ‘guises’ by the same person in order to avoid variety due to paralinguistic variables such as speech rate, voice pitch etc. The MGT is considered to be effective, elegant and rigorous but it has also been criticized for using decontextualized and unnatural samples of speech. However, it is considered difficult, if not impossible, for a single individual to speak with native-like control over all speech varieties investigated. The authenticity of the attitudes measured is therefore questioned when using the MGT. (Garret, 2010)

Due to the criticism of MGT, the verbal guise technique (VGT) was developed to counter the problems of artificiality and decontextualized character. The subsequent procedure of rating is identical using both approaches, but by applying the VGT, one native speaker is used for each language variety (Garret, 2010), which presents the variety in a genuine way. The stimuli is perceived to be more similar to those in real life and is believed to result in attitudes that are more reliable and authentic. There is however problems using the technique, such as the influence of suprasegmental factors of the speakers. It is believed that differences in for example pitch height, speech rate and voice quality can influence the attitudes and bias the respondents’ ratings. VGT is, however, often used in studies of language attitudes, especially in studies with accents from different countries (Hiraga, 2005; Ladegaard 1998a).

The VGT was the chosen technique in this study for several reasons. Firstly, the time frame was limiting. Ideally one could have tried to find a person who was able to mimic all English accents, as well as the Swedish language flawlessly. This was not considered doable during the time frame of the study. Secondly, even if applying the MGT and thus finding a person who was fluent in all languages, the authenticity of the speaker would have been limited since the languages originate from different countries. By choosing to apply VGT it was possible to select four different speakers with similarities in voice qualities. The advantages of VGT outweighed the disadvantages for the purpose of this study.

---

## 4.2. PREPARING THE STUDY

---

In order to create, test and finalize the web survey a small pre study was conducted. This was an important step to ensure that the questions were perceived and answered correctly, and that the data would provide relevant data for the different topics investigated. A total of 10 respondents aged 16 to 45 were given a list of adjectives that in previous research have been used to measure credibility and brand personality. They were then asked to provide a Swedish translation to all the adjectives, without looking them up or asking for help. The result showed that most words were perceived correctly, but the translations varied somewhat between the respondents. For example, some words were perceived as synonyms when translated while they are actually slightly different from each other in English. It was therefore decided that the survey should be given in Swedish since the target population consisted of Swedes and people speaking Swedish fluently. As such, the questions asked in the empirical study is an adapted version of questions suggested in previous literature. The advantage of everyone in the sample understanding the questions asked, were judged to outweigh the disadvantage of possible small changes in meaning from translating an adjective from English to Swedish. Moreover, focus was put on giving as good translations as possible, only using Nationalencyklopedien's (NE) English-Swedish Dictionary. NE is a knowledge company, started in the 1980's in collaboration with the Swedish government (NE, 2018b) and publishes renowned dictionaries.

When the survey was finalized it examined the respondents' short-term memory, brand perception (source credibility, brand personality and likability), purchase intention and personal facts regarding language. Thus, the survey tested the respondents perceptions and attitudes towards the commercial. The full survey

can be found in Appendix 8 and the reasoning behind the choice of each of the survey components will be discussed below.

#### 4.2.1. QUESTIONS ON ATTENTION

---

In order to unveil any effects of language variety on attention given to the commercial and its message, the short-term memory was tested. Paying attention is a necessary process the consumer must undergo before (s)he can respond to the commercial in terms of brand liking and purchase decision. Even if this study used only standard accents, it is of interest to control for attention effects. Therefore a standard short-term memory test was included in the survey. Short-term memory lasts for up to 20 seconds and is achieved when attention is paid to a sensory stimuli. (Solomon, 2015). Therefore, the respondent could be assumed to have given more attention to the commercial if (s)he has a better short-term memory of it. Because of the short-term memory's small time-span, this element was placed first in the survey, and consumer attention was tested by asking questions about informational pieces of the commercial; what the name was of the advertised brand, and for how long it had existed. Attention was measured by providing fixed answers, out of which one was the correct one. The option "don't know" was also included.

#### 4.2.2. QUESTIONS ON BRAND PERCEPTION

---

##### ***Brand personality***

The first part of the brand perception component of the empirical study was *brand personality*. In order to measure brand personality, Aaker's (1997) Brand Personality Scale was employed. Jennifer Aaker is considered the founder of the brand personality theory and her framework is still, about two decades later, frequently applied (Ahmad & Thyagaraj, 2014). Aaker's brand personality scale is built up by five brand personalities, each containing a number of sub-traits; *sincerity* (down-to-earth, honest, wholesome, cheerful<sup>1</sup>), *excitement* (daring, spirited, imaginative, up-to-date), *competence* (reliable, intelligent, successful), *sophisticated* (upper class, charming) and *ruggedness* (outdoorsy, tough) (Aaker, 1997). In

---

<sup>1</sup> In the *sincerity* personality, the sub-trait *cheerful* was exchanged to *friendly*. This because the direct translation of cheerful to Swedish was considered irrelevant and not being *sincere*. Since friendly, according to Aaker (1997), in turn is a sub-trait to cheerful, this was used in this study.

order to test the brand personality, the respondents were asked about all sub-traits in parentheses above, 15 in total. All traits were measured using a five-point Likert scale (see section 2.4.5.)

### ***Source credibility***

With the logic of brand personality, i.e. that human characteristics can be transferred to a brand (Aaker, 1997), it was of interest to investigate if the concept of *source credibility* could also transmit to a brand. Hence, source credibility was measured as a part of brand perception in the empirical study. Ohanian (1990) suggest that source credibility can be tested through the credibility traits trustworthiness, expertise and physical attractiveness, and the two former have been applied in this study. *Trustworthiness* includes the sub-traits credible, honest, reliable, sincere and trustworthy. As for *expertise*, the traits are expertise, experience, knowledge, qualifications and skill. The last dimension *physical attractiveness*, however, cannot be mimicked since the spokesperson will not be visible in the commercial shown to respondents. This means that Ohanian's (1990) original attractiveness traits can then not be applied. Instead, like many other scholars (Tsalikis et al., 2013) *social attractiveness* is used by measuring the sub-traits friendly, communicate status, humble, cheerful, charming, nice and attractive. All source credibility traits were measured using a five-point Likert scale.

### ***Likability***

Because brand equity implies consumers' favourable associations towards a brand (Kapferer, 2008) it was of interest to test if the different commercials lead to different levels of brand likability. Likability is a subjective view on the brand, and was therefore considered part of the brand perception concept and was tested in the survey by asking the respondent to rate the statement; "I like this brand". The question was measured on a five-point Likert scale.

## **4.2.3. QUESTIONS ON PURCHASE INTENTION**

As Aaker (1991) points out in his book on brand equity, the intangible value of a brand is favourable if it is converted into financial equity and becomes realised profit for the company. This means that brand equity is of little value if it does not affect the bottom-line. In order to see if the choice of language variety in commercials can have a realised financial value for a company, a section of purchase intention was

included in the survey. This element was an adapted form of Ohanian's (1990; 1991) research on source credibility and purchase intention and included the questions; "Is it likely that you would look for more information about this brand?", "Would you consider buying a product of this brand?" and "Would you purchase a product of this brand as a gift?". In addition to these, a question on likelihood of recommendation was added ("Is it likely that you would recommend this brand?"). This because word-of-mouth is easily accessible information, especially considering the emergence online social networks, which can affect consumers purchase decision greatly (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012). All four questions were measured on a five-point Likert scale, although with different measurements (likelihood or level of agreement) to match the wording of the question.

#### 4.2.4. QUESTIONS ON PERSONAL FACTS

---

##### *Relationship to accent*

There were two reasons for testing respondents' relationship to the English accent they listened to. The first, to which most question of the element belonged, tested if familiarity with an accent affected the brand perception. Whether there is a correlation or not has been discussed in previous research on accent and brand perception (Powesland & Giles, 1975; Tsalikis et al., 1991), and so far there is little support for the theory. For example Powesland and Giles (1975) found that standard-accent speakers and non-standard-accent speakers tend to evaluate a message from each respective accent similarly. Tsalikis et al. (1991) did not find enough support for their hypothesis that there would be an interaction between a respondent's rating of an accent and his/her exposure to it. The reason this was included in the questionnaire despite previous research finding little evidence for it, was that preceding papers have compared standard accents with non-standard accents. This study analysed differences between accents/languages that can all be considered as "standard".

The second reason for testing relationships reads stereotypes, which is the theory of people having set and over-simplified pictures of something they do not fully know (Cardwell, 1996). The respondents' stereotypical pictures of the different accents and their country origin were not tested per se, since it was beyond the scope of this study, but the respondents were asked to identify the accent they were exposed to in order to afterwards be able to discuss the result of the empirical study in the light of previous research on stereotypes. The questions in this element were not measured on scales, but the respondent could choose from a fixed set of answers which were mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive (MECE).

The fact that MECE was applied to the measurement was important in order to obtain quality in the answers, since it minimized the risk that the respondents will be in doubt which answer applies to her (Bryman, 2016).

### ***Control facts***

The last part of the empirical study survey was an element of control factors including gender, age, occupation and level of education. Just like with the accent relationship part of the personal fact questions, the control facts were measured using fixed answer developed through the MECE lens.

---

## **4.3. QUALITY OF DATA**

---

### **4.3.1. VALIDITY**

It is important to have a research design that fulfil an accepted level of research quality. Mainly three things are important to consider; validity, reliability and other potential biases. A study shows *validity* if it actually measures what it is supposed to measure. An example could be an IQ test. An IQ test has validity if the test questions really measures intelligence, and not another trait or skill (Bryman, 2016). There are mainly two types of validity; *internal* and *external* validity.

Internal validity looks at whether an observed effect is actually caused by the treatment, and not by another variable. This is difficult to achieve with a cross-sectional research design since, as mentioned above, one can only observe correlations and not causality when the test is only carried out at one single point in time (Bryman, 2016). Still, some actions can be made. In this study, content validity (face validity) and, to some extent, construct validity are applied as measures on how well the study tests the phenomena investigated. *Content validity*, is more of an intuitive process and means the measure reflects the concept concerned in an apparent way. This is more of a judgement by the researcher - do the questions asked reasonably capture the concept investigated? (Ibid.). The data in this study has been considered to show content validity after discussion with peers and a careful research definition based on previous literature. *Construct validity* examines whether the measures used behave like theory suggests it should behave (Bryman, 2016). It answers the question of whether the questions asked actually can be said to measure the desired construct and is a common type of validity measure for attitude scales (Saunders et al., 2016)

such as in this study. One way to secure construct validity is to make an extensive literature review and look at previous research. The idea is that if scholars have previously tested the construct in a similar manner with success, it is likely that this research – if following existing theory and praxis – will show construct validity (Ibid.). Since this research used existing theory to form questions for the empirical study, it is believed to have construct validity. Moreover, Construct validity is related to reliability, meaning that if the data shows reliability in that the subitems of each construct measure the *same* thing, they are likely to also measure the *right* thing (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). As described in section 4.3.2., the primary data in this study shows reliability, which was seen as further proof of the data also being internally valid.

External validity looks at whether any relationship found in a study can be generalised to other situations (Malhotra et al., 2012). External validity is strong when the sample is randomly selected (Bryman, 2016). In this study, a truly random sampling was hard to achieve (read more about the sampling in Section 2.5), but effort has been made in minimising the bias in the sampling, hence improving external validity to the greatest extent possible. More on the generalisability of the result can be read in Section 7.1.

#### 4.3.2. RELIABILITY

---

Reliability is a measure of how replicable and repeatable the results of a study are, meaning that if a study has reliability, the results should be fairly consistent if redoing the study under the same conditions. Looking again at the IQ test example, it can be argued that the test is reliable if respondents with the same IQ perform relatively similar on the test, or if a person who takes the test twice gets about the same points both times. Reliability can be assured by a test-retest method or by looking at internal reliability. The first is rather difficult to accomplish, partly because it is time-consuming and difficult to administer, but also since respondents are often affected by the first test-round when doing their retest-round (Bryman, 2016). In this study the primary data was collected only once. *Internal reliability* was therefore applied. It is useful when having a multiple-item measure where several answers of a respondent is aggregated into one score (Ibid.). In this study, internal reliability was measured using Chronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ). Chronbach's  $\alpha$  measures the consistency among a set of questions to see if they all measure the same construct or concept. It is a coefficient that ranges from 0 (no consistency) to 1 (total consistency). What level is considered good enough is disputed in literature, but a common rule of thumb is that an  $\alpha$  of 0.6 or more

indicate that the sub questions measures the same thing and that there is an adequate level of reliability (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

When testing for reliability in this study, chronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) is calculated for each category of questions; each source credibility and brand personality trait, as well as attention and purchase intention. Each  $\alpha$  is displayed in Table 4.

The results show that the sub questions of the credibility traits trustworthiness, expertise and attractiveness all show good internal consistency. Looking at Aaker's (1997) brand personalities, *sincerity*, *excitement* and *competence* show acceptable consistency ( $\alpha > 0.6$ ). For sophistication and ruggedness, however, the  $\alpha$  is too low to conclude internal consistency among the sub questions. There can however, be two reasons for a low  $\alpha$ ; one is actual low reliability while the other is that only a few sub questions are used to measure consistency. It is namely so, that more sub questions tend to increase the  $\alpha$ , while less sub questions usually decrease it. Since both sophistication and ruggedness only contain two sub-traits, it is a valid question to ask what actually causes the low  $\alpha$ . A subjective judgement of the sub-traits of ruggedness (outdoorsy and tough), suggests that the words are relatively similar and should, at least to some extent measure the same personal quality. This, in combination with the  $\alpha$  being in the higher end of the "not-acceptable" part of the scale, it is likely that the low score is due to few variables rather than low consistency among the two. For sophistication on the other hand, the  $\alpha$  is very low, and the two sub-traits (upper-class and charming) are likely inconsistent. There could be several reasons for this. Firstly, it could be caused by poor translation from English to Swedish, but since careful consideration was taken in the translation process and a renowned English dictionary was used, this was probably not the cause. Other reasons could be that the inherent meaning of any of the two words has changed since Jennifer Aaker developed the Brand Personality Scale in 1997, or it could be that the Brand Personality Scale is not fully applicable on a Swedish population. Because of the criticism the model has received throughout the years, mostly consists of concerns regarding the generalisability of the model to other countries and product categories (see Section

Reliability (Internal Consistency)	
Concept	Chronbach's $\alpha$
Trustworthiness	0.878
Expertise	0.810
Attractiveness	0.809
Sincerity	0.654
Excitement	0.717
Competence	0.739
Sophistication	0.152
Ruggedness	0.495
Attention	0.318
Purchase Intention	0.884

Table 4. The internal consistency of the categories investigated. Measured with Cronbach's alpha.



3.1.2.) this is most likely the cause behind the low consistency. This means that the traits upper-class and charming are, to a Swedish audience, not considered to describe the same type of personality.

The results further shows that attention has low internal consistency. This is a peculiar result since both sub question of the concept (name of brand and years it has existed) are fact based questions, said in the same sentence of the commercial and asked in the same section of the survey. This could mean that the low  $\alpha$  is, like discussed above, the result of too few sub questions (only two). Another reason could be that numbers are usually harder to remember since they are purely abstract, compared to words to which we can attach meaning (The Memory Institute, n.d.). The number of years the brand has existed might therefore, in contrast to the brand name, be hard to remember. For the concept of purchase intention, however, the internal consistency is good. This support the choice of adding the question “Is it likely that you would recommend this brand” to Ohanian’s (1990; 1991) original element of questions. To overcome potentially low reliability in two of the 10 concepts (sophistication and attention), the sub question to these concepts are analysed separate from each other.

## 5. DATA PROCESSING

*The following chapter describes the procedure and techniques of the processing and analysis of the data. Choice of statistical software, data cleansing and coding, as well as creation of variables are topics discussed in detail, followed by the statistical process of analysing the data.*

---

### 5.1. CHOICE OF SOFTWARE

---

In order to conduct the survey the Ramboll’s software SurveyXact was chosen. The main reason behind the choice was that it was provided for free through Copenhagen Business School. Moreover, the program offered all functions needed, such as convertibility to statistics program, possibility to insert a video in the survey, and the ability to randomize respondents into the four different test groups (based on language varieties).

For the statistical analysis, SPSS was chosen. This programme was chosen for two reasons. Firstly, it was considered to have all features needed to conduct a proper statistical analysis. Secondly, it was the

statistics program in which the researchers had the most experience. Therefore, it was assessed to be the best choice in terms of conducting the analysis quickly and error-free.

## 5.2. DATA CLEANSING

In order to get data of the best quality possible, three steps of data cleansing was carried out (See Figure 10). This meant eliminating respondents whose answers were perceived either to be irrelevant for the study or to be affecting the quality of the data set in a negative way. The survey was distributed to a total of 1,918 respondents, out of which 415 respondents were included in the analysis of the study. Firstly, 7 respondents were considered not relevant due to not being in the target population (did not match the predefined criteria of age and language proficiency) and were thus removed. Secondly, 79 respondents were excluded due to incomplete entry of data or inconsistency in their answers. If not the full survey was filled out it was assumed that the respondent inattentive to the questions or found the survey tiring.

Furthermore, the adjectives of 'sincere' and 'honest' served as control questions of consistency. Since they are both words under 'Sincere' in Aaker's brand personality model, and considered correlated, respondents with an interval larger than two (out of the 5-point Likert Scale) in these characteristics were expurgated from the study, since these respondents were not considered contributing and reliable for the study. Respondents clearly unwilling to conduct the survey, such as only ticking the boxes in the same line, were also excluded due to inconsistency. The second step of data cleansing was carried out since the quality of the data otherwise could have been affected.

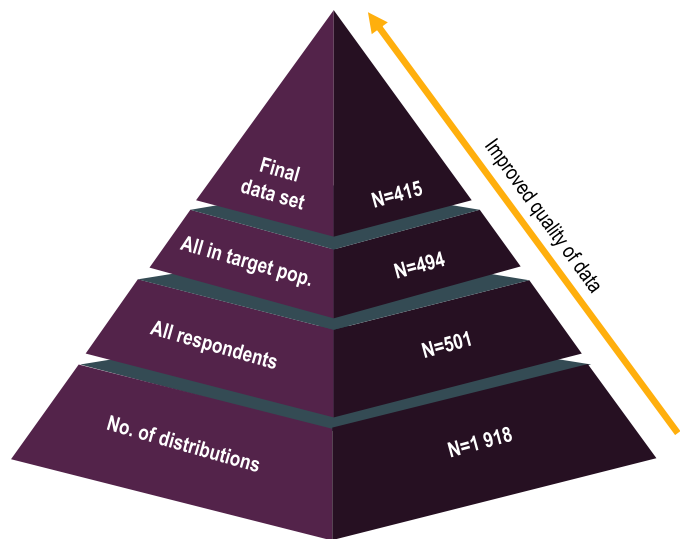


Figure 10. Data cleansing. The final data set was the sample being analysed.

---

### 5.3. DATA CODING

---

In order to keep track of all variables and to simplify the understanding of the results, the data was coded following a structured scheme. A list of the important variable names for this study can be found in Appendix 9. Simply put, all qualitative variables were to the greatest extent possible coded into the same variable name as the information it contained, e.g. “gender” → ”gender”, “age” → ”age” etc. Where this was not feasible, often due to the length of the word, the variable was coded into shorter version of the information it described, e.g. “English proficiency” → “engprof”. For scale items, i.e. the concepts that are built up by two or more sub questions, were coded so the first part of the variable name revealed its closest over-category. This means that source credibility was coded “credibility”, its sub category trustworthiness was coded “cred\_tru” and the trustworthiness sub-trait reliable was coded “tru\_reli”. In terms of coding answers to the questions, names were given to answer choices of normative question (e.g. the answers to the question “Do you watch movies, TV series, or other video media in British English?” was coded into its actual answers “yes, every day”, “never” etc.). Answers to ordinal scale questions on the other hand are coded as numbers (e.g. answers to the question “I perceive this brand as credible” have been coded into the numbers 1-5, since the question was measured on a five-point Likert scale). This enables extraction of means and other important statistics.

---

### 5.4. VARIABLE CREATION

---

In order to do the proper data analysis for the hypotheses, some variables had to be transformed or created. Especially two types of variable conversion were commonly generated, which are described below.

#### *Dummy variables*

The first type was *dummy variables*. A dummy variable is an “either-or” variable of which you categorize all responses into two groups (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). In this study five dummy variables were created. The first one was for what language the respondent listened to [language], where the responses of all three English commercials were combined, i.e. a dummy variable with the answers “English” or “Swedish”. The second and third are dummy variables were used to check whether the respondents either speak the same English accent as they have listened to, or the same English accent as they believe they have listened to [acc\_lang; acc\_org]. These dummies were created in order to test H6 and aimed at answering whether one rates the commercial more favourably if one’s accent matches the accent one has listened to. The

fourth and fifth dummy variables were conversions of the attention variables (i.e. memory of name and year) [atn\_n\_dm; atn\_y\_dm]. These were transformed from having several answers to being “right-or-wrong” questions, where all wrong response alternatives were combined into a single “incorrect answer”.

### ***Combined variables***

The other common variable type, *computed variables*, was the overall variable of a certain concept. The new variable was the mean of several others, e.g. [cred\_tru] constitutes of the mean score of all five sub-traits within the credible trait “trustworthiness”). In total, 11 combined variables were created; one for source credibility, three for each credibility trait, five for the brand personality traits, one for attention and one for purchase intention. In addition to dummy and combined variables, a few other variables were computed in order to be able to carry out the desired statistical analysis. These will however not be discussed in detail.

---

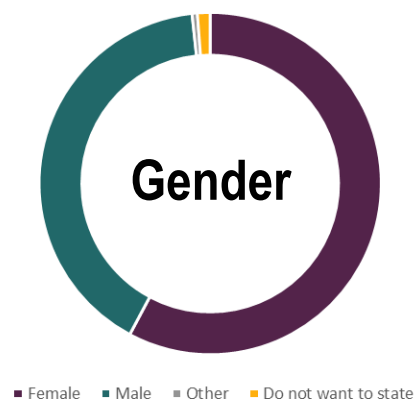
## **5.5. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SAMPLE**

---

A total of 415 responses were deemed relevant for the study. Due to the different language varieties being randomly distributed to the survey takers, the responses were almost evenly distributed among the four language varieties ( $103 \leq n \leq 105$ ). This means that the sampling goal of 400 responses, divided evenly among the four groups, was reached. As such, the sample size was considered large enough to draw valid conclusions from. The differences in demographics within the sample is displayed below. It should be noted that it was tested whether the demographic differences affected the result of the hypothesis testing. Only very few and minor differences were discovered which means they could be disregarded. Hence, they will not be further analysed in following chapters.

### ***Demographics***

The sample contains slightly more women than men, even though it is still within a decent 40-60 percent range (women: 57.8%, men: 40.5%, other/do not want to state: 1.7%), see Figure 11. There is also a good mix in educational level (high school: 46.5%, university: 53.5%). Even though none of the respondents stated they belonged to the lowest education group, i.e.



*Figure 11. Distribution of respondents by gender.*

secondary school, the sample is considered a good reflection of the Swedish population (Statistics Sweden, 2016).

The sample is, however, skewed towards younger respondents (16-25: 69.8%, 26-35: 22.9%, 36-45: 7.3%), see Figure 12. This is likely a consequence of choosing convenience sample as the sampling method. Since the researchers are students within the two lower age groups, it was difficult to reach people in the age group of 36-45 year-olds. This is also reflected in the skewed distribution of occupation (working: 29.4%, studying: 69.6%, other: 1.0%). Should the sample perfectly reflect the Swedish population it should be about the same amount of respondents in each age group and about a split-half distribution between workers and students. The age and occupation distributions are not likely to have an immense effect on the result, but should regardless be kept in mind when evaluating the results of the study. Moreover, in retrospective, the age categorization should probably have been carried out differently. The logic behind the current categorization was to have equally large age spans. However, there is probably big differences between the younger and older poles of the lowest age span (16-25). While 16-year-olds are teenager in secondary school, 25-year-olds are grown-ups in university or working. A more proper grouping would probably have been to divide this group in two, or completely disregard people under 18 in the sample.

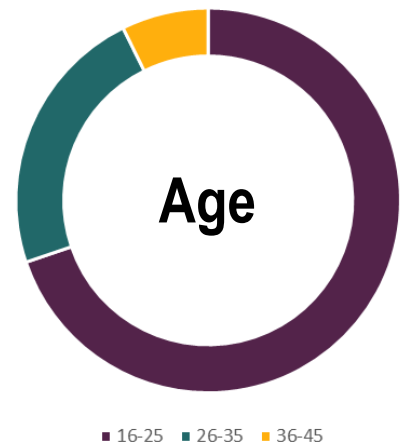


Figure 12. Distribution of respondents by age group.

### Language

Close to all respondents spoke Swedish as their mother tongue (Swedish: 94.7%, English: 0.5%, Both English and Swedish: 1.7%, Other: 3.1%). Among those who watched one of the English commercials, all except from one stated that they understood at least parts of the commercial (understood fully: 76.8%, understood partly: 23.2). As can be seen in Figure 13, the self-rated English proficiency was high (fluent: 52.3%, very good: 33.6%, good: 10.5%, basic: 2.3%, poor: 0.3%), and even though self-ratings should always be analysed with

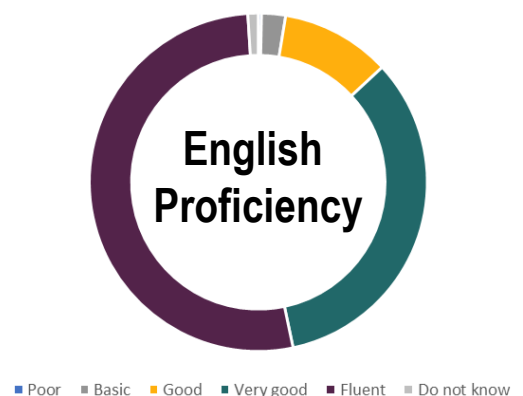


Figure 13. Distribution of respondents by self-perceived English proficiency.

care, the result is considered to confirm EF's English Proficiency Index of Sweden being a country of high proficiency (EF, 2017). Moreover, a clear majority stated that they speak English with an American accent (American: 50.4%, British: 10.8%, Australian: 1.4%, Other/Do not know: 12.5%). Note that all questions about English (except from that on mother tongue) were only posed to people who watched one of the English commercials and the sample size is therefore smaller (n=312).

---

## 5.6. STATISTICAL TESTS USED FOR ANALYSIS

---

*Several statistical test have been carried out in order to test the hypotheses and thereby answer the research question. It is important to choose the correct statistical tests to make sure that the data is comparable and consistent and thus can measure correlations in a reliable way. The statistical tests used in this study are explained in the following section.*

### 5.6.1. KRUSKAL-WALLIS ONE-WAY ANOVA

---

The common procedure when testing if three or more groups differ from each other is to use a one-way analysis of variance (i.e. one-way ANOVA). However, that test can only be applied on metric data, meaning the measurement scale should at least be on an interval level (Saunders et al., 2016). In this study, most items were measured on a Likert scale, which is by nature an ordinal level scale (Ibid.). Ordinal level of measurement means that the answers of a question can be ranked relative to each other, but the distance between two points of the scale are not necessarily equally large (Bryman, 2016). For example, the difference between “partly agree” and “degree to a large extent” might not be of the same magnitude as the difference between “degree to a large extent” and “fully agree”, even though everyone can settle on that the latter answer is greater than the first. The ordinal scale is on a lower level of measurement than the interval scale and the data is of non-parametric nature (Ibid.). Therefore, the one-way ANOVA had to be replaced by the Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA (Kruskal-Wallis H test) (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Just like the regular one-way ANOVA, the Kruskal-Wallis test compares two or more independent samples, but does so for non-parametric data. The Kruskal-Wallis test examines the difference in means and tests whether there is a difference among the test groups, i.e. an omnibus difference. The Kruskal-Wallis test produces a statistic called *H-statistic*, which has a chi-square distribution (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). It should be noted, that the Kruskal-Wallis test in itself does not reveal which test group(s) differ from the other(s). To test this, a Dunn-Bonferroni post-hoc test was added to the analysis. This revealed

how the test groups were individually related and also generated an adjusted significance level for each one-on-one comparison. This study had four different test groups, i.e. the four language varieties, which were independent from each other. Moreover, many of the questions were rated on an ordinal scale. Therefore, the Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA was the most frequently applied test in this study, and is used to test H1, H2, H3, H5 and part of H4. See Figure 14 for logic.



Figure 10. Steps towards deciding on Kruskal-Wallis as statistical test.

### 5.6.2. CHI-SQUARE TEST FOR INDEPENDENCE

The chi-square test for independence was used to test statistical significance for a certain relationship between two variables. It is a proper test to use when you want to test the association between *two categorical/nominal variables*, i.e. variables that cannot be ranked but are rather of qualitative nature (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). In this study, that was the case when testing H6. For H6 it was tested whether there is a relationship between language variety and *attention* paid to the commercial, hence two categorical variables were compared and the chi-square test for independence was applied. The chi-square statistic, however, does only tell that an association likely exist – it does not tell how strong this association is. To get the magnitude of the association one must look at the *phi* ( $\Phi$ ) or *Cramer's V*. Both statistics measures the *effect size* on a scale from 0 to 1 (low to high variable association). There is a slight difference between the two statistics in terms of what is considered a small, medium or large effect size. But other than that, the only difference is that *phi* is used for 2 by 2 tables (such as when looking at language, i.e. English vs Swedish) while *Cramer's V* measures effect size of larger tables (for example when looking at the three different English accents) (Pallant, 2007, p. 217). See Figure 15 for logic.

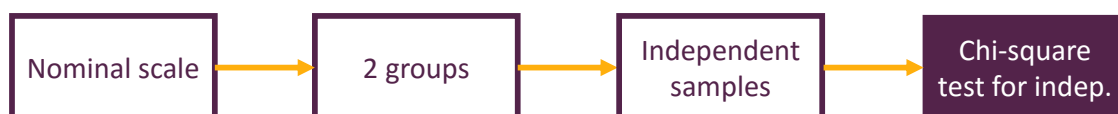


Figure 15. Steps towards deciding on Chi-square test for independence as statistical test.

### 5.6.3. KENDALL'S RANK-ORDER CORRELATION

In order to test H4, one must look for a relationship and not just explore the presence of a difference. When having non-parametric data, like in this study, *Kendall's rank-order correlation tau* ( $\tau$ ) is used as a statistic on the relationship between variables (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Usually, for non-parametric data, Spearman's rho ( $\rho$ ) is used, but this data set contains a lot of tied ranks, and in such cases Kendall's tau is considered more appropriate. Tied ranks is the consequence of having a large number of cases that fall into a small number of categories, e.g. many respondents but few possible answer alternatives (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Kendall's tau was used in this study to test whether *likability* of the brand correlates with the number of visits to a country as well as with the frequency in which a respondent watch any media in the any of the language varieties. Since the answers to these questions consisted of only a few categories (e.g. "every day", "every week" etc.), and therefore was subject to many ties, Kendall's tau was considered the most appropriate statistic for this part of the hypotheses testing. See Figure 16 for logic.



Figure 16. Steps towards deciding on Kendall's tau as statistical test.

### 5.6.4. SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL AND P-VALUE

In statistics, it is not enough to say that a pattern or difference is found in the data. One must also state how likely it is that this pattern exists for real in the population and is not just a coincidental pattern in the particular sample tested. This is done by looking at *significance level*. The significance level can stretch from 0-100% (0-1) and is the probability that the pattern in the data occur by chance alone. A significance level of 5% (meaning there is a 5% probability that the pattern in the data occurs only by chance) is usually the "accepted" level. A significance of 1% is considered very good (very likely the pattern is real and not a coincidence). A significance level of 10% can also be acceptable but should be interpreted with care. In this study it has been pointed out specifically if a result is confirmed only on a 10% significance level. In hypothesis testing, significance level is displayed through the p-value (probability value). A  $p \leq 0.01$  indicate that one can assume the result is real on a 1% significance level. With the same logic,  $p \leq 0.05$  and  $p \leq 0.1$  correspond to a significance level of 5% and 10% respectively. (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Saunders et al., 2016)



A descriptive summary of the statistical tests and concepts used to analyse the collected data follows in Table 5.

Symbol	Name	Explanation
$p$	p-value (probability value)	Comparable to significance value – indicate the likelihood of a result occurring by chance
$\tau$	Kendall's rank-order correlation tau	A test statistic that indicates the relationship between two variables
$\rho$	Spearman's rho	A test statistic similar to Kendall's tau, but for samples without tied ranks
$\Phi$	Phi	Measure of effect size (i.e. level of association) between variables, when comparing two groups
$V$	Cramer's V	Measure of effect size (i.e. level of association) between variables, when comparing more than two groups

Table 5. Explanation of statistical concepts and symbols.

## 6. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

*This chapter starts by presenting the results of the six hypotheses tested, along with analyses of the outcomes. Note that when talking about differences between the languages and accents it is implied that there is a difference in the perception from the commercials in the different language varieties. That means that if it says that there is a difference between British and Australian, it is not a difference between these accent per se, but a difference in perceptions and opinions about the brand depending on if the commercial shown was in British or Australian. The second part of the chapter discuss what managerial implications the results have. In the end of the chapter the research question is answered and a summarizing picture of the results (Table 16) is presented.*

### 6.1. HYPOTHESIS TESTING

*The following sections present the results and analysis of the hypothesis testing. When applicable, the hypotheses have been separated into two sub-hypotheses comparing languages and accents separately. An overall assessment of the sub-hypotheses results in each main hypothesis being accepted or rejected and a collective analysis follows. A list of hypotheses and their significances can be found in Appendix 10. Appendix 11 displays the statistical results from SPSS.*

*Together, the results of the hypothesis testing are used to answer the first part of the research question, i.e. “How does the choice of language variety used in video commercials affect the perception of, and attitude towards, brands in Sweden”.*

### 6.1.1. H1: THE COMMERCIALS COMMUNICATE DIFFERENT BRAND PERSONALITIES

---

In order to test if the respondents perceive the personality of the advertised brand differently depending on the language variety used in the commercial, a Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA was used in combination with a Dunn-Bonferroni post hoc test. The test was carried out for each personality separately and also for each sub-trait. Since the personality *sophistication* showed internal inconsistency in the reliability test, this variable was not analysed in its combined form, instead its sub-traits, *upper-class* and *charm* were tested separately.

#### *Swedish vs English commercial*

In order to test whether consumers perceive different brand personalities depending on if they see a commercial in English or in Swedish, the following hypothesis was tested:

*H1a: The Swedish commercial communicates a brand personality different from the English commercials*

Testing Aaker's (1997) five brand personalities, reveals that the perception differs only for one personality, namely *competence* where a brand is perceived as more competent if the commercial is in English ( $p=0.035$ ). Even though only one trait displays a difference in brand personality this is still evidence that **the Swedish commercial creates a brand personality different from the English commercials**. This means that **H1a is supported**. A presentation of the results can be found in Figure 17 and Table 6.

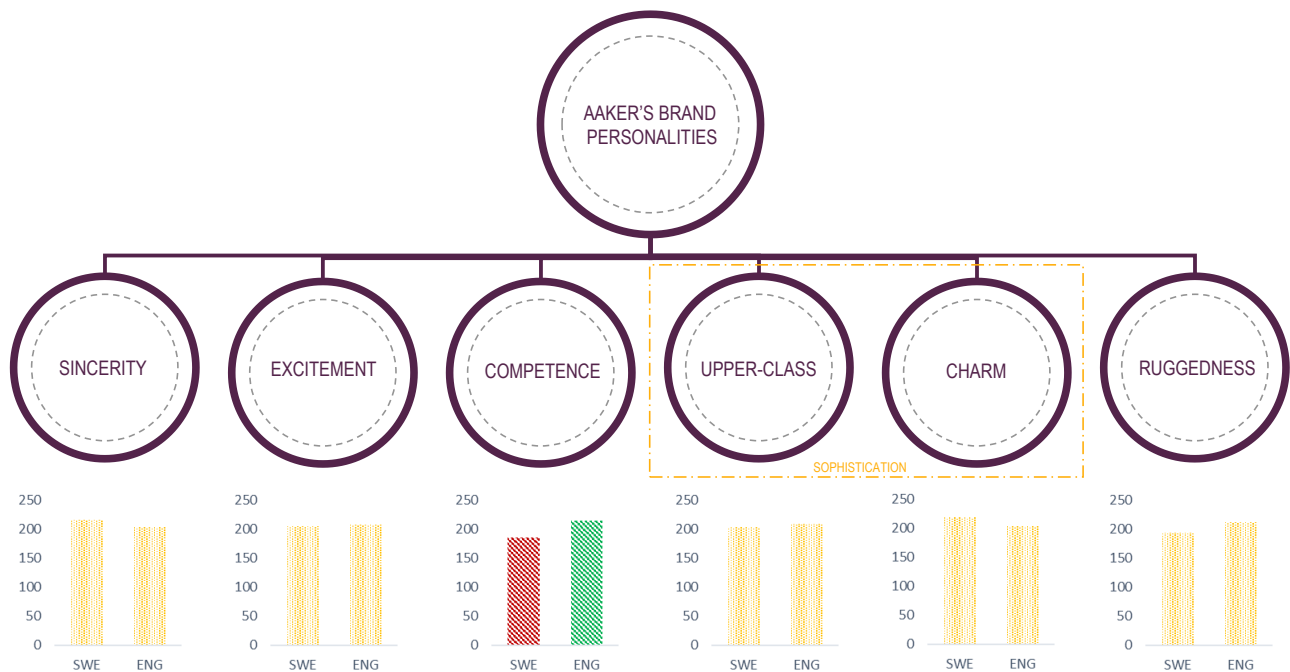


Figure 17. Comparison of languages in terms of brand personality. Y-axis showing Kruskal-Wallis mean rank value.

- Significantly higher than the other language
- Significantly lower than the other language
- Not significantly different from the other language

SWEDISH COMMERCIAL	
BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Sincerity	●
Excitement	●
Competence	●
Upper-class	●
Charm	●
Ruggedness	●

ENGLISH COMMERCIALS	
BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Sincerity	●
Excitement	●
Competence	●
Upper-class	●
Charm	●
Ruggedness	●

Table 6. Display of what trait perceptions the languages evoke.

- Significantly higher than the other language
- Significantly lower than the other language
- Not significantly different from the other language

## Different English accents

In order to test whether consumers get a different perception of brand personality depending on the English accent spoken in the commercial, the following hypothesis was tested:

*H1b: At least one of the English commercials creates a brand personality different from the others*

It turns out that there are differences between the accents for all five brand personalities (if *sophistication* is separated into its two sub-traits *upper-class* and *charm*). British is considered more *sincere* than Australian ( $p=0.037$ ) and the same goes for the sophistication sub-trait *charm* ( $p<0.001$ ) for which British also scores higher than American ( $p=0.039$ ). For the other sophistication sub-trait *upper-class*, British scores lower than both Australian ( $p=0.003$ ) and American ( $p=0.001$ ). When it comes to *excitement*, American is rated higher than Australian ( $p=0.002$ ) and American is also considered more *competent* than Australian ( $p=0.001$ ). Lastly looking at *ruggedness*, Australian is perceived as more rugged than American ( $p=0.014$ ). An overview of the differences can be found in Table 7.

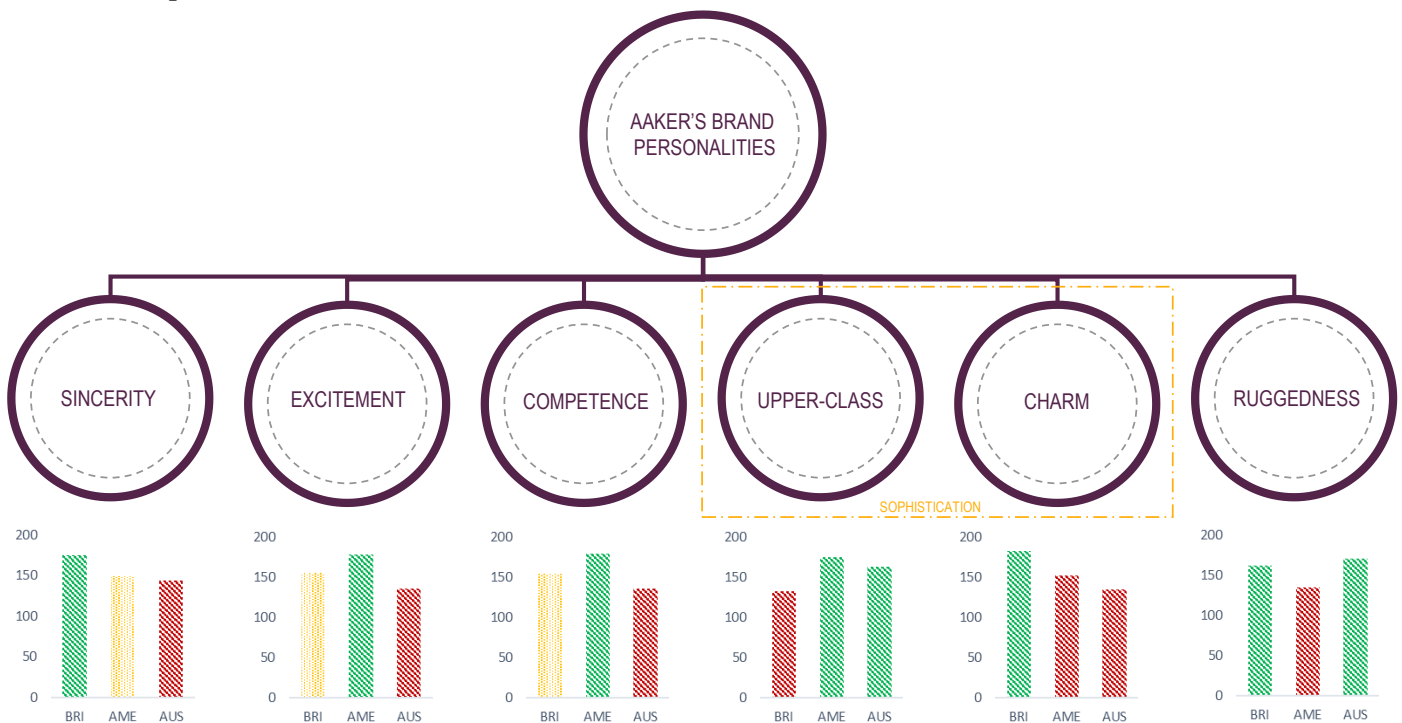


Figure 18. Comparison of accents in terms of brand personality. Y-axis showing Kruskal-Wallis mean rank value.

- Significantly higher than at least one other accent
- Significantly lower than at least one other accent
- Not significantly different from the other accents

It can be concluded that **H1b is supported because there is evidence that the different accents result in varying brand personalities.** A presentation of the results can be found in Figure 18 and Table 7.

BRITISH COMMERCIAL		AMERICAN COMMERCIAL		AUSTRALIAN COMMERCIAL	
BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT	SIGN. DIFFERENCE	BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT	SIGN. DIFFERENCE	BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Sincerity	●	Sincerity	●	Sincerity	●
Excitement	●	Excitement	●	Excitement	●
Competence	●	Competence	●	Competence	●
Upper-class	●	Upper-class	●	Upper-class	●
Charm	●	Charm	●	Charm	●
Ruggedness	●	Ruggedness	●	Ruggedness	●

Table 7. Display of what trait perceptions the accents evoke.

- Significantly higher than at least one other accent
- Significantly lower than at least one other accent
- Not significantly different from the other accents

**Conclusion: H1 is supported because there is evidence for differences in perceived brand personality between the different commercials.**

### Analysis H1

From the results above it can be concluded that the different language varieties used in the commercial elicit different brand personalities, both when comparing Swedish and English as well as when comparing British, American and Australian accents. The differences are fewer when comparing Swedish and English, with *competence* being the only brand personality trait in which a difference is found, implying that Swedish is considered less competent compared to English. Previous research suggest that a standard accent is more likely to be perceived as competent compared to a non-standard accent (Tsalikis et al., 1991; Reinares-Lara et al., 2016). With the assumption that Swedish is more standard than English for a Swedish population, this would mean that Swedish should be perceived as more competent. The results found are rather the opposite and it can be questioned to what extent the concept of accent standardness

can be applied in this study. It can, on the other hand also be the result of investigating a different population or brands instead of spokespersons. The subject is discussed more later in this chapter.

When comparing the three different English accents with each other, differences are found in all five personality traits. This means that the American accent recalled associations that were more related to being *competent* and *exciting* than did the Australian accent, and more *upper-class* than did the British accent. Comparing to what other researchers have found regarding stereotypes upon hearing accents, the American brand personality traits found in this study equate the previous literature since both this and previous research emphasize the competent and exciting brand personality types. Moreover, the result supports the estimation of American being the more standard accent of the three accents tested, since previous research suggest standard accents to be rated as more competent than non-standard accents (Tsalikis et al., 1991; Reinares-Lara et al., 2016). The British accent on the other hand, is perceived as more *sincere* than the Australian accent, and more *charming* than both other English accents. The British accent was expected to convey *sophistication* and *competence* (Kreuger, 1996; Ladegaard, 1998), but was rather rated significantly higher than the other accents on *sincerity*. Instead, British scored lower than both other accents in terms of *upper-class*. The fact that British in this study is perceived as less upper-class than the other accents is however different from previous findings and contradicts the expectations. Even though the forecast that British would be perceived as more upper-class is somewhat subjective, it is an idea that has support among many researchers who claim that Received Pronunciation (i.e. the standard British used in this study) is often perceived as posh (Ashton & Shepherd 2013). However, the sophistication sub-trait *charming* was clearly higher for the British accent. Therefore, despite scoring low on *upper-class*, the *sophistication* personality is partly supported. Australian is perceived as more *rugged* than the other accents, which was expected from the previous research on stereotypes. Australian was also expected to be perceived as *sincere* (Ladegaard, 1998). This was however not the case.

The differences in perceived brand personality is likely a result of the respondents' *associative networks*, which means that when they are exposed to a certain language variety, they elicit associations which they further allocate to the brand being advertised (Solomon, 2015). Why these associations occur is not tested in this study, but possible explanations can be found in previous research. For example, it is believed that the spoken language is enough to create associations to a brand (Bennet & Loken, 2008). This because the stimulus of an accent can evoke stereotypes, which consists of opinions and generalisations about people speaking that particular accent, which has been stored in our memory and is aroused when hearing

that particular accent (Bruce, 2010). The reason stereotypes can transfer to brands when hearing an accent is because linguistic cues is an important factor when determining the brand's origin (Usunier, 2011), and the perceived brand origin is one of the most influential factors affecting brand attitudes (Magnusson et al., 2011). If this logic is correct, the population in this study should have associative networks in which they have stored *American* as competent, exciting and upper-class, *British* as sincere and charming and *Australian* as rugged. These associations are connected to the accent and when seeing and hearing the commercial, the associations are part in forming the *brand image* and conclusively the *brand personality*.

Why the results found in this study do not fully accord with previous research on stereotypes can depend on a couple of factors. Firstly, the research on stereotypes used as a reference in this study cannot be seen as generalisable to all populations. Since this study, compared to previous studies on stereotypes, was conducted only on a Swedish audience, the cultural associations towards countries and languages may be different. Hence, the stereotypes a Swedish population perceives are not necessarily the same as for the previously tested populations. Another reason could be that previous research on stereotypes is concerned with spokesperson and not brand. The differences in result might be explained by the stereotypes not being fully transferable to brands. What stereotypes the respondents apply to the different brands is however a subordinate analysis since the aim of the study was not to find absolute personality score of the different language varieties, but rather to find possible differences between the them.

#### 6.1.2. H2: THE COMMERCIALS COMMUNICATE DIFFERENT LEVELS OF SOURCE CREDIBILITY

Source credibility consist of several credibility traits; *trustworthiness*, *expertise* and *attractiveness* (Ohanian, 1990; 1991). These were all tested for separately, alongside the combined variable *credibility*. A Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA was used for all tests, and a Dunn-Bonferroni test helped identify the direction of the differences.

##### *Swedish vs English commercial*

In order to test whether consumers consider the brand less or more credible depending on if they see a commercial in English or in Swedish, the following hypothesis was tested:

*H2a: The Swedish commercial communicates a source credibility level different from the English commercials*

Because source credibility consist of several traits, multiple sub-hypotheses are tested to form an overall conclusion (see Table 8). Firstly, the overall concept of source credibility is tested, but no difference between the languages can be seen. Looking at the credibility traits, however, reveals a couple of differences. While *trustworthiness* is the same for the two languages, the brand is perceived to possess greater *expertise* if the spokesperson in the commercial speaks English rather than Swedish ( $p=0.006$ ). Looking at the last credibility trait, *attractiveness*, the result show that the brand is perceived as more attractive if the commercial is in Swedish compared to when it is in English ( $p=0.003$ ).



Figure 19. Comparison of languages in terms of source credibility. Y-axis showing Kruskal-Wallis mean rank value.

- Significantly higher than the other language
- Significantly lower than the other language
- Not significantly different from the other language



From the above result, **H2a is not supported**. The two languages are perceived credible in different ways (i.e. Swedish being attractive and English being competent), but **none of the two languages can be seen to be more credible than another on an overall level**. A presentation of the results can be found in Figure 19 and Table 8.

SWEDISH COMMERCIAL		ENGLISH COMMERCIALS	
BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT	SIGN. DIFFERENCE	BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Source credibility	●	Source credibility	●
Trustworthiness	●	Trustworthiness	●
Expertise	●	Expertise	●
Attractiveness	●	Attractiveness	●

Table 8. Display of what credibility perceptions the languages evoke.

- Significantly higher than the other language
- Significantly lower than the other language
- Not significantly different from the other language

### ***Different English accents***

In order to test whether consumers get a different perception of source credibility depending on the English accent spoken in the commercial, the following hypothesis was tested:

*H2b: At least one of the English commercials communicates a source credibility level different from the other(s)*

Just as when testing H2a, multiple sub-hypotheses were created in order to detect potential differences in the traits of source credibility (See Table 9). The results show a difference in overall credibility between the accents ( $p=0.031$ ). Going into the Dunn-Bonferroni post-hoc test, i.e. the pairwise comparison of the different accents, it turns out that it is Australian that is less credible than British ( $p=0.072$ ) and American ( $p=0.061$ ). The pairwise differences can, however, only be confirmed on a 10% significance level. Taking a closer look at the credibility traits, there is a difference in *trustworthiness* in terms of American being

more trustworthy than Australian ( $p=0.001$ ). While there is no difference in *expertise*, the commercials result in different levels of attractiveness with British being more attractive than Australian ( $p=0.021$ ).

It can be concluded that **H2b is supported**, however only on a 10% significance level. Except from for the trait *expertise*, **there are differences in source credibility depending on what accent is used in the commercial**. A presentation of the results can be found in Figure 20 and Table 9.

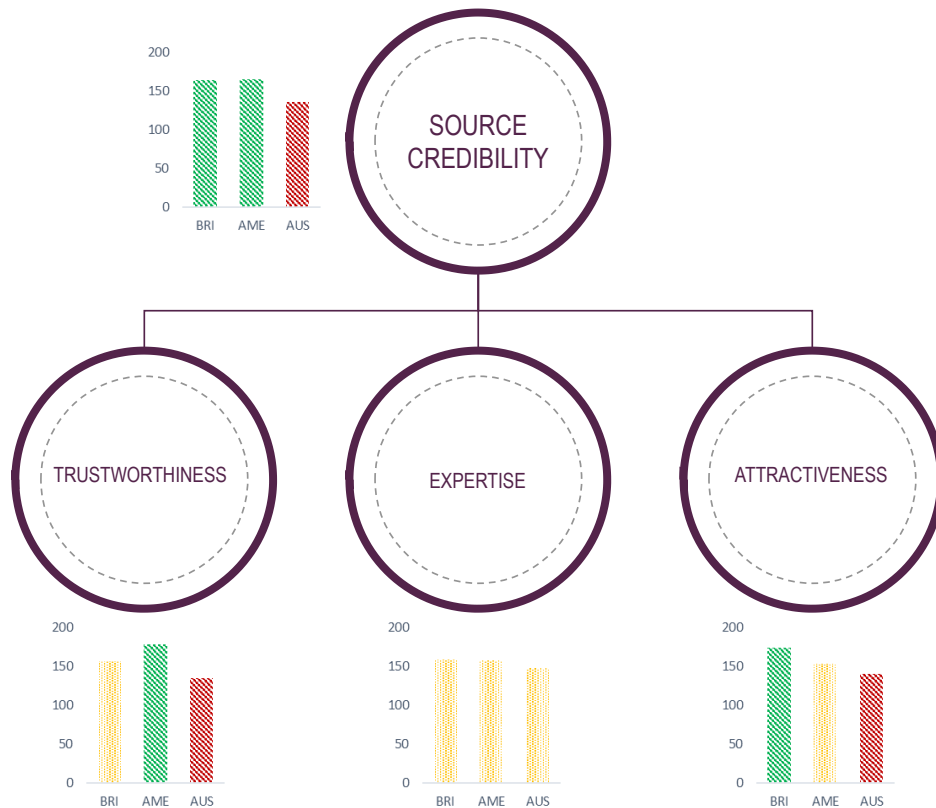


Figure 20. Comparison of accents in terms of source credibility. Y-axis showing Kruskal-Wallis mean rank value.

- Significantly higher than at least one other accent
- Significantly lower than at least one other accent
- Not significantly different from the other accents

BRITISH COMMERCIAL		AMERICAN COMMERCIAL		AUSTRALIAN COMMERCIAL	
BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT	SIGN. DIFFERENCE	BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT	SIGN. DIFFERENCE	BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Source credibility	●	Source credibility	●	Source credibility	●
Trustworthiness	●	Trustworthiness	●	Trustworthiness	●
Expertise	●	Expertise	●	Expertise	●
Attractiveness	●	Attractiveness	●	Attractiveness	●

Table 9. Display of what credibility perceptions the accents evoke.

- Significantly higher than at least one other accent
- Significantly lower than at least one other accent
- Not significantly different from the other accents

**Conclusion: H2 is supported because there is evidence for differences in source credibility between the different English commercials. There is however no evidence for difference in source credibility between Swedish and English.**

### *Analysis H2*

Even though H2a is not supported and no difference is found in overall credibility when comparing Swedish and English, some interesting results can be discussed. For example, the result that expertise is rated higher for the English commercials is consistent with the result on brand personality, saying that English is perceived as more competent, since “expertise” and “competence” are actually synonyms. While the Brand Personality Scale is proven applicable on brands (Aaker, 1997), the concept of Source Credibility (Ohanian, 1990; 1991) is not. The fact that results of the two concepts show coherence, supports the use of source credibility traits as descriptions of brands. Moreover, Birch & McPhail (1999) explain that the domestic accent (Australian in their study) is perceived more favourably than the foreign accents (American and British), this result is to some extent supported in this study since Swedish is perceived as more socially attractive. The fact that Swedish is considered more attractive is also consistent with Cialdini’s (2010) research that people tend to favour things that are similar to themselves.

H2b is however supported and differences in credibility is found comparing the different English accents, since Australian is perceived less credible than both British and American. American is particularly rated higher on the trait trustworthiness while British is perceived as being more attractive. The differences found in source credibility are, just like for brand personality, a result of the associative networks that are stimulated by the stimulus of an accent (Heding et al., 2016). What is associated with the accents is likely a result of the preconceptions the individuals have with the countries from which they perceive the spokesperson is from, since linguistic cues are the key determinants when determining the perceived brand origin (Usunier, 2011). What nationalities are considered credible is subjective. Other indications of source credibility is the standardness of the accent spoken (Tsalikis et al., 2013), whereas a standard accent generally results in higher source credibility in general and especially when it comes to expertise and trustworthiness (Reinares-Lara et al., 2016). Looking beyond accent standardness, Birch and McPhail (1999) suggest that hearing a spokesperson speaking the domestic language should result in a higher rated credibility. Even though Birch and McPhail’s study is conducted on an Australian population, comparing

different English accents, indications can be made to this study in which Swedish should be perceived as being more credible. Following the logic of Reinares-Lara (2016) and Birch and McPhail (1999), Swedish should have been rated higher than English in terms of credibility, since it is the domestic language and thus standard. This means that the results of this study contradicts previous research. One reason could be that previous studies too naïvly generalise their tested accent to being standard. Another explanatory factor could be that other advertised products were tested and on another audience. If assuming the results of Reinares-Lara et al. (2016) were applicable on this study concerning the three different English accents, it would mean that American should be considered more credible. This turns out to hold true (at least compared to Australian) and the discrepancies from previous literature might not be as big as it first seemed.

### 6.1.3. H3: THE COMMERCIALS EVOKE DIFFERENT LEVELS OF LIKABILITY

---

Sometimes one does not have to make it more complicated than to ask straight forward what people think. After all, all companies want their brands to be liked, or else there is not much of brand equity. For this reason it was tested whether the language variety in the commercial affects the likability of the brand. For this purpose, the following two sub-hypotheses were formed:

*H3a: The Swedish commercial evokes a brand likability different from the English commercials*

*H3b: At least one of the English commercials evokes higher brand likability than the others*

A Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA was used to test both hypotheses. The results show that brand *likability* differ depending on the language used in the commercial, with English creating higher brand likability than Swedish ( $p=0.026$ ). In contrast, there are no differences among the English accents, meaning that the brand seems equally likable independent of what English accent is spoken. This leads to **H3a being supported, while H3b is not supported.**

**Conclusion: H3 is supported because there is evidence for the commercials creating different levels of brand likability. This difference is however only visible at language level, not accent level. A presentation of the results can be found in Figure 21**

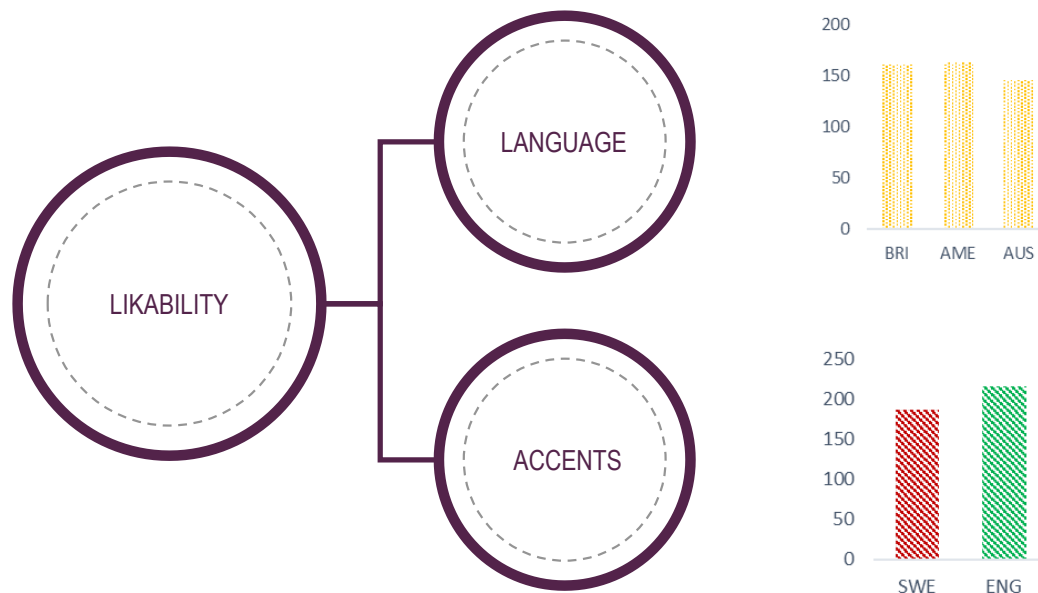


Figure 21. Comparison of languages and accents in terms of likability. Y-axis showing Kruskal-Wallis mean rank value.

- Significantly higher than the other language
- Significantly lower than the other language
- Not significantly different from the other accents

### Analysis H3

Previous literature points in different directions when it comes to how accents affect likability. Birch and McPhail (1999), Cialdini (2010) and Worchel et al. (1998) all indicate higher likability towards the domestic accent, since we tend to like individuals that are similar to ourselves. This logic should translate into the Swedish commercial being more liked than the English ones. The same goes for Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983) research on country of origin effects, which suggests that consumers tend to be more positive towards products from their own country. Contradictory, Carrie (2017), discovers in a meta analysis of accent perceptions that non-standard accents are rated more favourably than standard ones. Even though this study did not compare standard and non-standard accents, it is close at hand to think that Carrie's results should translate into rating the English commercials more favourably, since that is a language less common for the targeted population. The acceptance of H3a supports Carrie's research rather than Birch and McPhail's, since the English commercial resulted in higher likability.

Even though the result is to some extent supported by literature, it is a peculiar result since there is almost no difference in neither brand personality, nor source credibility, between the two Swedish and English

(see Section 6.1.1.; 6.1.2.) and still there is a significant difference in likability. The only clear difference between the languages is in *competence*, hence it was hypothesized that *competence* is the best predictor (among the tested variables) for likability. This was tested using a Kendall rank-order correlation ( $\tau$ ) for all possible predictors (*credibility, sincerity, excitement, competence, upper-class, charm, ruggedness*). Just like predicted, the brand's perceived *competence* is the variable that correlates the most with likability ( $\tau=0.546$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). The difference in brand likability between the Swedish and English commercial is therefore likely a consequence of differences in perceived *competence*.

An interesting result is that there is no support for H3b, meaning there is no proof for differences in brand likability between the English commercials. Following the logic of *competence* being a great predictor would indicate that American should be more liked than Australian (see Section 6.1.1.) but this is of course not the only trait affecting whether or not you like a brand, and the differences between the accents are likely to have eliminated any difference in likability. The fact that H3a is supported, while H3b is not, makes the contradictory results in previous research easier to accept because the field seems difficult to investigate. One explanation could be that people do not necessarily value the same brand personality, i.e. whether a trait can predict likability is subjective to individual consumers. It seems like the research field of accents' effect on likability calls for further investigation.

#### 6.1.4. H4: THE CLOSER RELATIONSHIP THE RESPONDENT HAS TO AN ACCENT, THE MORE FAVOURABLY A COMMERCIAL IN THIS ACCENT WILL BE RATED

---

In order to investigate whether consumers are more favorable towards a brand if commercials are in an accent the consumer has a stronger relationship to, the following hypothesis was tested:

*H4: The closer relationship the respondent has to an accent, the more favourably a commercial in this accent will be rated*

Note that this hypothesis was only tested for the accents and not for languages, for reasons explained in Section 3.4.

To test this hypothesis, it was necessary to find proxies for both favourability and accent relationship. What is a favourable judgement is in many ways subjective. For example, it cannot be determined whether a brand being more *rugged* makes it more or less favoured. In this study, however, *Likability* is considered the best proxy of how favourable the respondents are towards a certain accent in the commercial. Finding a good proxy for relationship strength was harder. It was preferred not to ask the respondents of this directly, partly because it could yield very arbitrary results depending on how the respondents interpret the question. Instead three other proxies were decided upon, which all indicate how exposed a respondent has previously been to a certain accent. The three proxies are; how many times the respondent has visited the country in question, how often the respondent watch any type of media in the different accents and what accent the respondent herself speaks.

The first relationship, i.e. likability and number of visits, was tested using Kendall's rank order correlation. It turns out that there is no correlation between the number of visits to a country and how much someone likes a brand when the commercial is in this accent (e.g. visit USA and watch the American commercial).

The second relationship, i.e. likability and exposure to media in a particular accent, was also tested using Kendall's rank order correlation. Neither here a relationship could be discovered. That means there is no correlation between how often someone is exposed to media in a certain accent (e.g. American) and how much someone likes a brand when the commercial is in this same accent.

The last relationship, i.e. likability and accent spoken by oneself, was tested using a Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA. The reason for using another test for this relationship (compared to the visits and media relationships) was only that this was not a test of correlation, but an "either-or" test. This means that either respondents rate the commercial more favourably if the accents matched – or they do not. The results show that there is a relationship on a 10% significance level ( $p=0.061$ ). That means that there is support for people actually rating a commercial more favourably if it is in the same accent as the person herself speaks. However, there were only 90 respondents who spoke the same accent as the person in the commercial they watched. This is a frequency of 10 respondents below the desired sample size in this study.

Overall, there are ambiguous results and it is unclear whether or not H4 can be accepted. The results could be an actual and solid outcome, or they could be the consequence of inaccurate proxies for either favourability or relationship strength. Because of the ambiguity, and because the only significant result is both from a smaller sample than desired and only significant on a 10% level, it is decided that the result should be interpreted conservatively. An overview of the results can be found in Table 10.

CORRELATION BETWEEN FAVORABILITY OF AND RELATIONSHIP TO AN ACCENT	
TYPE OF RELATIONSHIP	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Increasing no. of visits to country → increased likability	●
Increasing no. of media exposures → increasing likability	●
Speak same accent as in commercial → more likable	●

*Table 10. Display of accent relationship's effect on likability*

- Significant correlation
- No significant correlation

**Conclusion: H4 is not supported, since there is little evidence for correlation between the respondent's relationship to an accent and its ratings of a commercial in this accent.** A presentation of the results can be found in Table 10.

#### ***Analysis H4***

According to Tajfel's Social Identity Theory (DeShields & de los Santos, 2000) and Cialdini (2010), a person who identifies with a spokesperson should rate him/her favourably, meaning that a stronger relationship with for example an accent should lead to a more positive evaluation. Even though the research is based on evaluation of a spokesperson, and not a brand, the same logic could likely be applied in this study since both brands and humans can possess personality traits (Aaker, 1997). Hence, the results contradicts the implications from previous research. There are a couple of possible explanations to this, which will be explained below.



One explanation could be that the result of this study are robust and address possible gaps or exceptions in the Social Identity Theory. It could for example be that the associations with a certain accent, in contradiction to what previous research claims, is not affected to a great extent by people's relationship to it. This would mean that the *comparison* (from Tajfel's categorize-identify-compare) between oneself and the categorized object (i.e. the brand) is not dependent on spokesperson's accent. It could also be that factors other than relationship strength are more powerful indicators of brand likability. For example, a person might value brand personality more, and identify with an accent that generate associations in accordance with one's own personality, rather than identifying with the accent one for some reason has the strongest relationship to. If replicating this research, it is recommended to ask the respondent what (s)he values more when forming a perception of a brand.

Another explanation could be that the proxies used in this research do not truly reflect a person's relationship towards an accent. In what accent a person usually watch TV series, movies, etc. does not necessarily reflect his/her group belonging or personality. It might simply be that the media content a person consumes is not an indicator of what that person identifies with. Because at the end of the day, the SIT, as well as the theory on in-group/outgroup theory, assumes some kind of self-identification and benchmarking towards an outside object (DeShields & de los Santos, 2000; Heding et al., 2016). In future research, it is recommended to conduct further analysis on what questions best measure relationship strength towards an accent. So how could one measure relationship strength more accurately? One good, but difficult way of testing a person's relationship towards an accent could be to perform a personality analysis of the respondents in order to identify in-group/outgroup beliefs and behaviours. Another, more simple, but potentially less accurate, way would be to ask respondents to self-rate their relationship strength towards an accent.

All results are, however, not insignificant. In fact, the increased likelihood of liking the commercial if it is in the same accent as oneself speak, could be the result that has the strongest support in previous literature. Bruce (2010) has shown that members of the Swedish population think highly of their personal accents and judge people with the same accent more favourably. Moreover, Birch and McPhail's (1999) show in their research that people rate spokespersons from their own country more favourably. So on this matter, the results of this study supports previous research.

### 6.1.5. H5: THE COMMERCIALS LEAD TO DIFFERENT DEGREES OF PURCHASE INTENTION

---

Since *brand equity* at the end of the day must be transformed into financial equity to provide true value, it is not enough that a brand is liked, consumers must also want to buy it. In order to test whether the choice of language variety in commercials has effect on the likelihood of *purchase* that the commercial results in, two sub-hypotheses were formed which results are elaborated on below. Each purchase intention variable (*inquire, buy, buy as gift, recommend*) is tested individually as well as combined into an overall *purchase intention* variable. All tests are carried out using a Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA.

#### *Swedish vs English*

To investigate whether language choice affect purchase intention the following hypothesis was tested:

*H5a: The Swedish commercial leads to a different degree of purchase intention than the English commercials*

The results show no differences in overall purchase intention between the English and Swedish commercials. Also when looking at the sub-variables there are few differences to be noted. Only one difference is significant and that is that the respondents are more likely to *inquire*, i.e. look for further information, about a brand if having watched the commercial in English ( $p=0.036$ ). The results are displayed in Table 11. Interpreting the results conservatively means that **H5a is not supported**. A presentation of the results can be found in Figure 22 and Table 11.

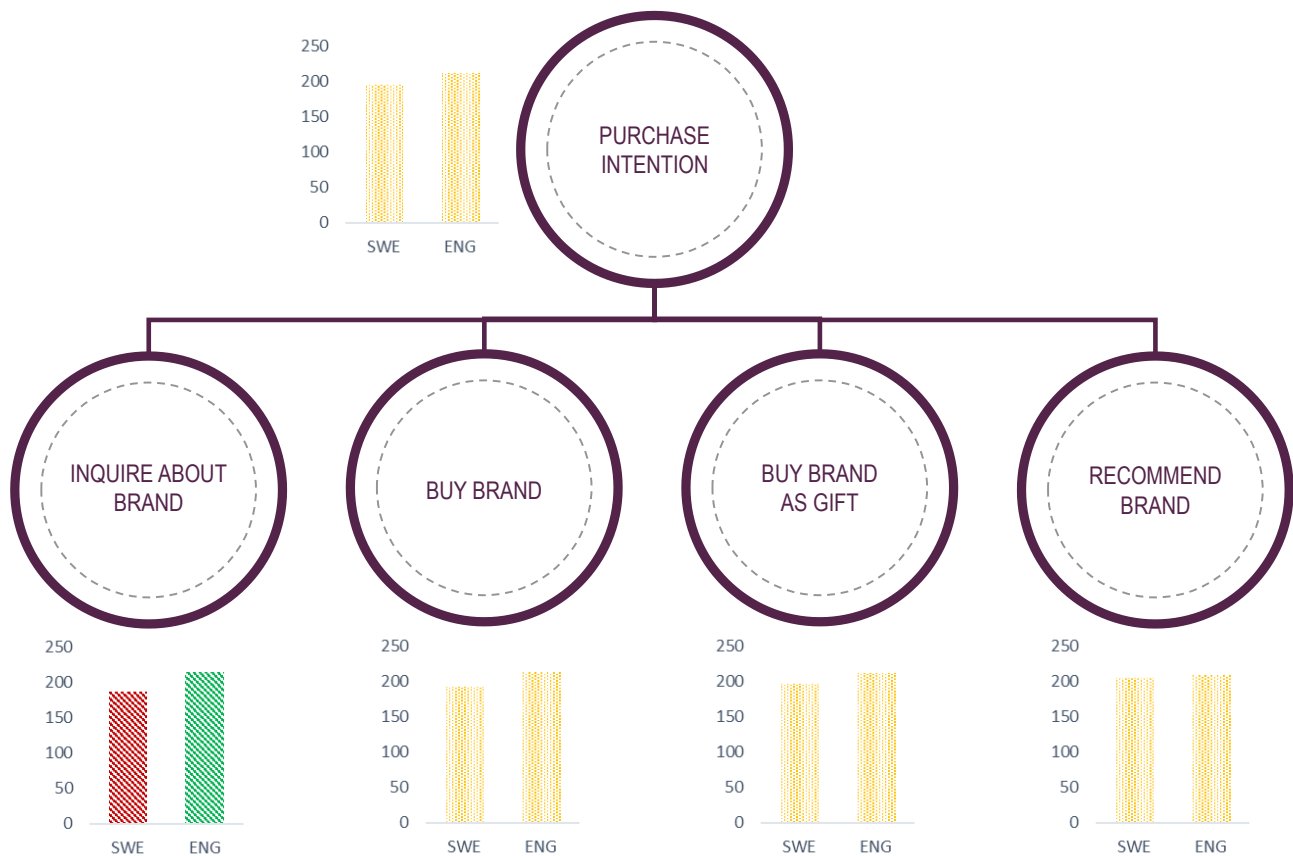


Figure 22. Comparison of languages in terms of purchase intention. Y-axis showing Kruskal-Wallis mean rank value.

- Significantly higher than the other language
- Significantly lower than the other language
- Not significantly different from the other language

SWEDISH COMMERCIAL	
INTENTION	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Overall purchase intention	●
Inquire about brand	●
Buy brand	●
Buy brand as gift	●
Recommend brand	●

ENGLISH COMMERCIALS	
INTENTION	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Overall purchase intention	●
Inquire about brand	●
Buy brand	●
Buy brand as gift	●
Recommend brand	●

Table 11. Display of what purchase intention the languages evoke.

- Significantly higher than the other language
- Significantly lower than the other language
- Not significantly different from the other language

### *Different English accents*

In order to see if different English accents affect purchase intention the following hypothesis have been tested:

*H5b: At least one of the English commercials creates a higher likelihood of purchase than the others*

The results reveal a generally greater likelihood of purchase among people who have watched the American commercial. The results are significant on an overall level ( $p=0.002$ ), but also for the sub-variables. Respondents who watched the American commercial scores higher compared to those who watched the Australian commercial, both in terms of likelihood of *inquiring* about the brand ( $p=0.020$ ), *buying* the brand ( $p=0.012$ ), purchasing the brand as a *gift* to someone else ( $p=0.001$ ) and *recommending* the brand ( $p=0.009$ ). In addition to this, the American commercial also scores higher than the British commercial in terms of likelihood of *buying* the brand ( $p=0.010$ ). An overview of the results are found in Table 12. The outcome leads to **H5b being supported**. A presentation of the results can be found in Figure 23 and Table 12.

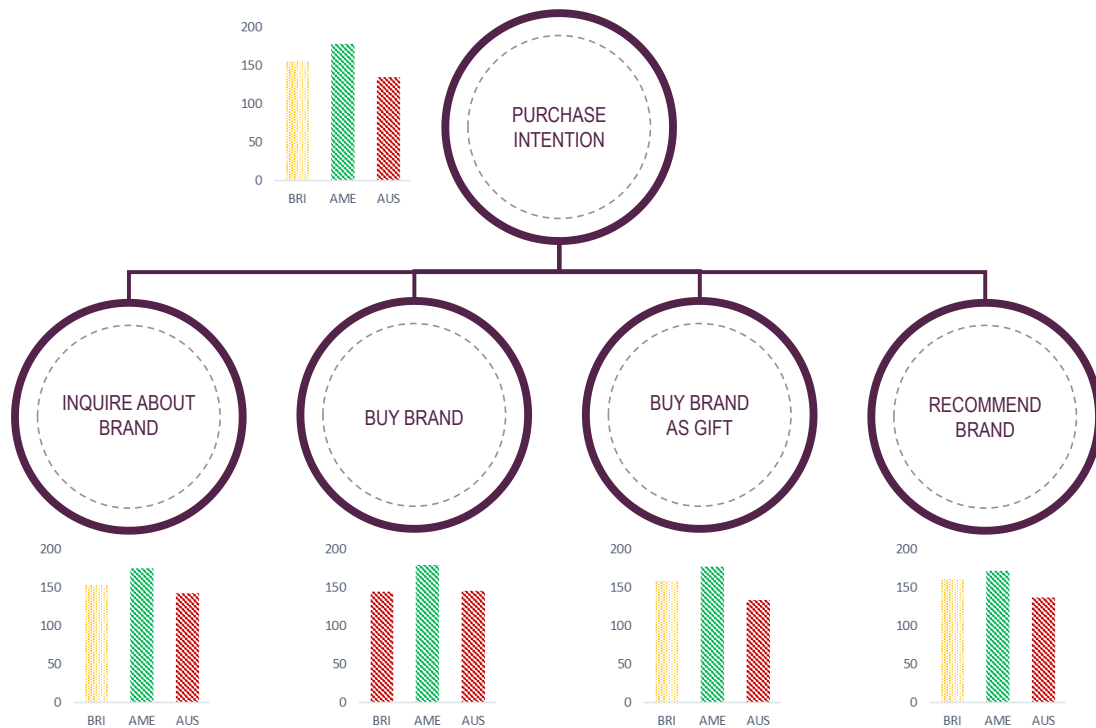


Figure 23. Comparison of accents in terms of purchase intention. Y-axis showing Kruskal-Wallis mean rank value.

- Significantly higher than at least one other accent
- Significantly lower than at least one other accent
- Not significantly different from the other accents

BRITISH COMMERCIAL		AMERICAN COMMERCIAL		AUSTRALIAN COMMERCIAL	
INTENTION	SIGN. DIFFERENCE	INTENTION	SIGN. DIFFERENCE	INTENTION	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Overall purchase intention	●	Overall purchase intention	●	Overall purchase intention	●
Inquire about brand	●	Inquire about brand	●	Inquire about brand	●
Buy brand	●	Buy brand	●	Buy brand	●
Buy brand as gift	●	Buy brand as gift	●	Buy brand as gift	●
Recommend brand	●	Recommend brand	●	Recommend brand	●

Table 12. Display of what purchase intention the accents evoke.

- Significantly higher than at least one other accent
- Significantly lower than at least one other accent
- Not significantly different from the other accents

**Conclusion: H5 is supported, because there is evidence for the commercials resulting in different likelihood of purchase.** However, differences can only be found when comparing the English accents.

### Analysis H5

The clear differences between the English accents, together with the insignificant difference between Swedish and English, raise the question of whether the scores from the English commercials erase each other (in H5a) and that a Swedish commercial can actually result in a higher or lower likelihood of purchase than the other commercials. Even though testing this is not in the scope of the hypotheses, it is interesting to run the analysis from a statistical standpoint. Doing this reveals that the American commercial itself actually creates higher level of purchase intention than the Swedish one. The result makes it less obvious as of whether or not H5a is supported. However, to keep the analysis as objective as possible, it is decided to maintain the decision of not accepting the first sub-hypothesis.

Scholars who have previously investigated the relationship between accent and purchase intention agree that it is not the accent per se that affect whether consumers buy a product or not. Instead there are mediating factors which are dependent on accent and in turn affect purchase intention. What these mediating factors are, are however disagreed upon. For example, Tsalikis et al. (1991) claim that *competence* is a mediating factor. DeShields et al. (1996), on the other hand believe source *credibility* is an important factor, while DeShields et al. (1997) in another article argue for the *relationship strength*

towards the accent being an indicator of purchase intention. With this as foundation of knowledge, correlation with purchase intention was tested for several variables (brand personalities, credibility and respondent's accent) in order to see if any mediating factors could be found. In accordance with previous research, both *competence* and *credibility* correlate positively with purchase intention (competence:  $\tau=0.435$ ,  $p<0.001$ ; credibility:  $\tau=0.403$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Looking specifically at the English commercials, there is also higher likelihood of purchase if the respondent speaks the same accent as the person in the commercial ( $p=0.001$ ). The result indicates that all three (*competence*, *credibility*, *relationship strength*) can be predictors of purchase intention. When comparing the Swedish and English commercials, however, the predictors become less straightforward. Most noteworthy, is that there is a significant difference in perceived *competence* between the Swedish and English versions, but no difference in purchase intention can be found.

In addition to what previous scholars mention, the correlation between *likability* and purchase intention was also explored, because of the subjective (but hopefully accurate) estimate that consumers rather buy brands they like than brands they dislike. However, similar to the *competence* variable, the results contravene. There are differences in *likability* between the Swedish and English commercial, even though no difference is found in purchase intention. Furthermore, while there is no support for respondents liking any English accent more than another, they are more likely to *buy* a product if they have seen the American commercial.

Because of the contradictions in the results, it is hard to interpret whether there are mediating variables between accent and purchase intention, and if so which these variables are. The only thing that could be said with certainty is that there *are* differences in purchase intention depending on what English accent the respondents have listened to. Why these differences exist is less obvious. The main purpose of this study, however, was to investigate accents effect on brand perception. The analysis of purchase intention is rather an extension of the research question to better understand accents' effects on firms' financial equity, i.e. do differences in brand perception actually have effect on firms' financial value. A deeper analysis of the underlying factors for the differences in purchase intention was therefore considered to be beyond the scope of this study.

#### 6.1.6. H6: THE COMMERCIALS ATTRACT DIFFERENT LEVELS OF ATTENTION

---

Previous literature suggest that different accents attract different levels of attention (Lalwani et al., 2005). However, this has so far been tested on accents with different standardness, not on accents from different countries and even less so on different languages. In order to test whether theories from previous literature holds for all differences in language varieties, two sub-hypotheses were created for which test results are explored below. Derived from theory on memory, short-term memory can be a proxy for attention, because a subject needs to pay attention to a stimulus in order to remember it in the short term (Solomon, 2015). Therefore, two fact-based questions, one about brand name and one about years of existence, were asked in the survey. Both are facts that were mentioned in the commercial. The logic is that the more facts the respondent remembers, the greater attention (s)he has paid to the commercial. The original idea was to sum the answers on these two questions to get a “attention score” of 0 (no correct answer), 0.5 (one correct answer) and 1 (both answers correct). However, since the *attention* variable showed internal inconsistency, the two attention questions were analysed separately using two dummy variables (one for brand name and one for number of years the brand has existed), which could take on either of the two values 0 (incorrect) and 1 (correct).

##### *Swedish vs English*

To test whether commercials in different languages result in different levels of attention, the following hypothesis was tested:

*H6a: The Swedish commercial attracts another level of attention than the English commercials*

Looking separately at how well the brand name is recognised and how well one remembers the number of years the brand has existed, a chi-square test for independence was carried out. It can be concluded that the name is better recognised in the Swedish commercial ( $p=0.029$ ) even though the effect size is small ( $\Phi=0.107$ ). On the other hand, there is no proven difference when it comes to remembering the number of years the brand has existed. Still, in an overall evaluation, **H6a is supported because the Swedish commercial attracts more attention than the English ones in terms of name recognition.** A presentation of the results can be found in Figure 24 and Table 13.

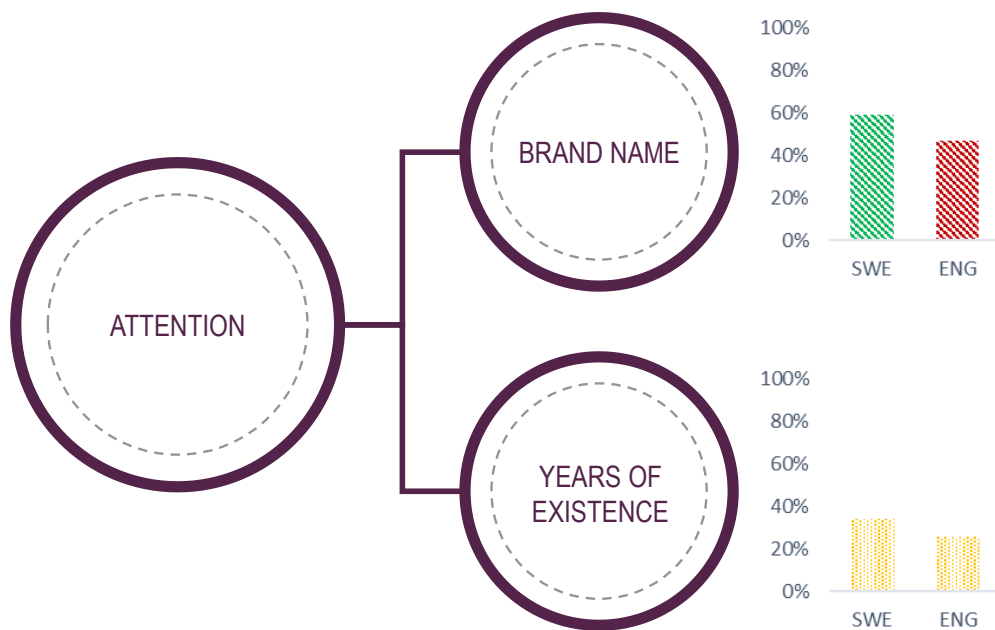


Figure 24. Comparison of languages in terms of attention. Y-axis showing Kruskal-Wallis mean rank value.

- Significantly higher than the other language
- Significantly lower than the other language
- Not significantly different from the other language

SWEDISH COMMERCIAL		ENGLISH COMMERCIALS	
TEST OF RECOGNITION	SIGN. DIFFERENCE	TEST OF RECOGNITION	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Attention to name	●	Attention to name	●
Attention to #years of existence	●	Attention to #years of existence	●

Table 13. Display of what level attention the languages evoke.

- Significantly higher than the other language
- Significantly lower than the other language
- Not significantly different from the other language

### ***Different English accents***

In order to test whether different English accents in commercials create different levels of attention the following hypothesis was tested:

*H6b: At least one of the English commercials attracts a different level of attention than the others*



Using a chi-square test for independence to investigate each attention variable separately, the results show that the brand is recognised to a higher extent in the British commercial ( $p < 0.001$ ) and the effect size is large (Cramer's  $V = 0.434$ ). Just like when comparing languages, no difference in recognition of years can be observed. An overview of the tested variables are found in Table 14. After an overall assessment, **H6b is supported because the British commercial attracts more attention than the other English versions in terms of brand name recognition.** However, only in terms of name A presentation of the results can be found in Figure 25 and Table 14.

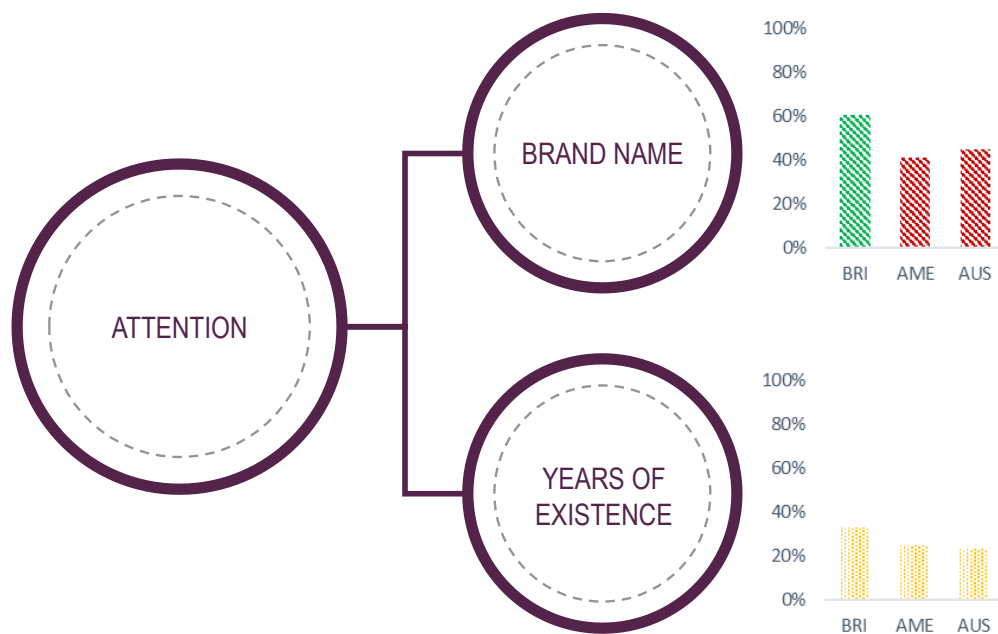


Figure 25. Comparison of accents in terms of attention. Y-axis showing Kruskal-Wallis mean rank value.

- Significantly higher than at least one other accent
- Significantly lower than at least one other accent
- Not significantly different from the other accents

BRITISH COMMERCIAL		AMERICAN COMMERCIAL		AUSTRALIAN COMMERCIAL	
TEST OF RECOGNITION	SIGN. DIFFERENCE	TEST OF RECOGNITION	SIGN. DIFFERENCE	TEST OF RECOGNITION	SIGN. DIFFERENCE
Attention to name	●	Attention to name	●	Attention to name	●
Attention to #years of existence	●	Attention to #years of existence	●	Attention to #years of existence	●

Table 14. Display of what level of attention the accents evoke.

- Significantly higher than at least one other accent
- Significantly lower than at least one other accent
- Not significantly different from the other accents

## *Analysis H6*

In order to create brand awareness companies need to communicate information (Fill & Turnbull, 2013). The information is however of no use if the recipients of the message do not acknowledge or remember what was communicated. The memory of the information given in and the level of attention caught by commercials depends on what accent is used to communicate the message (Lalwani et al., 2005). Morales et al. (2012) reveal a negative correlation between favoured accents and accents attracting a high level of attention. The interpretation is that there is a trade-off between likability and attention, with accents scoring high at one of the factors but not the other. The result of Morales et al. is confirmed in this study, since the Swedish commercial got higher level of attention but the English commercials resulted in higher brand likability (see Section 6.1.3.). When comparing the English accents, however, the correlation is not as obvious.

The level of attention can further be discussed by looking at the Elaboration Likelihood Model. When involvement is low, the information in commercials becomes less important and more attention is paid to peripheral cues, such as accent (Fill & Turnbull, 2016). The indistinct result in the test of H6 (with one variable showing significance and the other not) could maybe be explained by the fact that it is somewhat subjective whether sneakers is a low-involvement product or not. Had the commercials advertised a product of very low involvement, it is likely that the differences between the language varieties had been more significant due to amplified attention levels.

In this study only the short-term memory was investigated and it was done by testing the recognition of the brand name and years of operation, by giving the respondents pre-set alternatives. Testing long-term memory was not possible in this study since the respondents had never been previously exposed to the brand, therefore the memory of it could not have been stored. This is something that could be investigated in future research. Another factor that would be interesting to further investigate is why the brand name was easier recognised than the number of years the brand had existed. The subjective view of the researchers is that numbers are more difficult to remember. This can however not fully be supported by existing literature and it would therefore be an interesting topic to cover.

**Conclusion: H6 is supported, because there is evidence that the commercials, to some extent, attract different levels of attention.**

#### 6.1.7. THE RESULTS CHANGE WHEN LOOKING AT PERCEIVED ACCENT

---

There was an important factor that was not taken into consideration in the formation of hypotheses. That is whether or not the results from comparing English accents change if all variables are grouped based on what English accent the respondents *believe* they have listened to, instead of grouping respondents based on *actual* accent spoken in the commercial. Should the results look different, there is certainly a psychological part in how the respondents perceive and interpret the commercials. Such a finding would further support the idea that it is not only tone and pitch, i.e. not only the accent in itself, that affect the brand perception and other dependent variables, but also psychological and cognitive factors.

In order to find out if the dependent variables are also affected by *perceived* accent, relevant hypothesis tests were redone but with the alteration that the independent variable was changed from English accent to perceived origin of the spokesperson. Of course the tests with language as independent variable (i.e. Swedish vs English) were not repeated. All disparities from the original hypothesis tests are displayed below. A detailed display of all changes can be found in Appendix 10. It should be noted that the sample sizes for these tests are smaller than desired ( $100 \geq n \geq 63$  instead of  $n \geq 100$ ) because the guessed accents did not end up in a uniform distribution. They are however, still considered large enough to be able to at least indicate changes in the result.

##### ***Brand personality***

Taking a closer look at the five brand personalities, the most striking changes are for *sincerity* and the sophistication trait *charm*, where there are no longer any differences between the accents. For *excitement* American is now rated higher than both British ( $p=0.001$ ) and Australian ( $p=0.001$ ), and not just Australian. The same result is seen in *competence* (British  $p=0.002$ , Australian  $p<0.001$ ). For the sophistication trait *upper-class*, Australian falls in rank from being significantly higher than British to instead be significantly lower than American ( $p=0.048$ ). Australia now turns out to be more *rugged* than both American ( $p=0.072$ ) and British ( $p=0.092$ ) and not just American.

### ***Source credibility***

Looking at overall credibility, American is still more *credible* than Australian ( $p=0.049$ ) on a 10% significance level, while there is no longer a significant difference between British and Australian. When investigating the sub-categories of source credibility, American is also still more *trustworthy* than Australian ( $p=0.007$ ), but now more trustworthy than British as well ( $p=0.025$ ). There is still no difference in terms of *expertise*, but the difference in *attractiveness* between British and Australian has also been erased. In conclusion, there is now greater difference in source credibility between American and British, while the differences between British and Australian have been eliminated.

### ***Likability***

This measure is interesting since there was no significant difference between the *actual* English accents. Looking at *perceived* accent however, the brand is significantly more likable in what the respondents think is an American commercial than in what they think is Australian ( $p=0.012$ ). This result provide even stronger support for the hypothesis of *competence* being the best predictor (among the tested variables) for *likability* (see Section 6.1.3 for elaboration on likability predictors). The difference in perceived competence between American and Australian is namely the statistic with the strongest significance level among all tested personalities and perceived origins ( $p<0.001$ ).

### ***Relationship***

This is possibly the most interesting factor to look at, since there is barely no significant correlation in the original analysis between how much respondents like the brand and how strong their relationship to the accent is. However, when looking not at *actual* accent in the commercial but which accent the respondent *perceives* is spoken, significant correlations appear. It turns out that the more a respondent has been in the country where the perceived accent is spoken, the more the respondent likes the brand ( $p=0.049$ ). The respondent also like the brand more, the more frequently (s)he watches media in that accent ( $p=0.009$ ). Like in the previous analysis, the brand is more liked if the accent matches with the accent spoken by the respondent, however, this effect is now more significant ( $p=0.002$ ).

The result definitely puts new light on the relationship aspect. This makes the study more consistent with previous research and fits better into Tajfel's Social Identity Theory. It can be argued that this result is more "correct" than the result from looking at *actual* accent spoken in the commercial, because the identification to the accent is more true. The associations and feelings towards a brand is formed by how the brand is perceived by the receiver, not how the brand is intended to be perceived by the sender, i.e. brand image vs brand identity (Kapferer, 2008). What accent the respondents believe they hear should therefore be a stronger indicator of how much they relate to this accent. The outcome is that the proxies for relationship strength used in this study (i.e. visit, media and own accent) might after all reflect relationship strength in a good way, despite the doubts in section 6.1.4.

### ***Purchase intention***

Purchase intention do not change drastically. The only noticeable alterations are that American create higher overall *purchase intention* than both British ( $p=0.042$ ) and Australian ( $p=0.004$ ), while this was only significant for British in the previous analysis. The same goes for the sub-question likelihood of *inquiry* (British  $p=0.020$ , Australian  $p=0.052$ ).

### ***Attention***

For attention the results are the same as when looking at actual accent spoken, the differences are however less significant.

### ***Potential reasons for the changes in the result***

On an overall level it can be argued that the differences in *brand personality* (including *credibility* traits) diminishes while the proof for a correlation between *likability* and *relationship* to the accent is drastically strengthened (see Appendix 10). Table 15 displays a crosstabulation of which accent respondents thought they listened to and what accent they *actually* listened to. It can be concluded that American was the easiest accent to identify, 83 % of the respondents who listened to the American version of the commercial guessed the correct accent. British and Australian on the other hand were to some extent mixed up by the respondents, 21% thought British was Australian and vice versa. The accent that the respondents had the hardest time to identify was British, which only 68% of the respondents guessed correctly on. These

statistics might help explain many of the result changes. For many variables, the results of the British and Australian groups approached each other in this second round of hypothesis testing. The consequence was fewer differences in *brand personality* and *credibility* between the British and Australian commercials, but more differences between the British and American ones. The fact that British and Australian got mixed up to a relatively large extent, is a possible factor for this change in the results.

**origin \* engl\_acc Crosstabulation**

Count

		engl_acc			
		british	american	australian	Total
origin	british	63	7	19	89
	american	10	66	4	80
	australian	19	7	68	94
Total		92	80	91	263

Table 15. The perceived English accent spoken in the commercial.

## 6.2. MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

*In order to answer the second part of the research question and thereby unveil, “what implications does [the result] have for companies’ marketing tactics”, the results of the study must be put into a practical context. The following section aims at contextualizing the academic results into user-friendly implications. This is done by taking the empirical findings and analyze them through the lense of a contemporary business mindset and up-to-date marketing demands.*

### 6.2.1. WHO DOES IT CONCERN?

The results of this study might be of interested to a wide and diverse audience. Since the findings add a layer to the knowledge of brand building, they are important for most people who in some way work with communicating brands to consumers. Such people could be brand managers or other executives who are concerned with strategic questions of where and how to compete, how to differentiate and what brand identity to build. The knowledge might also guide employees in the marketing department as in terms of what voice-over to choose and how to create a consistent brand identity both in the commercial as well as on a holistic level. Since many companies use external marketing or communication agencies to help with branding in general and the making of commercials in particular, the results of this study should also be

of interest for these kind of firms in order for them to provide clients with more tailor made and effective marketing campaigns. In addition to this, the findings could help other businesses to differentiate, such as voice-over providers and independent filmmakers. By possessing knowledge about language varieties' effects on brand perception and attitudes, they can provide clients with a differentiated offer. For example, potential customers could choose commercial voice-overs based on what brand perception they like to create/maintain, and not only based on the sound of the voice.

It should also be noted that the result have implications for both local and global firms. While national firms can use accented commercials to differentiate, firms operating internationally can use the insights both for managing brand image and for deciding whether to localize the commercial audio or use the same English version in all markets. Last, but not least, the results provide insights to the cross-sectional field of linguistics and branding and can hopefully work as a foundation for future research which in the end help companies communicate their brand in a more accurate way.

### 6.2.2. WHETHER TO STANDARDIZE OR ADAPT TO LOCAL MARKETS

---

A marketing dilemma that has been in the bullseye for international marketers for several years, is whether to adapt marketing and communications to the local market, or broadcast the same commercial to all markets in order to gain economies of scale (Armstrong & Kotler, 2017). The more information that is available regarding what consequences a “globalise/localize decision” brings, the easier it is for companies to ensure that the best suited strategy is applied. When discussing the results of the study with Johan Anselmsson, the professor from Lund University, (Appendix 3) and what implications they might have for companies he states that;

*“...one can imagine these results to also be interesting for international companies who wants to enter the Swedish market. How should they do? Should they only go for their English version they might have, or should they translate it. And depending on their strategy and position they find themselves in, they can choose strategy accordingly.”*

The results of this study are therefore believed to provide further insights, which will allow marketers and other marketing decision makers to make informed choices. The findings reveal several differences between the Swedish and English commercials. These findings should be applicable when communicating to a Swedish target group. Depending on generalisability, Swedish could also be coded into “domestic language” and as such parts of the result might be interesting also for companies marketing their product in other countries with high English proficiency. The most striking finding, is probably that the English commercials are overall more liked than their Swedish counterpart. That would speak in favour of standardize the language of the commercial. On the other hand, the Swedish commercial attracts greater attention in terms of content of the message. This results in a trade-off, where each company has to look at itself to see what strategy fits its current position in the market. For example, for an unknown company entering the market, it might be a better idea to localise the language so the consumers catches the brand name and other important information, while a known brand that wants to strengthen its competitive position could gain from keeping a globalised approach. Looking at brand perception there are actually little differences, the only being that the brand is perceived as more *competent* and possessing more *expertise* when advertised in English, while it is more *attractive* when advertised in Swedish. With only three of eight tested brand personality traits showing any difference, the overall assessment is that in terms of brand perception there is no universal solution to whether to go global or local. The fact that none of the language versions (Swedish or English) are predominantly better than the other further emphasize the importance of each company assessing what is important for its marketing strategy and adapt their tactics thereafter (See Figure . Does the company want to be liked or seen as competent? Standardize the commercial language! Does it want to get information across or be regarded as attractive? Adapt the language to the local market! Whether to adapt or standardise the communication is however not the only factor to consider when choosing what language to use in a commercial. As have already been elaborated on, practitioners should also acknowledge what language variety to use in order to enforce the desired brand image. Why and how they could do so is elaborated upon in the next section.

Adapt language (to Swedish) if...	Standardize language (to English) if...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Credibility is rather achieved through attractiveness than expertise</li> <li>• Attention to message is prioritized over brand likability</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Credibility is rather achieved through expertise than attractiveness</li> <li>• Brand likability is more important than attention to the message communicated</li> </ul>

Figure 26. When to choose Swedish versus English in the communication.



### 6.2.3. BUILDING BRAND EQUITY

---

No matter the decision of standardizing or localizing the marketing communications, companies need to consider what *brand identity* they transmit. The identity of a brand is the associations with the brand that marketers aspire to create and maintain. In order to succeed in transferring their desired brand identity to the mind of the consumer they will have to communicate the right stimulus in the right way. What the consumers actually perceive is the *brand image*, and is built up by three parts, of which one is brand personality. Companies striving to achieve a consistent brand image should therefore make sure to use accents that elicits associations that comply with the brand identity. This is because the consumers have preconceptions of human characteristics that will be recalled when hearing the accent. These preconceptions, and thus the accent, will be part in forming the perceived brand personality, and as such the brand image. Brand image, in turn, is a factor which increases *brand equity*. When brand equity is created, financial value can follow since the brand is powerful enough to persuade consumers to purchase its product instead of competitors' and consumers can even be willing to pay a price premium (Aaker, 1997; Heding, 2016).

There are several ways in which accents can be used in order to increase the equity of a brand. One of them is the company's ability to indicate a clear culture of brand origin, since linguistic cues are one of the most important factors for consumers when determining perceived brand origin. The perception of a brand's origin does not necessarily have to cohere with the actual country of origin, so companies can choose to advertise the culture of the brand as deriving from a culture with which the brand identity complies (Usunier, 2011). A local company can market themselves as being global by using English language in their communication with the consumers. A desire to be perceived as global can for example derive from wanting to connect the brand to the world and the global community. By doing the opposite, i.e. make use of the local language the brand will rather be connected to the local community (Ustinova, 2000). But brand origin does not have to be either local or global, brands can be marketed to give the perception of a completely different culture. This tactic is commonly used for products with a congruent correlation to a particular culture, such as wine from Italy or watches from Switzerland. This is an important tool for marketers since the country-of-brand-origin image sparks associations and thereby influences attitudes and behaviours towards a product. Using an accent or language congruent with the perceived origin of the product and brand can thus increase the brand equity (Lim & O'Cass, 2001).

As mentioned above, the accents can further be used to create a personality, which facilitates communication and relationships with consumers since a stronger brand personality often leads to a stronger link between the brand and consumer. Consumers use brands when they construct and express their own identity and it is therefore of crucial importance that the brand reflects the right personality with which the target group match. For example, consumers can use brands to achieve an improved version of themselves, i.e. their ideal self. And they can also use brands to be part of or disassociate themselves from certain groups, and thereby create in-group/outgroup identities (Heding et al., 2016; Worchel et al., 1998). For example, according to the results of this study, a brand that wants to be perceived as *sincere* and *charming*, should use a British accent in their communication to provide the consumers with the right perceptual cues. Examples of how the English accents can be used in commercials can be found in Figure 27.

In order for brands to form relationships with consumers it is important to communicate a personality with which the consumers feel that they can have a relation (Hanby, 1999). Hence, the importance of creating a strong brand personality is further emphasized. It is for example likely that consumers are more willing to rely on and have a transparent and emotional relationship with a brand that is *sincere*, while an *exciting* brand may call for more casual, adventurous and active relationships. Following the results of this study, brands looking to create a transparent and sincere relationship should use a British accent, while an American accent should be used for a more adventurous relationship. It is however important to carefully choose brand personality and relationship with consumers since the consumers expect different things from different personalities. This is shown by Aaker et al. (2004) who conducted an experiment in which two brands made a severe mistake. The result was that the consumers were more willing to forgive the exciting brand than the sincere brand, even though exactly the same mistake was made.

If taking these implications into account, it is believed that companies will be able to improve their brand image and thereby increase their brand equity. With a distinguished brand image and a higher brand equity companies can be able to differentiate themselves from competitors. In turn, consumers will value the brand enough to choose it over competitors and sometimes even to a price premium, and thereby the company creates *financial equity*. Since financial equity is the goal for profit-driven companies, these implications becomes potentially important. In the following section it will be discussed in a more detailed manner how the implications can be applied in a modern corporation.

Select British if...	Select American if...
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The brand should be perceived as sincere or charming</li> <li>• The brand should not be perceived as upper-class</li> <li>• Credibility is rather achieved through attractiveness than trustworthiness</li> <li>• Attention to the message is of high importance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The brand should be perceived as exciting or competent</li> <li>• The brand should not be perceived as rugged or outdoorsy</li> <li>• Credibility is rather achieved through trustworthiness than attractiveness</li> <li>• The goal is to trigger purchase</li> </ul>
Select Australian if...	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The brand should be perceived as outdoorsy and tough</li> <li>• Credibility is not of high importance</li> </ul>	

Figure 27. When to use the different English accents in communication.

#### 6.2.4. BIG DATA AND CUSTOMIZED COMMUNICATION

The amount of consumer data available is exploding and with it comes a great potential for marketers to gain insight about their consumers (Marketing Science Institute, 2018). Companies have more opportunities than ever to get to know their consumers and deliver an experience based on the motivations and behaviours of the individual consumer. For each consumer there is a specific suitable message and by using predictive modelling and artificial intelligence, the right individuals can be targeted with the right message in order to create valuable communication and personalized brand experiences (Angelani, Englebienne & Migoya, 2016). In order to succeed, marketing departments need to work closely together with IT-departments.

*“Cognitive tech’s ability to understand, reason and learn over time provides marketers with the expert, real-time advice needed to meet customer needs. ... With this insight, marketers can develop and execute personalized strategies catered to the needs of each customer”*

- Maria Winans CMO at IBM Commerce (American Marketing Association, 2016)

Based on the vast amount of data available to the companies, it is suggested that the language and accent used in commercials is adopted to fit not only the brand identity but also the specific consumer's needs and motivations. For example, domestic language could be used towards individuals with a low English proficiency while an English, global version could be used towards those with a high English proficiency. Furthermore, the accents could be altered to fit to the consumers individual preferences and personalities meaning that several versions of one commercials, where only the accent differs, could be delivered to different segments of consumers. For example, a company that wants to create a *competent* brand image could target specific consumers with different accents, depending on which accent the consumer in question perceive as competent. Lastly, different versions of the same commercials could be used depending on the current relationship and level of involvement with the consumers. For example, since some accents tend to attract more attention, these accents could be used when communicating to consumers that are not yet customers, or towards consumers for whom the product in question is a low involvement purchase. For customers who are already loyal however, more emphasis could be put on maintaining the relationship by adjusting to the specific customer's preferences.

Important to take into account when dealing with this kind of big data is to make sure to use it in the right way. There may be a fine line between personalizing a message and getting too close to the consumers privacy. It is also important to be consistent in the different accent used. If, for example, one consumer is exposed to a commercial in one language variety and with next exposure the commercial is in another language variety, the use of language would lead to different associations which could result in inconsistency in the brand image. Therefore, in order to create successful personalized customer experiences, it is important that the big data is used with caution and that an *omni-channel* approach, in which all consumer touch points are coherent, is applied (Payne, Peltier & Barger, 2017).

---

### 6.3. ANSWER TO RESEARCH QUESTION

---

The aim of this study is to answer the following research question:

*How does the choice of language variety used in video commercials affect the perception of, and attitude towards, brands in Sweden – and what implications does it have for companies' marketing tactics?*

From the results in Section 6.1. it can be confirmed that, for a Swedish population, the perception of and attitudes towards brands *do* differ depending on what language variety is used in the video commercials. Differences were found both between the different languages (Swedish and English) as well as between the different accents (British, American and Australian). The respondents who watched the Swedish commercial believed the brand to be more attractive and they paid more attention to the communicated message, while those who watched a commercial in English found the brand to possess more expertise and be more competent and likable. Comparing the three English versions, differences were found in both brand perception (brand personality, source credibility and likability) as well as attitudes towards the brand (attention and purchase intention). Looking at brand *perception*, the British version evoked feelings of the brand being sincere and charming and attractive, while it was considered less upper-class than the other accents. The American version gave the brand an impression of trustworthiness, excitement and competence. In the Australian commercial, the brand was perceived as less credible than for the other accents, but sparked associations of ruggedness. In terms of *attention*, the British commercial outran the others, while the American commercial resulted in a higher level of *purchase intention*. A summary of all tested hypotheses is displayed in Table 16.

OVERVIEW OF TESTED HYPOTHESES			
HYPOTHESIS		LANGUAGE	ACCENT
H1	The commercials communicate different brand personalities	✓	✓
H2	The commercials communicate different levels of source credibility	✗	✓
H3	The commercials evoke different levels of likeability	✓	✗
H4	The closer relationship the respondent has to an accent, the more favorably a commercial in this accent will be rated	N.A.	✗
H5	The commercials lead to different degrees of purchase intention	✗	✓
H6	The commercials attract different levels of attention	✓	✓

✓ Accepted ✗ Rejected

Table 16. Summary of the hypotheses tested and whether or not they were supported.

The fact that choice of language variety in commercials has effect on perception and attitudes towards brands, *do* have implications for practitioners. From Section 6.2. it can be concluded that the differences have at least two consequences for companies marketing tactics. First of all it affects the decision of

whether to standardize the marketing efforts or adapt commercials to a particular market. It seems like there is a trade-off between likability (which would favour the English commercial) and attention to the message (which would favour the Swedish version). Moreover, it should be regarded whether one wants to achieve credibility through expertise (standardize) or attractiveness (localize). The other big marketing implication is associated with brand equity, since the choice of language variety in commercials have effect on the brand perception and hence brand image. Here, the choice between Swedish and English do play a part, but it becomes more complex when comparing accents. Brand equity is (among other things) a product of a consistent brand image. If practitioners learn how language variety choice affects consumers brand perception it could lead to a more coherently communicated brand. As an example, a company who wants to be perceived as outdoorsy, benefit from choosing an Australian voice-over in commercials. In addition to these two implications, the result of this study might also affect other parts of the marketing environment. For example, it is suggested that if a company learn how their target group perceives certain accents, this knowledge can be used to create targeted and more customized marketing efforts.

## 7. DISCUSSION

*This chapter discusses the data findings and the results in terms of generalisability, criticism and future research. The generalisation is discussed in order to clarify to what extent the results can be transferred to another setting than the sample investigated, and what magnitude the impact may have. Thereafter, criticism towards the research and the quality of the results is discussed. Finally, theoretical implications is made by proposing areas of future research. and answer to the research question will be discussed in terms of to what extent it can be generalised.*

---

### 7.1. GENERALISABILITY OF RESULTS

---

Generalisability can be used interchangeably with external validity and is defined by Saunders et al. (2016) as “ the extent to which the findings of a research study are applicable to other settings” (p. 717). Even though researchers often aim for generalisability of their results, it is hard to justify such conditions in reality. It takes careful considerations in every step of the research design, and still generalisability cannot be proved without replicating the study in the context to which you want to generalise (Saunders et al., 2016). Therefore, this section does not specifically state to what context the results of the study are applicable, but rather suggests possible generalisations which are encouraged to study further. What speaks against the generalisability of the results of this study is the sampling method. A non-randomized

sample is generally not considered good enough if one wants the results to show external validity (Ibid.). What speaks in favour of the generalisability however, is the careful consideration of previous literature and established theories when constructing the empirical study. Moreover, these considerations have also been thoroughly described and the research design has been explained. That lays the foundation for generalisability and facilitates for future researchers to test how this study's results hold up in other contexts.

The ambition is that the results of this study can be generalised, firstly to the whole target population of 16-45 year-olds in Sweden, and secondly to all countries with an EF English Proficiency Index of "high" or "very high", in total 16 countries (EF, 2017). To do this, three factors need to be considered. The first one regards age, and to what extent the results can be applicable also to the upper part of the age span. Because of the convenience sample, 91.6% of the respondents were 35 or below, and one must reflect on whether people aged 36-45 perceive the brands in the same ways as the younger generations of the targeted population. However, since the results show very few differences between the age groups, it is likely that the results are applicable also to the older age span of 36-45 year-olds. In order to decide whether the results can be generalised to other countries, it must be considered if the English proficiency is good enough in the other countries of EF's EPI for the results to replicate (Ibid.). After all, Sweden tops the list and it should be contemplated to what extent the last country within the "high proficiency range" (i.e. Slovakia) will show the same differences in brand perception between English and Slovak commercials. Also here, the age generalisability should be considered, i.e. does the English proficiency within the different generations look the same across Europe? The third thing that should be scrutinized before generalising the results to other countries is to what extent the cultures in the 16 countries of consideration are so similar so that the brand perception between the different accents will not be affected by it. That means, that it must be assured that people across Europe forms the same perception of a brand that is advertised in a certain accent (e.g. Australian). As a final remark regarding generalisation about the results, it is worth mentioning, again, that the aim of the study was to find out if differences exist in perception and attitudes depending on language variety. Absolute differences cannot be generalised, such as 'American is always perceived as more competent than Swedish' since only one product was advertised, and this result may be product dependent. The result that there does exist differences in both perception of and attitudes towards a brand is however more generalisable. If Swedish people perceive English commercials differently than Swedish, this should also be the case in countries similar to Sweden, even if they don't perceive it in exactly the same way.

It is therefore believed that some differences between the countries exist, but not to such a great extent that the results of this study will be completely turned-over. Still it is encouraged that further research is conducted in this field so that a general accent-brand mapping can be conducted.

### 7.1.1. MAGNITUDE OF IMPACT

---

So, does this study really make a difference? It most certainly do, if the result is correctly implemented in the corporate landscape and is considered when practitioners decide on their international marketing tactics. Putting this in numbers, the findings should at least be applicable for companies who want to target Swedish young adults, i.e. the target population corresponding to the study's sample. That means a total number of 2.4 million consumers (approximate number of 16-35 year-olds currently living in Sweden) (Statistics Sweden, 2018). If the results hold for the whole attempted target population of this study (i.e. Swedish 16-45 year-olds) this number would be almost 3.8 million consumers. If the findings can be further generalised to include all non-English speaking countries on EF's EPI ranking for high and very high English proficiency (EF, 2017), this number could reach up to 100 million consumers (assuming a life expectancy of 80 years and an uniform age distribution). These are all very arbitrary numbers, and of course all people in a population are not all part of one brand's target group. Still it indicates that, if implemented correctly, the results and its practical implications can impact the way marketers think about communication and as such strengthen the brand image among millions of consumers throughout Sweden and other European countries.

---

## 7.3. CRITICISM

---

### 7.3.1. THE LACK OF STANDARD AND NON-STANDARD LANGUAGE VARIETIES

---

Even though effort was made in order to not treat the languages differently in terms of perceived standardness, the researchers may have been biased since they are Swedish themselves. Therefore, the Swedish language has been analysed as being 'standard', which can be criticized since all four language varieties analysed are standard in respective country. The problem with standardness of the language varieties further complicates the analysis since the results of this study is not completely comparable with previous research, in which most researchers have compared a standard accent to a non-standard accent.



Another problem with the choice of language varieties used is in the comparison between the Swedish and English languages, is that the three English accents have been combined as one language. By combining them in the analysis, differences between the three accents may have evened out each other. Therefore, it is likely that comparing Swedish to only one English accent at a time would have resulted in larger differences and more distinct results.

### 7.3.2. NO RESEARCH ON THE UNDERLYING FACTORS

---

The results in this study show varieties in brand perception as well as purchase intention and attention. *Why* these differences occur is however not investigated. The results have been discussed using existing literature and possible root-causes to the results have been proposed. Therefore, correlations are discussed but due to the limited scope of the study it is impossible to deduce actual causality of why different accents gave rise to the results found. In order to further analyse the results questions regarding the respondents' preferences in both language and personality traits should have been asked. This could have increased the understanding of what they find important and what they value in the processing of a brand's message. A way to do this would be to conduct qualitative studies in which values, attitudes and beliefs were discussed in detail.

### 7.3.3. PERCEPTION OF THE BRAND

---

The perceptions of the brand in terms of brand personality, source credibility and likability obtained in the study are assumed to be based solely on the accent and the respondents' associations towards it. However, the perceived characteristics can also be based on the receivers' own personality. Only a few experiments have been conducted in which an interplay between the rater's and brand's personalities is in focus. One study that has taken this into consideration is Cassel and Bickmore (2003), in which call centre agents' personalities were attributed not only by the phone call but also based on the raters' personalities. The raters were asked to attribute characteristics to the call centre agents' personalities but were also asked about their own personalities. The result implied that the attribution of personality was based on both the experience of the call centre agent but also the raters' own personality.

In order to take this into consideration, some question should have been included in the study in which the respondents' own personalities were investigated. By doing this, possible correlations could have been found between the respondents' associations with the brand and their own personalities. However, this was, again, outside of the scope of this study both due to time constraints and the overall purpose.

### 7.3.3. NON-RANDOMIZED SAMPLING

---

The generalisability of the results is slightly constrained due to the choice of using non-randomized sampling when collecting the data. This means that the results are somewhat limited to a rather homogenous group of consumers. The data sampling was however considered good enough for the purpose of the study, since the aim was not to generalise the differences but rather to generalise that differences occur at all. However, with a larger budget and with more time at hand, a randomized sampling could have been carried out which would have resulted in a more reliable result. This because a more diverse sample could have been collected, where the demographics would have been even more varied. Another concern, which is increasing with convenience sampling, was the risk of respondents taking the survey more than once. This induces biases in the answers, since the respondents is framed by what (s)he has seen and answered earlier. This in turn makes the respondent groups (the four language varieties) *dependent* rather than *independent* which would require other statistical tests than for example the Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA. The likelihood of someone taking the test more than once was, however, considered small because there were no incentives offered for answering the test, such as money or the chance to win a prize. It was therefore considered unlikely that people voluntarily took the test more than once.

### 7.3.4. THE ASSUMED LEVEL OF INVOLVEMENT

---

The product advertised in the commercial (sneakers) is considered a low involvement product in this study and it is assumed that the respondents were somewhat unmotivated to process the message since they did not search for the information themselves. If the assumption of low involvement is true, the effects of accents are indeed relevant since the respondents are on the 'peripheral route' to persuasion (Fill & Turnbull, 2016). However, for many people sneakers may be a high involvement product, since it can be used to express one's identity and moreover many sneakers are quite expensive. This could mean that the 'central route' to persuasion was used and that the respondents therefore paid more attention to the actual information in the commercial and the attributes of the shoes. This would diminish the effect of the accent

used. It could therefore have been interesting to investigate several different products or include questions about the respondents level of involvement.

### 7.3.5. QUALITY OF DATA

---

There are a few factors that can be discussed regarding the quality of the data. Three concerns were brought up in terms of reliability. The first was that a couple of concepts (*sophistication* and *attention*) showed internal inconsistency. It can be criticised that Aaker's (1997) Brand Personality Scale was used even though inconsistencies have been found in the *sophistication* sub-trait. As is explained in Section 3.1.2, there is criticism regarding the applicability of the five personalities across countries and product categories, but it was still considered good enough to use in this study. However, to work around the issue with internal reliability, for the two inconsistent concepts of sophistication and attention, the sub-questions (*upper-class & charming, name & year*) were analysed separately.

The second critique regarding reliability was the subjective judgement of whether or not a concept was regarded as internally consistent. The brand personalities *sincerity* and *ruggedness* both showed internal consistency below the threshold of  $\alpha=0.6$ . Despite this they were considered as having an acceptable level of reliability (see Section 4.3.2. for arguments leading to this decision).

The third issue in reliability concerns the ambiguous consistency results. While for example the brand personality *sincerity* showed internal consistency, meaning the sub-traits should all measure the same thing, these traits sometimes lead to contrasting result in the quantitative study. Taking *sincerity* as an example, four of five traits showed no difference in brand perception among the English commercials, but the last trait (i.e. *friendly*) differed. If all traits measure the same thing, the intuition says they should have scored similarly in the quantitative study. The reason for these ambiguous result might be that another reliability measure than cronbach's  $\alpha$  should have been used. It could also be a consequence of quality concern in the study, for example a bias in the order of the questions.

There was also a problem in the construct validity assurance. The best feasible way to ensure construct validity in this study was to make sure it was founded on acknowledged theories and previous research.

Still the outcomes of this study do, in many ways, contradict previous research. It can thus be questioned whether the argument for construct validity holds. However, in the absence of better ways to easily secure construct validity, it is still considered a good rule of thumb.

---

## 7.4. FUTURE RESEARCH

---

The research gap on how accents affect brand perception and attitudes is wide, and the field would benefit from increased attention and further investigation. The following sections elaborates on areas of research that could possibly yield interesting results, but which have not been explored in detail in this study.

### 7.4.1. ACCENTS THE CONSUMERS BELIEVE THEY HEAR

---

In section 6.1.7. an extension of the main research question was investigated, namely whether the results change if the responses are grouped by what accent the respondents *perceive* instead of what accent they *actually* listen to. It was regarded as an interesting analysis since brand perception is a cognitive construct which is affected, not only by what message is sent (*brand identity*), but also by how the specific receiver interprets this message (*brand image*) (Heding et al. 2016). The reason for not stating this as the main research question, despite its relevance, was because brand image is harder to control than brand identity (Ibid.) Since little previous research existed in the field, it was considered to be of greater importance to start with getting an understanding of how actual accents are perceived, because it is more difficult to adjust the brand message to individual consumers perceptions. However, with this study as a theoretical foundation, it is recommended to further look into how brands are perceived depending on what accent the consumers believe they listen to in a commercial. If new knowledge is gained in this field, it might pave the way for customized brand building.

### 7.4.2. MAP MORE ACCENTS' RELATIVE RELATIONSHIPS

---

Because little research exist on how accents affect brand perception in countries with English as a second language, it was an ambition to be able to generalise the results of this study to other countries similar to Sweden in terms of English proficiency. Therefore, the three English commercials were analyzed separately from the Swedish one. As such, the fact that the study was carried out on a Swedish population might affect how the English accents are perceived (e.g. Swedes might have a different perception of

Australian than do Germans), but the differences between the accents are per se not affected in the same way by the country in which they are tested. This was instead tested separately, comparing Swedish (i.e. domestic language) with the overall score of the English accents (i.e. foreign language). In addition to the generalisation ambition, the partition of languages vs accents, enabled other types of comparisons. While the comparison of English accents rather give practitioners an idea of how accents can help build brand image, the comparison between the two languages give an idea of whether to globalise or localize commercials.

Another way to carry out the analysis would be to compare all four language varieties at once. That would mean, for example, the differences between the Swedish commercial and the Australian commercial could be analysed in detail and Swedish could be mapped alongside the other language varieties in terms of brand perception. An idea for future research would be to perform such an analysis, preferably in more than one country and for more than four language varieties. Such a study could lead to a detailed mapping of accents and their effect on brand perception and image.

#### 7.4.3. ACCENTS' EFFECT ON EXISTING BRANDS

---

This study tested accents effect on an unknown (i.e. non-existing) brand. The reason was to minimize the respondents initial perception of the brand and as such isolate the accent effect. This research was, however, conducted in an experimental setting, and brands are rarely completely unknown to the commercial audience. Therefore, it is suggested to carry out a similar study, but on existing brands. Such research could reveal things like whether certain accents affect a brand perception more than others, by testing respondents perception of the brand before and after having watched the commercial. It could also put increased focus on culture of brand origin (COBO) effects; for example, one could look at how consumers perceive an American brand advertised in American vs in British. Moreover, testing accent effects on existing brands could reveal what accents strengthens vs weakens a brand's perceived personality. That is, does a particular accent enforce a certain brand's personality or does it dilute it.

#### 7.4.4. OTHER PROPOSITIONS

---

Apart from the three suggestion above, there are a few more ideas for future research. These are things that could have been added to this study, but was not so because of delimitation in scope and time. The suggestions are presented as bullet points below:

- Thorough research on how the four language varieties relate to existing literature on accent standardness. All four language varieties are standard accents in their respective countries. In order to fully compare the results in this study, it would be interesting to find out if any of these varieties can be regarded as more standard in relation to the others. This study assumes Swedish to be the more standard accent, but could it be proved? Could for example Swedish be considered more standard since it is the domestic language, and therefore what the consumers are more used to?
- On the note of standardness, it would also be interesting to look at other, non-standard, English accents. What about how Spanish- or German-accented English affects the perception? Or even Swedish-accented English? Moreover, there are obviously more countries than Great Britain, the USA and Australia, where English is spoken as the first language. Both standard and non-standard accents of these countries could also be tested. The number of accents one could test is almost infinite.
- Conduct a study similar to this one, but with qualitative data instead of (or in addition to) quantitative. Such a study could provide more insights regarding accent stereotypes, respondents personalities and the dyadic relationship between brand and consumer. This would likely result in a deeper understanding of the underlying factors of differences in brand perception, and potentially provide more casualties in addition to the correlations found in this study.
- Another interesting study would be to replicate this one but with another brand. Would the results differ if it was another type of product? What about a high-involvement product? Or a commodity? What about a product considered as domestic (i.e. Swedish)? In addition to adding further insights on accents effect on brand perception, testing another product could also help confirm/reject sneakers as being a neutral low-involvement product (i.e.further test the validity of the study).
- There is also research that would help future scholars who will study this same field. That is to clarify what underlying factors that actually affect purchase intention as well as likability. Moreover, it would help if there were proven proxies for accent relationship strength. Such research is recommended, in order to facilitate for future researchers to conduct studies on accents' effect on brand perception.

## 8. CONCLUSION

This study investigated whether the use of different language varieties (i.e. languages or accents) in video commercials evoke differences in consumers' perceptions and attitudes towards the advertised brand. As part of globalisation, English has gained the status of being a *lingua franca*, an international language that is spoken all around the world. Increased use of English, and increased proficiency among speakers, opens new gates for businesses. However, it also raises new questions for companies to consider in terms of what language to use in their business in general and in their marketing in particular.

Sound, including spoken language, is considered an important stimulus in advertising and is one factor that helps brands convey their desired message to consumers and as such build brand equity. Despite its importance as a communications tool, companies do not seem to incorporate the choice of language variety in their marketing tactics. Moreover, there exist a research gap within the academic field. While some studies have been carried out regarding how language varieties affect the perception of a brand or product, most have been comparing standard accents to non-standard accents, and have furthermore tested their hypotheses on an English-speaking audience. Hence little research has been conducted comparing English accents of different national origins or on non-native English-speaking countries. This is somewhat problematic since English is a global language, and is spoken in many countries with high proficiency, even though it is not an official language. Therefore, this study aimed at targeting such an audience, in which English is spoken with great proficiency. The target population chosen for the study was therefore Sweden. The ambition was to provide firms operating internationally with insights regarding standardization-adaptation decisions as well as with knowledge on how companies can use language varieties as a means to build and strengthen brand image. This interdisciplinary study built on both marketing and linguistic theories to answer the following research question:

*How does the choice of language variety used in video commercials affect the perception of, and attitude towards, brands in Sweden – and what implications does it have for companies' marketing tactics?*

The study has taken a deductive approach, following an objectivistic ontology and an epistemology of critical realism. To answer the first part of the research question, four versions of the same video commercial were created, where the only difference was the language variety of the voice-over (Swedish, British English, American English and Australian English). A survey was conducted to collect data. The

respondents started by watching one of the four commercials and thereafter answer questions regarding the advertised brand's *personality*, *source credibility* and *likability*, along with questions on *attention* and *purchase intention*. A thorough analysis was carried out where the results were first compiled using SPSS and then analysed and compared to previous literature on the subject. The commercial in Swedish was compared to the English ones to provide insights in terms of whether a firm should standardise or adapt their communication language. Moreover, the commercials in the three different English accents (American, British and Australian) were compared to each other to get an understanding of how language varieties can be used as a means to affect consumers perception and attitude towards a brand. The second part of the research question was analysed using previous literature as well as knowledge collected from interviews with relevant people from both the professional and academic sphere.

It was found that both languages and accents *do* affect consumers' perceptions and attitudes towards the advertised brand. All areas tested resulted in significant differences, meaning that depending on language variety used in video commercials, consumers' brand perception (*brand personality*, *likability*, *source credibility*), *attention* and ultimately *purchase intention* will vary. Differences were found, both between Swedish and English, and between the three different accents. Looking at the Swedish commercial, the brand was perceived as more attractive and the respondents paid more attention to the message. The English commercials on the other hand, were perceived as more competent and gave rise to higher likability. When comparing the three English accents, various differences were found. In terms of *brand perception*, the American commercial evoked feelings of the brand being exciting, trustworthy and competent. The British video resulted in the impression of the brand being charming and sincere and, in contrast to what one might expect, it was perceived as least upper-class than the other accents. Lastly, the Australian video sparked associations of the brand being rugged and outdoorsy. In terms of *attention*, the British commercial outperformed the other two accents, while the American version resulted in the highest *purchase intention*.

The findings result in several implications for companies operating in Sweden, as well as companies wanting to enter the Swedish market. First of all, it provides further knowledge about what factors to consider when deciding on whether to globalise or localize marketing efforts. In addition to this, it puts light on how language varieties can be used to spark brand associations that will lead to a stronger brand image and ultimately higher brand equity. Moreover, with an increasing utilization of big data, it is also



believed that the result from this study is a step towards greater ability for firms to customize their marketing and hence attract new customers as well as strengthen the relationship with existing ones.

## 9. REFERENCES

### *Academic Articles*

- Aaker, J.L. (1997). Dimensions of Brand Personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 34(3), 347-355.
- Ahmad, A. & Thyagaraj, K.S. (2014). Applicability of Brand Personality Dimensions across Cultures and Product Categories: A Review. *Global Journal of Finance and Management*, 6(1), 9-18.
- Ahmed, S.A. & d'Astous, A. (1993). Cross national evaluation of “made in” concept using multiple cues, *European Journal of Marketing*, 27(7), 39-52.
- Attar, M., & Köprülü, G. (2017). Managers' Responses to the Challenges of Globalization Within the Context of Global Political Economy. *Handbook of Research on Technology Adoption, Social Policy, and Global Integration*, 135-155.
- Bennett, C. & Loken, B. (2007). The Brand Has Two Faces: Examining the Impact of an Accented Spokesperson on Brand Perceptions, *European Advances in Consumer Research*, 8, 120-121.
- Birch, D. & McPhail, J. (1999). Does accent matter in international television advertisements?, *International Journal of Advertising*, 18(2), 251-268.
- Carrie, E. (2017). ‘British is Professional, American is Urban’: Attitudes Towards English Reference Accents in Spain. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 27 (2), 427–447.
- Cassell, J. & Bickmore, T. (2003). Negotiated Collusion: Modeling Social Language and its Relationship Effects in Intelligent Agents. *User Modeling and Adaptive Interfaces*, 13(1–2), 89–132.
- Chao, P. & Rajendran, K.N. (1993). Consumer Profiles and Perceptions: Country-of-origin Effects, *International Marketing Review*, 10(2).
- Denscombe, M. (2006). Web-Based Questionnaires and the Mode Effect: An Evaluation Based on Completion Rates and Data Contents of Near-Identical Questionnaires Delivered in Different Modes, *Social Science Computer Review*, 24, 246-54.
- DeShields O.W. (2015). The Moderating Role of Involvement on Salesmen Credibility and Accent: Impact on Consumer Purchase Intentions. *Developments in Marketing Science: Proceedings of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 156-162.
- DeShields, O. W., & De los Santos, G. (2000). Salesperson’s accent as a globalization issue. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 42(1), 29-46.
- Deshields, O.W., De Los Santos, G., Berumen, O. & Torres, C. (1997). Salesperson’s Accent and Gender and Consumer Purchase Intentions, Implications for Latin Salespersons in Mexico and the United States. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 9(3), 7-23.

- DeShields, O.W., & Kara, A. (2011). The varying influence of spokesperson's accent in communication effectiveness: A comparative study in two different regions of Mexico *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, 19 (1), 55-65.
- DeShields O.W., Kara, A. & Kaynak, E. (1996). Source effects in purchase decisions: The impact of physical attractiveness and accent of salesperson. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*. 13(1), 89–101.
- Easton, G. (2010). Critical realism in case study research. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 39(1), 118-128.
- Edwards, J. (1999). Refining Our Understanding of Language Attitudes. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 18(1), 101-110.
- Ferrandi J.-M., Valette-Florence P. & Fine-Falcy S. (2000). Aaker's brand personality scale in a French context: a replication and a preliminary test of its validity. *Academy of Marketing Science*, 23, 7-13.
- Flemming, C., & Bowden, M. (2009). Web-based Surveys as an Alternative to Traditional Mail Methods, *Journal of Environmental Management*, 90, 284-92.
- Fransson, S. (2013). The Usage of English in Swedish TV Commercials. *BSc., University of Gothenburg* (Department of Language and Literature).
- Gandomi, A. & Haider, M. (2015). Beyond the hype: Big data concepts, methods, and analytics. *International Journal of Information Management*, 35(2), 137-144.
- Ghorshi, S., Vaseghi, S. & Qin Yan. (2008). Cross-Entropic Comparison of Formants of British, Australian and American English Accents. *Speech Communications*, 50, 564–79.
- Giles, H. (1973). Communicative effectiveness as a function of accented speech. *Speech Monographs*, 40(4), 330-331.
- Giles, H., Bourhis, R.Y. & Davies, A., (1974). Prestige speech styles: the imposed norm and inherent value hypothesis. *Language in Anthropology IV: Language in Man Ways*. 589-596.
- Gorski, P. (2013). "What is Critical Realism? And Why Should You Care?". *Contemporary Sociology: A Journal of Reviews*, 42(5), 658-670.
- Hanby, T. (1999). Brands dead or alive, *Journal of Market Research Society*, 41(1), 7-19.
- Hiraga, Y. (2005). British attitudes towards six varieties of English in the USA and Britain. *World Englishes*, 24, 289–308.
- Jalilvand, M.R. & Samiei, N. (2012). The effect of electronic word of mouth on brand image and purchase intention. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 30(4), 460-476.
- Jetten, J., Spears, R., & Manstead, A. S. R. (2001). Similarity as a source of differentiation: The role of group identification. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 32, 621–640.
- Kaynak, E., & Cavusgil, S. T. (1983). Consumer attitudes towards products of foreign origin: Do they vary across product classes? *International Journal of Advertising*, 2, 147–157.

- Keller, K. (1993). Conceptualizing, Measuring, and Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(1), 1-22.
- Khachaturian, J. & Morganosky, M. (1990) Quality perceptions by country of origin. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 18(5).
- Kreuger (1996) Prabalistic National Stereotypes. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 26(6), 961-980.
- Ladegaard, H. J. (1998). National stereotypes and language attitudes: the perception of British, American and Australian language and culture in Denmark. *Language and communication*, 18, 251-274.
- Lalwani, A.K, Lwin, M. O. & Leng Li, K. (2005). Consumer Responses to English Accent Variations in Advertising, *Journal of Global Marketing*, 18(3-4), 143-165.
- Lambert, W. E., Hodgson, R. C., Gardner, R. C., & Fillenbaum, S. (1960). Evaluational reactions to spoken languages. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 60(1), 44-51.
- Leclerc, F., Schmitt, B.H. & Dube, L. (1994). Foreign branding and its effect on product perceptions and attitudes *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31, 263-270.
- Lim, K. & O'Cass, A. (2001). Consumer brand classifications: an assessment of culture-of-origin versus country-of-origin, *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 10(2), 120-136.
- Lwin, M. O., & Wee, C. H. (2000). The influence of spokesperson race in relation to accents used in television commercials. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 22(Spring), 67-83.
- Magnusson, P., Westjohn, S. & Zdravkovic, S. (2011). "What? I thought Samsung was Japanese": accurate or not, perceived country of origin matters, *International Marketing Review*, 28(5), 454-472.
- Mai, R. & Hoffmann, S. (2014). Accents in Business Communication: An integrative model and propositions for future research. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 24, 137-158.
- McCabe, S. E. (2004). Comparison of Mail and Web Surveys in Collecting Illicit Drug Use Data: A Randomized, *Journal of Drug Education*, 34, 61-73.
- Morales, A.C., Scott, M.L. & Yorkston, E.A. (2012). The Role of Accent Standardness in Message Preference and Recall. *Journal of Advertising*, 41(1), 33-46.
- Ohanian, R. (1990). Construction and Validation of a Scale to Measure Celebrity Endorsers' Perceived Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Attractiveness. *Journal of Advertising*, 19(3), 39-52.
- Ohanian, R. (1991). The impact of celebrity spokespersons' perceived image on consumers' intention to purchase. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 31(1), 46-54.
- Payne, E., Peltier, J., & Barger, V. (2017). Omni-channel marketing, integrated marketing communications and consumer engagement. *Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing*, 11(2), 185-197.
- Percy, L. & Woodside, A.G. (1983). Mediating Effects of Visual and Verbal Elements in Print Advertising Upon Belief, Attitude and Intention Responses. *Advertising and Consumer Psychology*, 171-196.

- Petty, R., Cacioppo, J., & Schumann, D. (1983). Central and Peripheral Routes to Advertising Effectiveness: The Moderating Role of Involvement. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10(2), 135-146.
- Piller, I. (2001). Identity constructions in multilingual advertising. *Language in Society*, 30(2), 153-186.
- Plummer, J. (2000). How Personality Makes a Difference. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 40(6), 79-83.
- Powesland, P.F. & Giles, H. (1975). Speech style and social evaluation. *London, Academic Press*, 218.
- Puzakova, M., Kwak, H. & Bell, M. (2012). Beyond Seeing McDonald's Fiesta Menu: the Role of Accent in Brand Sincerity of Ethnic Products and Brands, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 40, 985-986.
- Reinares-Lara, E., Martín-Santana, J.D. & Muela-Molina, C. (2016). The Effects of Accent, Differentiation, and Stigmatization on Spokesperson Credibility in Radio Advertising. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 29(1), 15-28.
- Samiee, S., Shimp, T., & Sharma, S. (2005). Brand Origin Recognition Accuracy: Its Antecedents and Consumers' Cognitive Limitations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 36(4), 379-397.
- Stephan, W., Ageyev, V., Stephan, C., Abalakina, M., Stefanenko, T., & Coates-Shrider, L. (1993). Measuring Stereotypes: A Comparison of Methods Using Russian and American Samples. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 56(1), 54-64.
- Thakor, M.V. & Kohli, C.S. (1996). Brand origin: conceptualization and review, *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 13(3), 27-42.
- Thakor, M.V. & Lavack, A.M. (2003). Effect of perceived brand origin associations on consumer perceptions of quality, *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 12(6), 394-407.
- Tsalikis, J., DeShields, O.W. & LaTour, M.S. (1991). The Role of Accent on the Credibility and Effectiveness of the Salesperson. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 11(1), 31-41.
- Ustinova, I., Bhatia, T. (2005). Convergence of English in Russian TV commercials. *World Englishes*, 24(4), 495-508.
- Usunier, J.C. (2011). The shift from manufacturing to brand origin: suggestions for improving COO relevance, *International Marketing Review*, 28(5), 486-96.

### **Academic Books**

- Aaker, D. (1991). *Managing brand equity: Capitalizing on the value of a brand name*. New York: Free Press.
- Angelani, A, Englebienne, G, & Migoya, M. (2016). *The never-ending digital journey: Creating new consumer experiences through technology*. Petaluma, CA: Roundtree Press.
- Armstrong, G. & Kotler, P. (2017). *Marketing: An introduction* (13th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Bhaskar, R. & Archer, M.S. (red.) (1998). *Critical realism: essential readings*. London: Routledge.

- Blumberg, B., Cooper, D.R. & Schindler, P.S. (2014). *Business research methods*. (4th ed.). London: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Bruce, G (2010). *Vår fonetiska geografi; Om svenskans accenter, melodi och uttal*. Lund: Studentlitteratur AB.
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods* (5th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods*. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Cardwell, M. (1996). *Dictionary of Psychology*. Chicago IL: Fitzroy Dearborn.
- Cialdini, B. (2010). *Påverkan - teori och praktik*. Malmö, Liber AB.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2000). *Language death*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2002). *The English language*. (2.nd ed.). London: Penguin Books.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- De raad, B. & Perugini. (2002). *Big five assessment*. Germany: Göttingen, Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Dragojevic, M., Giles, H., & Watson, B. M. (2013). *Language ideologies and language attitudes: A foundational framework*. New York, NY: Peter Lang Publishing, Inc.
- Egholm, L. (2014). *Philosophy of science - perspectives on organisations & society*. Reitzel, Hans.
- Fill, C. & Turnbull, S. (2016). *Marketing communications: discovery, creation and conversations*. (7th ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Finch, G. (2000). *Linguistic terms and concepts (How to study series)*. London: Macmillan Press.
- Garrett, P. (2010). *Attitudes to language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Heding, Tilde, Knudtzen, Charlotte F, & Bjerre, Mogens. (2016). *Brand management: Research, theory and practice*. (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Hickey, R. (2015). *Standards of English: Codified varieties around the world (Studies in English language)*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hitt, M.A., Ireland, R.D. & Hoskisson, R.E. (2015). *Strategic management: competitiveness & globalization. Concepts*. (11th ed.) Stanford: Cengage Learning.
- Kortmann, B. & Schneider, E.W. (2004). *A Handbook of Varieties of English*. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Kapferer, J-N. (2008). *The New Strategic Brand Management*. (Chapters 1, 7). London: Kogan Page.
- Kotler, P. & Keller, K.L. (2012). *Marketing management*. (14. ed., Global ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education.

- Malhotra, N. K. & Birks, D. F. (2007). *Marketing Research: An Applied Approach* (3<sup>rd</sup> edition). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Malhotra, N.K., Birks, D.F. & Wills, P. (2012). *Marketing research: an applied approach*. (4. ed.) Harlow: Pearson.
- Malmkjaer, K. (2010). *The Routledge Linguistics Encyclopedia*. (3rd ed.). Abingdon: Routledge. E-book.
- Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS Survival Manual*. (3rd ed.). New York: Open University Press, McGraw Hill Education
- Pereltsvaig, A. (2012). *Languages of the World: An Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Polzehl, T. (2015). *Personality in Speech: Assessment and Automatic Classification*. Cham: Springer International Publishing. E-book.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., Thornhill, A. (2016). *Research Methods for Business Students*. (7<sup>th</sup> edition). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Solomon, M. R. (2015). *Consumer behavior: Buying, having, and being*. Engelwood Cliffs, NJ: prentice Hall.
- Steger, M. (2013). *Globalization: A very short introduction*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.
- Whalen, T. B. (2017). *Complexity, society and social transactions - developing a comprehensive so*. Massachusetts: Taylor & Francis Ltd.
- Worchel, S., Morales, J., Paez, D. & Deschamps, J-C. (1998). *Social identity: International perspectives*. London: Sage.

### **Online Resources**

- American Marketing Association (2016). *Seven Experts On Marketing Problem Five: Dealing With an Omni-channel World*. Retrieved from <https://www.ama.org/publications/MarketingNews/Pages/seven-big-problems-marketing-omnichannel.aspx> (Accessed 2018-03-13).
- Ashton, H. & Shepherd, S. (2013). *UK accents: it's not what you say - it's how you say it*. British Council. 2013-05-17. Retrieved from <https://www.britishcouncil.org/voices-magazine/uk-accents-not-what-you-say-how-you-say-it> (Accessed 2018-05-09).
- Asplund, M. (2017). *IRM: "Rörlig bild går ännu starkare än tidigare"*. Dagens Media 2017-05-31. Retrieved from <https://www.dagensmedia.se/premium/irm-rorlig-bild-gar-annu-starkare-an-tidigare-6852289> (Accessed 2018-05-09) (In Swedish).
- BERG Kommunikation (2018). *BERG Kommunikation*. Retrieved from <https://bergkomm.se/> (Accessed: 2018-02-28) (In Swedish).

Business Dictionary (2018). *Search word: low involvement product*. Retrieved from <http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/low-involvement-product.html> (Accessed 2018-04-21).

Cambridge Dictionary. (2018a). *Search word: Syntax*. Retrieved from <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/syntax> (Accessed 2018-03-05).

Cambridge Dictionary. (2018b). *Search word: Semantics*. Retrieved from <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/semantics> (Accessed 2018-03-05).

Cambridge Dictionary (2018c). *Search word: low-involvement product*. Retrieved from: <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/low-involvement-product> (Accessed 2018-04-21).

CIA (2018). *The World Factbook. Central Intelligence Agency, USA*. Retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/resources/the-world-factbook/index.html> (Accessed 2018-02-28).

Das, S. (2005). *Struth! Someone's nicked me Strine*. The Age 2005-01-28. Retrieved from <https://www.theage.com.au/news/National/Struth-Someones-nicked-me-Strine/2005/01/28/1106850102203.html> (Accessed 2018-03-12).

Doughty, S. (2013). *English is the lingua franca of Europeans as two thirds speak the language which has squeezed out all its rivals*. Retrieved from <http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-2436051/English-lingua-franca-Europeans-thirds-speak-language-squeezed-rivals.html/> (Accessed 2018-02-28).

EF (2017). *EF EPI – English Proficiency Index*. Retrieved from <https://www.ef.com/~media/centralefcom/epi/downloads/full-reports/v7/ef-epi-2017-english.pdf> (Accessed 2018-03-15).

European Commission (2012). *Special Euro Barometer 386: Europeans and Their Languages. European Commission*. Retrieved from [http://ec.europa.eu/commfrontoffice/publicopinion/archives/ebs/ebs\\_386\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/commfrontoffice/publicopinion/archives/ebs/ebs_386_en.pdf) (Accessed 2018-03-15).

Hirsh, Lou. (2018). *Globalization's Impact in Advertising*. Small Business - Chron.com. Retrieved from <http://smallbusiness.chron.com/globalizations-impact-advertising-71068.html>. (Accessed 2018-04-28).

Hyper Island (2018). *About Hyper Island*. Retrieved from <https://www.hyperisland.com/about> (Accessed 2018-02-28).

Institute for Advertising and Media Statistics (2017). *Reklaminvestering 2017*. Retrieved from <http://www.irm-media.se/om-statistiken/arsstatistik/reklaminvestering-2017> (Accessed 2018-05-09) (In Swedish).

Institutet för språk och folkminnen (2011). *Vanliga frågor och svar om svenska dialekter*. Retrieved from <https://web.archive.org/web/20110518034838/http://www.sofi.se/8947#item100300> (Accessed 2018-04-03) (In Swedish).

Institutet för språk och folkminnen (2017). *Uppfattas man olika beroende på vilken dialekt man har?*. Retrieved from <http://www.sprakochfolkminnen.se/sprak/dialekter/fragor-och-svar-om-dialekter/faq/2013-10-21-uppfattas-man-olika-beroende-pa-vilken-dialekt-man-har.html> (Accessed 2018-04-08) (In Swedish).

Jönköping University (2018). *Former students win at the Oscars*. Retrieved from <http://ju.se/en/about-us/press/news/news-archive/2018-03-05-former-students-win---at-the-oscars.html> (Accessed 2018-04-15).



Lund University (n.d.). *Johan Anselmsson, Professor*. Retrieved from [http://portal.research.lu.se/portal/en/persons/johan-anselmsson\(d78c7826-6eb8-4456-8bd0-cee25fcd913f\).html](http://portal.research.lu.se/portal/en/persons/johan-anselmsson(d78c7826-6eb8-4456-8bd0-cee25fcd913f).html) (Accessed 2018-04-29).

Mackhé, P. (2017). 2017 var året då digital annonsering passerade investeringar i TV-reklam. Dagens Analys 2017-12-07. Retrieved from <https://www.dagensanalys.se/2017/12/2017-var-aret-da-digital-annonsering-passerade-investeringar-i-tv-reklam/> (Accessed 2018-05-09) (in Swedish).

Mannell, R. (n.d.). *Impressionistic Studies of Australian English Phonetics*. Macquarie University - Department of Linguistics. Retrieved from <http://clas.mq.edu.au/speech/phonetics/phonetics/ausenglish/impressionistic.html> (Accessed 2018-03-12).

Marketing Science Institute (2018). *Capturing Information to Fuel Growth*. Retrieved from <http://www.msi.org/research/2018-2020-research-priorities/Capturing-Information-to-Fuel-Growth/4.2.-what-key-performance-indices-kpis-metrics-should-be-measured-and-how/> (Accessed 2018-05-01).

McLeod, S. A. (2015). *Stereotypes*. Retrieved from [www.simplypsychology.org/katz-braly.html](http://www.simplypsychology.org/katz-braly.html) (Accessed 2018-04-12).

NE (2018a). Search word: rikssvenska. Retrieved from <https://www.ne.se/uppslagsverk/encyklopedi/l%C3%A5ng/rikssvenska> (Accessed 2018-03-27).

NE (2018b). *Om oss*. NE. 5 feb 2018. Retrieved from <https://www.ne.se/info/om-oss/> (Accessed 2018-04-15) (In Swedish).

Neeley, T. (2012). *Global Business Speaks English*. Harvard Business Review 2012- 09-27. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2012/05/global-business-speaks-english> (Accessed 2018-02-12).

Oxford English Dictionary. (n.d.). Search word: *Received pronunciation*. Retrieved from <http://www.oed.com/view/Entry/272029?redirectedFrom=received+pronunciation#eid> (Accessed 2018-03-12).

Povera, A. (2015). Making English Sarawak's second official language. New Straits Times. 25 nov 2015. Retrieved from <https://www.nst.com.my/news/2015/11/113701/making-english-sarawaks-second-official-language> (Accessed 2018-02-28).

Sen Nag, O. (2017). What Languages Are Spoken In The Netherlands?. WorldAtlas. Retrieved from <https://www.worldatlas.com/articles/what-languages-are-spoken-in-the-netherlands.html> (Accessed 2018-02-28).

Statista (2018a). *Advertising spending in Sweden by media*. Retrieved from <https://www-statista-com.esc-web.lib.cbs.dk:8443/statistics/554466/advertising-spending-in-sweden-by-media/> (Accessed 2018-02-28).

Statista (2018b). *Daily Internet usage rate in Sweden by age group*. Retrieved from <https://www-statista-com.esc-web.lib.cbs.dk:8443/statistics/348215/daily-internet-usage-age-group-sweden/> (Accessed 2018-02-28).

Statista (2018c). *Daily social media usage rate in Sweden by age group and gender*. Retrieved from <https://www-statista-com.esc-web.lib.cbs.dk:8443/statistics/651551/daily-social-media-usage-rate-in-sweden-by-age-group-and-gender/> (Accessed 2018-02-28).

Statistics Sweden. (2011). *Att skriva och utvärdera frågor till en statistisk undersökning*. Statistics Sweden. Retrieved from

[http://www.scb.se/Grupp/Produkter\\_Tjanster/Kurser/\\_Dokument/Att%20skriva%20och%20utv%C3%A4rdera%20fr%C3%A5gor%20till%20en%20statistisk%20unders%C3%B6kning.pdf](http://www.scb.se/Grupp/Produkter_Tjanster/Kurser/_Dokument/Att%20skriva%20och%20utv%C3%A4rdera%20fr%C3%A5gor%20till%20en%20statistisk%20unders%C3%B6kning.pdf) (Accessed 2018-04-07) (In Swedish).

Statistics Sweden (2016). *Var fjärde I Sverige är högutbildad*. Retrieved from <http://www.scb.se/hitta-statistik/sverige-i-siffror/utbildning-jobb-och-pengar/befolkningens-utbildning/> (Accessed 2018-04-26) (In Swedish).

Statistics Sweden (2018). *Befolkningspyramiden visar Sveriges invånare i olika åldrar*. Retrieved from <http://www.scb.se/hitta-statistik/sverige-i-siffror/manniskorna-i-sverige/befolkningspyramid/#a263e4d2-a848-4976-8b24-597887f236aa> (Accessed 2018-05-02) (In Swedish).

SurveyMonkey (2017). *Urvalsstorlek för enkät*. Retrieved from <https://sv.surveymonkey.com/mp/sample-size/> (Accessed 2018-03-28) (In Swedish).

SurveyMonkey. (2018). *What is a Likert scale*. SurveyMonkey. Retrieved from <https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/likert-scale/> (Accessed 2018-04-07).

Tawie, S. (2015). *Sarawak makes English official language along with BM*. The Malay Mail Online. 18 nov 2015. Retrieved from <http://www.themalaymailonline.com/malaysia/article/sarawak-makes-english-official-language-along-with-bm#kCC11jDseUEiVwaS.97> (Accessed 2018-02-28).

The Local (2014). *Introducing: Sweden's five minority languages*. Retrieved from <https://www.thelocal.se/20140820/the-official-swedish-minority-languages> (Accessed 2018-04-02).

The Macquarie Globe. (2007). *Australia's unique and evolving sound*. Macquarie University. Retrieved from <http://www.international.mq.edu.au/globe/2007-34/research> (Accessed 2018-03-12).

The Memory Institute (n.d.). *Remembering Numbers*. Retrieved from <http://www.thememoryinstitute.com/remembering-numbers.html> (Accessed 2018-04-28).

University of Idaho (2016). *Ontology and Epistemology*. Retrieved from [http://www.webpages.uidaho.edu/engl257/classical/ontology\\_and\\_epistemology.htm](http://www.webpages.uidaho.edu/engl257/classical/ontology_and_epistemology.htm) (Accessed 2018-03-20).

# APPENDICES

---

## APPENDIX 1 – INTERVIEW MICHAELA DI DATO

---

**Michaela Di Dato**

*CEO BERG Communication*

**I: Interviewer**

R: Respondent

**I: Can you start by describing what you and your company do?**

R: Okay, so we are BERG which is a communications agency in Stockholm and we work with both the public and private sector. We have been active in communications for about 30 years and do both printed and digital communication, as a result of the digitalization. And we do everything from websites, advertisements, flyers, social media strategies, so a little bit of everything.

**I: Do you make videos at all?**

R: Yes, we often make short movies, up to four minutes.

**I: Do you make the movies yourself or do you hire a third party firm to help out?**

R: It depends on the client's budget. Sometimes they have a really big budget and high demands and in these cases we usually make use of a subcontractor. And in smaller projects, such as interviews or when documenting something smaller, we usually film and cut the video ourselves. So it depends on the budget.

**I: Can you describe the process of making a video?**

R: We start with a startup meeting with the client in which we go through the client's requests and expectations of what the video will do for them. The client doesn't always know what they want other than that they want to make a movie. Then we have to figure out what the function of the video and the target audience is. So this is discussed and we will develop a concept of what we are thinking we should do based on the initial meeting, and what results the video should help reaching. It may be selling more products, increase awareness and followers or spread a message... It depends on the type of content. Then when this concept is approved by the client we start writing the manuscript, which is a storyboard including pictures of what we want it to look like. Different scenarios where it is clear what is happening in the video in terms of visuals, environment and audio. This has to be approved as well and if we need actors and voice-overs etc it is time to start recruiting them at this point. And then it is time to start filming followed but what is usually the most time-consuming part, to go through all material to find the parts that fits with the manuscript. This will ensure that the video fulfill the intended vision. Then we cut the video, add texts and audio, intro and outro. And then it is done!

**I: What would you say that you put most effort on in the process, what is most important? Is it the visuals, the audio, the message?**

R: The most most important part is the manuscript. Because that makes the message. So that the right message is communicated. And then it is the audio because you lose a lot of attention if the audio is bad. If the visuals are not perfect that is often considered more okay by the consumers. While if the audio isn't good they don't want to continue watching.

**I: How do you reason what language you use in the video?**

R: It is the client's choice. Most of our clients, since it is public sector, want to have an English version. An example communication targeting school kids and their parents, in order everyone to understand the information we have made 17 different language adaptations of the video. But that is a requirement from the customer.

**I: When you recruit voice-overs, do you at all consider how the person speaks and accents etc?**

R: If it is English, which is the most common foreign language used, we prefer American English. That is because the tone of voice is very, how can I say it, acceptable. It is easier for people to understand than if they would pay attention to an accent.

**I: Would you say that is the case because people are more used to hearing American English? Or is it just the nature of American?**

R: I think it is because people are used to it.

**I: And by American you mean a very general American or?**

R: Yes exactly.

**I: So by choosing that you have the end consumers in mind?**

R: Yes, exactly. Those who will actually watch the video. So that they will understand the information in the best way possible, we make it easier for that sense (=hearing).

**I: The language chosen... You say that the audio is very important. How important is the language and accents for the end product.**

R: If it is not the purpose for the video... For example in Swedish videos, if the purpose of the manuscript is to convey a humorous feeling, it may be a good idea to use a certain accent. There is a conceptual thinking in why a certain accent should be used. So if the accent is used for a certain purpose it may be a good idea, otherwise the more general/neutral the better. Maybe a bit boring but that is how we think.

**I: It makes sense. So you think more about using accents when it comes to Swedish?**

R: Yes. But that may also be because our clients don't ask for it.

**I: In your opinion, has it become more common to communicate in English than in Swedish?**

R: I actually don't know, I couldn't say for sure. But if I could guess I would say that an English version as an addition to a Swedish video is more common. But not necessarily choose not to make it in Swedish.

**I: Okay so over to another subject. Do you work anything with brand building at all or do you mainly communicate existing brands? Do you make strategies for clients how and what they should communicate in order to be perceived in a certain way?**

R: We always have a dialogue with the client and if they have an established vision we have to act accordingly to that. But we always make it a discussion in which we propose solutions and thoughts on how they can do.

**I: So we investigate whether different accents affect how brands are perceived. And if these result would become certain and confirmed, in terms of brand personality, attention etc. So different advantages and disadvantages you could obtain/avoid by using accents. If there were more information knowledge about this, is that something you would make use of when you create communication?**

R: Yes I would say so. We would definitely have a look at it and make sure it corresponds with the image and brand we want communicate for our client. I don't think it would be crucial (avgörande?) but it would be a way to confirm our choice of language.

**I: Yes because it sounds like you think in that way a little bit for the Swedish language. That if you want a humorous approach you choose an accent from Gothenburg.**

R: Exactly, the accent weight/power (tyngd?) to the message. So yes!

**I: Do you have any other thoughts about accents and languages?**

R: Yes I think it is interesting and fun! I think it is perfect to use in communication to increase for example humour. Maybe not as much if the goal is to communicate something very informative about a science project. My own preference is American!

**I: So that was it! Thank you so much for your help.**

R: No problem at all!

---

## APPENDIX 2 – INTERVIEW DANO MARR

---

**Dano Marr**

*Program Manager for the Motion Creative Program, Hyper Island*

**I: Interviewer**

**R: Respondent**

**I: The purpose of our research is to investigate how language and accents in video commercial affect consumers perception of the brand.**

**Can you describe what Hyper Island is and what the students learn?**

R: Hyper Island is a school for learning specifically around technology and media, for the digital age. And it focuses fundamentally on learning by doing and learning how to learn. The idea is that if the student is presented with a real world problem and put together with a team, they are able to figure it out with everything that is available on the internet. There is so much available knowledge and if you can take what is available online and apply that to real world problems then you are capable of learning much faster than theoretically through a book for example. So that is fundamentally one of the core principles about Hyper Island. So we bring students together to tackle real world problems in the context of school learning.

**I: You mentioned that it is mostly about media and technology, so what do you teach about marketing and advertising?**

R: So my program as well as the other programs have an inextricable relationship with media and advertising. Marketing and advertising but advertising in particular because the school started 1996 being about advertising and how to prepare for the advertising in the age of the internet. So they knew what it was going to look like. So in the motion creative program what the students learn is primarily how to animate but also if they are animating a film, like an advertising film, who do you animate for? How do you get the message and story across for a particular audience? What is it that they need to see, hear and feel to be convinced that this actually meaningful and a touching experience or message that convince me to do whatever I am supposed to do at the end. I would say as it relates to marketing, my students don't spend too much time on marketing. But in terms of message they learn a bit more like who is this message intended to connect to?

**I: And how do you gain insights about the consumers you are trying to reach?**

R: It depends. We employ a variety of methods. Some of it is based on experiment so reaching out and connecting with intended audiences and doing inquiry and research by finding out who is our audience and getting feedback in what makes them interested, or trigger them. So that would be appreciative inquiry interviews. Or just prototyping, start by doing it, put it out there and see what happens. That's sort of the learning by doing attitude. You do it, then ship it and then see what kind of attitude you get and then you are good.

**I: Do you work with brand building at all or is it mainly communication of existing brands?**

R: There is a little bit of that. We have a big variety of brands and some of them are brand new. Because this is the thing, the students get real world problems which include clients. Some of the clients are young and they need to build their brand more before they come out. Some clients are more established and they would just need to continue their existing story already. Then building a story, I don't know if we do that yet. We should.

**I: When the students create motion creatives for commercial use, what factors are they taught to think of? Such as visuals, audio, message etc. Which one is considered most important?**

R: Okay so hierarchy! Most important is the story. How does this message fit in to the client's story, who is the end consumer? Who is going to buy the thing and needs to be moved to take some action? They are the most important thing, and what's the story they are part of. But that is more a strategic level, that's strategy story or whatever you want to call it. And then the students are taught to think about the actual tiny bit of narrative or the story that is happening inside the actual thing that is being shipped, like in the video that they are going to watch. And that becomes the next most interesting thing because that is the emotional part. How do I plug into this? What's the story there? And then the students also learn the visual impression, how do I get the right feeling. And then sound-wise, what are the tones and the techniques and specific flavours that will get different points of view. All these things are about connecting and drawing out an emotion from the viewer. Whoever the viewer is. So it starts from a high level; what's the story? And on a low level; what's the nuances that will give it that extra edge of important feeling.

**I: So is it any part of this that is considered more important than another one?**

R: Okay so, important, and this is not just for you, but sound does not get as much credit as it deserves. It doesn't because it is not visible. But the thing is that if you watch.. So this is also a weird thing about this media (points on iPhone) because we pay a lot less attention to sound unless we are going to podcasts but then it is different. But sound and vision is started to get separated a little bit. But when you have them together it can be very very powerful. But if you take the sound away you lose half of the message, if you only read subtitles. So, music and like small sound effects (skålar glas) all have impact.

**I: And if there was more information about how audio and languages affect consumers, is that something you would make use of in your education?**

R: We already are, next year we are going to put more attention to audio actually.

**I: And have you ever thought of what we are studying, I mean the effects of languages and accents?**

R: No I haven't thought about it.

**I: If you would choose a person to do a voice-over in a commercial, how do you do that? What do you base the decision on?**

R: Well, I think a lot of European people intuitively think about a native English speaker is more proficient. So we just go with that, or that's what the students tend to do. So they pick an American, Swede or Brit somebody who has a professional, neutral sounding accent that isn't obviously from

somewhere. But I guess it becomes obviously from, you know the UK or the US. But sometimes with a Swedish accents it's hard to tell.

**I: So if... I guess that you are doing most projects for Swedish companies?**

R: Yeah, mostly.

**I: So do they most often want the commercial in English? Swedish?**

R: English.

**I: Do you know why?**

R: Well, that is typically a requirement from our side. Typically because our school is an English-speaking school. But I would say maybe a third, that is just an out of the air number but maybe a third ask us to do it in Swedish and then the students deliver it in Swedish.

**I: What is your personal thought on accents and languages? Is it something that you are affected by?**

R: Yeah I'm affected by it. I think that a lot of Americans, like me, have a tendency to think that British accents are more intelligent. I had a conversation with a colleague, he is British and I'm American, so we were kind of more subconscious around each other because of the accent. I don't know why but British people come across as more intelligent and charming. I think it's just interesting generally. I don't know why.

**I: So what do you think of Swedish?**

R: Ehm, what do I think of Swedish? I think it sounds a bit silly. I mean Swedish English accents they are a bit goofy sounding. Haha sorry.

**I: And do you have any other comments that you would like to add?**

R: Hmm, no.

**I: Okay, thank you so much for your time!**

R: It was a pleasure.



---

## APPENDIX 3 – INTERVIEW JOHAN ANSELMSSON

---

**I: Interviewer**

**R: Respondent**

**I: We have sent you a conclusion of our results...[shortly explains the purpose and results again]...What are you spontaneous reactions to this?**

R: Well, that is interesting, in comparison to the thesis I have supervised who looked into Swedish accents, this is even more interesting with different international accents actually. There are global marketing literature that discusses...as you know with global brands the cheapest is to not translate but to be able to do all marketing in English and then you don't have to dub and so. So there is an efficiency thought around only doing the communication in English. I think it is Apple who translates almost nothing and do not adapt anything globally. But then marketing literature says, about this global image you send out, for example using “.com” or English, that consumers think that this global touch represents quality and innovation etc. So there's a very interesting theoretical substance to it. If I discuss with this aspect in mind, I translate it, if it is a Swedish company, what English to use if one is for example Alfa Laval or similar. I think they use English (British) English. But one could consider the other as well, so I think this is really interesting. Then statistically, what I think about is the personalities. Were the interviews conducted with other students, or over Facebook, and was it Danes or Swedes?

**I: It was only Swedes and it was a quantitative study. So we sent out a survey where the first thing that happened was that the four films were randomly distributed among respondents and then the respondents were asked questions about brand personality etc. We have turned to a Swedish target group of 16-46 year-olds.**

R: Well that means that one can imagine these results to also be interesting for international companies who want to enter the Swedish market. How should they do? Should they only go for their English version they might have, or should they translate it. And depending on their strategy and position they find themselves in they can choose strategy accordingly. But back to the statistics; did the personalities go together like Aaker claims or did you have to rebuild them? And what was your type of analysis to figure this out?

**I: It was both consistent and not. We tested it by applying Cronbach's alpha to see if the personalities were consistent. Ruggedness was a bit low, but ok, while sophistication was really low internal consistency so what we did was that we analysed them separately. But for the rest, the consistency was accepted.**

R: That is good. That is usually the issue, that they don't work out as intended. There is a European version, but that does not seem to work either. So it is very dependent on category. What was the product investigated?

**I: Sneakers. So we created our own brand and no logo was displayed or anything.**

R: That is good. And what tests did you apply to display potential differences between the personalities?

**I: We applied a Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA since the data was non-parametric. Some variables we had to analyse differently, but the most common test was Kruskal-Wallis.**

R: That sounds good. What one can say is that when you don't get consistent data it is in itself a theoretical contribution. Say that sophistication cannot be confirmed as consistent, then one can discuss, does it only work in an American context etc. So one can suggest that others, who will work with this framework should

consider another personality index. I don't really remember, but she has Nike so probably she has sneakers in her empiri. But there could be many explanations. Maybe it's too old, maybe it is cultural differences. To come around this issue, you can always limit the conclusions to a Swedish context. But I think that's enough. It is always good to know your limits. Still, one can always make assumptions. For example it could be very category-dependent (product dependent).

**I: Because Sweden is so good at English, and many other countries in Europe are as well. We would not necessarily generalise the exact result, but that the results indicate that there might be differences there as well.**

R: Absolutely, because one can never rule out that they would get the same result. Overall what is interesting, since you use a general marketing model, even if it is not completely consistent, and discover differences that is a general theoretical contribution. Then if companies will react to this, they must of course adjust it to their country, their category and their target group. But what you show is that the language is very important. Then it is also interesting that the results to some parts supports the theory. What's interesting about literature on global branding and global marketing is that there is quite a lot about language because it is an important factor. The thing is that one wants to change and adapt as little as possible when one is about to launch across the globe, so it is only as an exception one should adjust the personality. Then literature also states that when it comes to the tactical marketing language, for example whether it should be in English or in the domestic language, but also the brand name, is one of the most important factors. On a brand level it is a lot about the brand name. At a communicational level, it is a lot about the ads or commercials.

**I: The fact that the different English accents seem to differ in brand perception, how would you say one could use this to create brand image and, as an extension, brand equity?**

R: This company exist in one market and want to expand. So the global perspective on it is that, now we want to enter the Swedish market or another country, we want to adapt as little as possible. We want to keep core values, brand personality, and preferably the ads as well. *But* if you two say now that, now you need to make careful considerations because if you translate your commercial to Swedish it might have effect on the personality. But as you said, it also has effect on how well you get the message. So in general, communicationwise you have some effects, but brandwise you have others. This means there is a trade-off. In the study you ask in detail about the personality, but also do the consumer receive the message, and then also, maybe most importantly, will it actually lead to a purchase and will the consumer like the brand? So different parts of the survey investigates different parts of a strategic decision. In the common global marketing literature, consensus is that one must adapt and especially in terms of language. But, on the other hand, the common global branding literature, says standardise standardise standardise! But that literature do not catch ads and commercials in the same way. So this area of language is a focal point in global marketing and brand building. It is good that you have done literature research within linguistics, but it is actually one of the core items in global marketing and global brand building. So it is highly interesting.

**I: If compared to other aspects, such as visuals. To what extent does the audio matter?**

R: Generally one describes linguistic aspects as environmental factors which one must take into account in global branding and marketing. The language is probably more important than the visuals. For example, already at brand name level, one must consider whether or not one can use the brand globally and there are many examples of stupid things marketers have done. But there is everything from that consumers should be able to pronounce it and remember it to what impression and perception it generates. If the chosen language is English, you get a feeling of international actor, that you care about the whole world and sometimes global companies are even perceived as more CSR-oriented. So the implications are that if you do it in Swedish and trick people that this is a local brand and we adjust, the consumer gets one feeling, while if you do it in another language...I see this of English vs domestic language as one thing, and this with choosing one of the

three English accents as two separate things. And I think that including Australian in your study might even be overdoing it. But it is a very interesting study.

**I: Is this with language and accents in commercial something that is taught at university?**

R: In the global literature, for example Keller, it is highlighted, but I don't know...I would say that in global marketing classes, many think it sounds pretty boring, but when you enter the field of language there is something about the linguistic aspect that is interesting. It is easy to embarrass yourself etc.

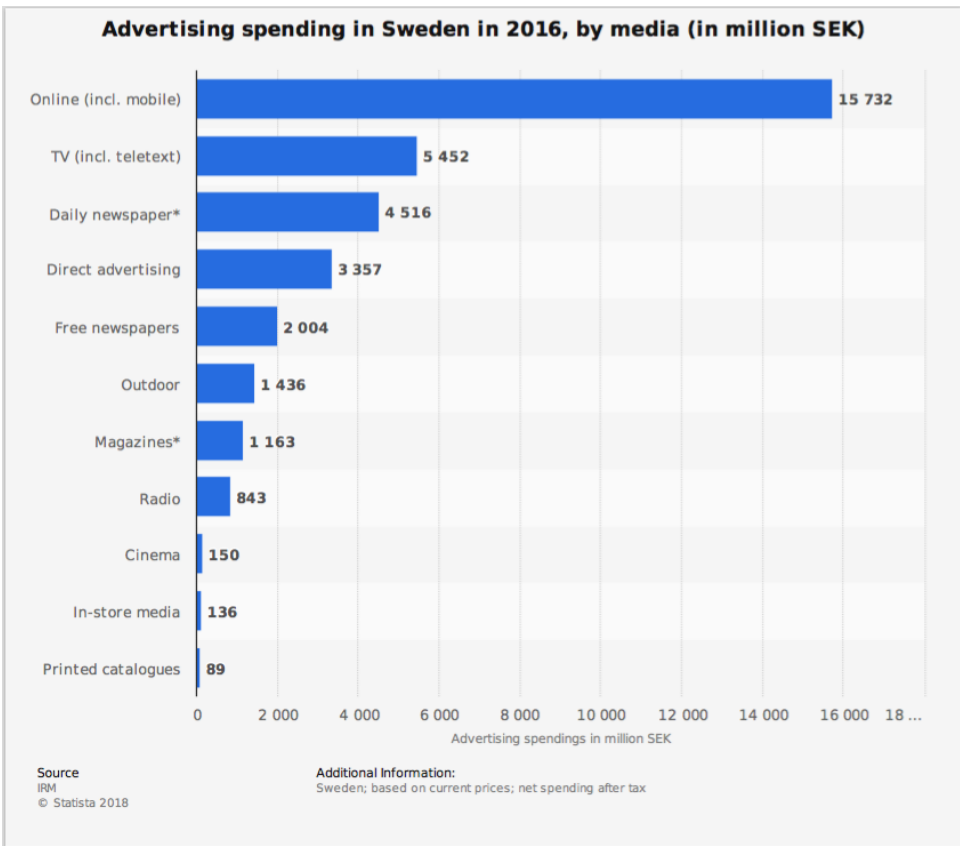
**I: You have said that the results could be interesting for global companies that want to enter Sweden. But looking instead at Swedish companies, what implications that the result has here.**

R: So you mean if you are a Swedish company, say Cloetta (Chocolate producer), and I will make the commercial in Swedish or make it a bit fun by doing it in English?

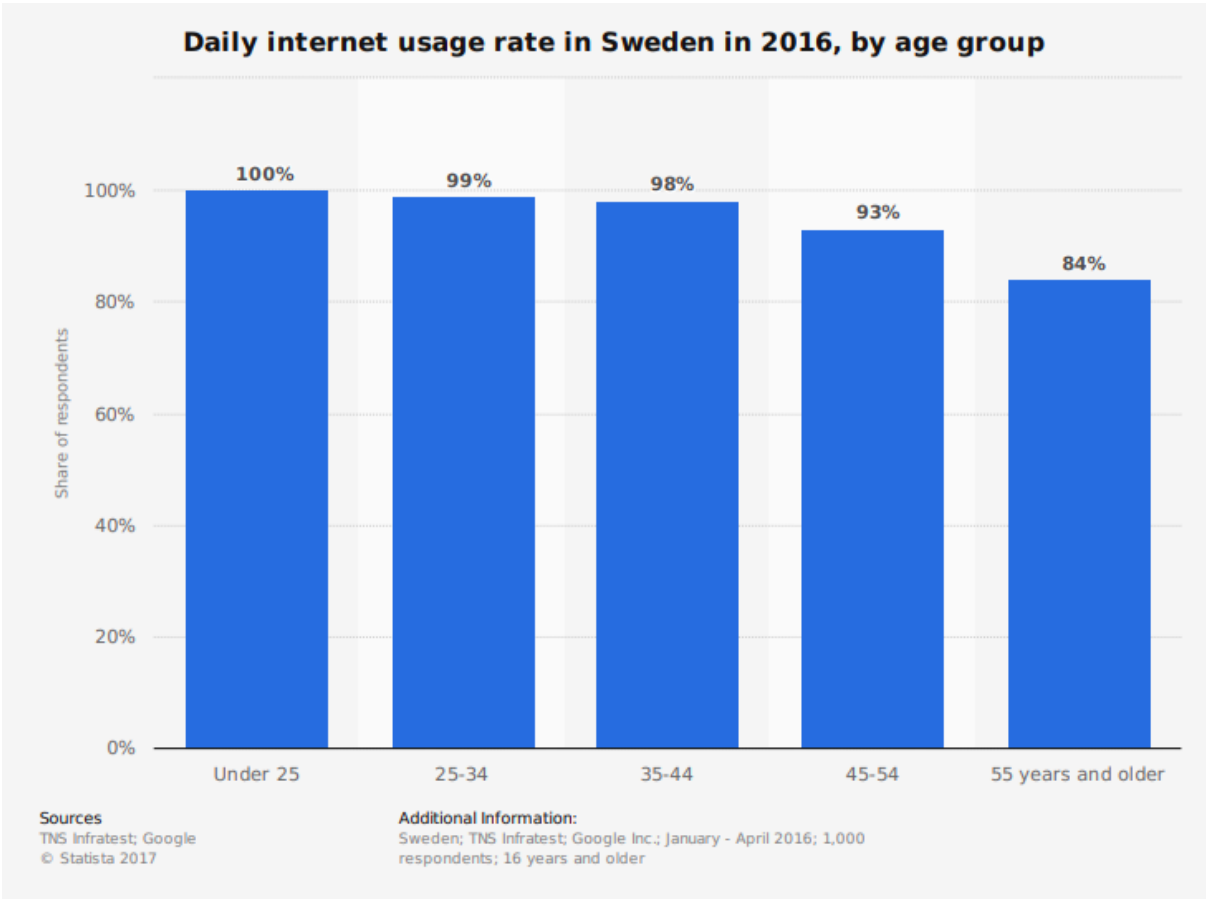
**I: That too, but rather if you are a new company that wants to position yourself.**

R: Alright, because if you are a known Swedish company and all of a sudden they start speak in English then we have a completely different situation. So let's say this is about novel brands or those entering a new market. But I would say it is the same thing here, if you are a Swedish start-up thinking about expanding internationally, with your results in the back, one might go for for example an American accent. But one mustn't forget what one stands for. If it's a Swedish company selling outdoor equipment, well then I should maybe use the Australian accent. But to say this, I would first double-check what happens in for example Germany if I use this accent. I know what will happen in Sweden, but what about the rest of the markets? So that the brand perception will be consistent. It is interesting how you have made this study via Facebook etc, and still got this interesting result so it seems pretty easy for a company to do this type of check.

# APPENDIX 4 – ADVERTISING SPENDING, BY MEDIA



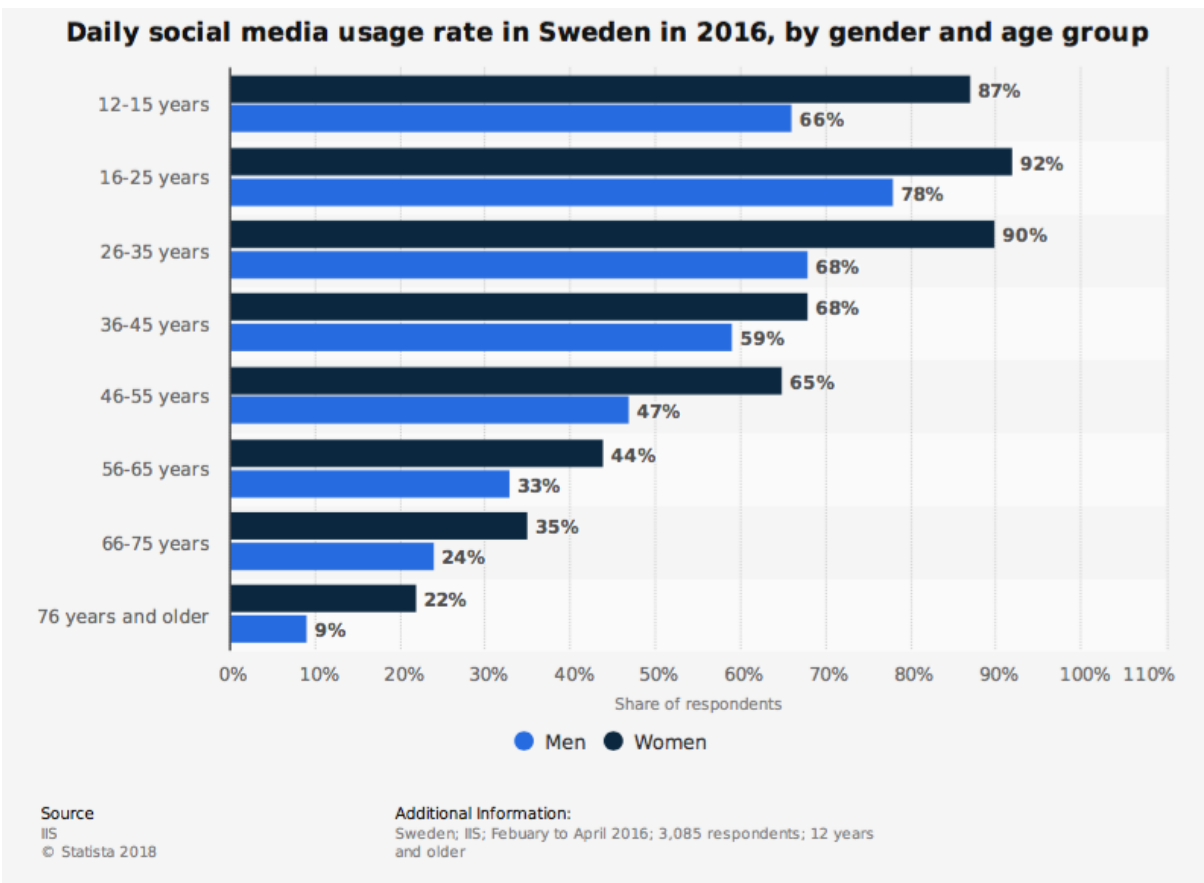
# APPENDIX 5 – INTERNET USAGE IN SWEDEN



---

## APPENDIX 6 – SOCIAL MEDIA USAGE IN SWEDEN

---



---

## APPENDIX 7 – COMMERCIAL MANUSCRIPT

---

We have always believed in making shoes for the everyday - truly great shoes that look good, feel good, and you feel good in. Therefore, for over 50 years, Nilo has cared for design and the best materials, creating timeless classics with an attitude that clearly embraces today's style. Shoes for every occasion, shoes for every day.

---

## APPENDIX 8 – SURVEY

---

Tack på förhand för ditt deltagande i denna undersökning!

Vi heter Julia och Sofie och gör den här undersökningen i samband med vår masteruppsats vid Copenhagen Business School. I undersökningen kommer du få börja med att titta på en kort reklamfilm och därefter svara på ett antal frågor om denna. Enkäten uppskattas ta ca 7 min att genomföra. Alla svar är anonyma och den insamlade datan är konfidentiell och används endast i vår uppsats.

### Är du svensk eller talar flytande svenska?

- (1) ☐ Ja
- (2) ☐ Nej

(If answered 'Nej' on the previous question →) Tyvärr tillhör du inte den målgrupp vi vänder oss till i undersökningen. Men vi vill tacka dig för din vilja att hjälpa oss! Var vänlig tryck på "nästa" för att avsluta undersökningen.

### Klicka på det översta svarsalternativet\*

- (1) ☐ A
- (2) ☐ B
- (4) ☐ D
- (3) ☐ C

*\*The video commercials were randomized depending on which alternative was chosen. The Commercials can be found here:*

British: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jclrl3OecWg>

American: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lQokKo9QTRE>

Australian: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0nahnQxD5hQ>

Swedish: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D2yRGr75oS0>

**Vänligen sätt på ljudet och titta på filmen. (Den är ca 30 s lång). Vi ber dig att endast se filmen EN gång, se därför till att titta ostört.**



Du kommer nu få svara på ett antal frågor om den reklamfilm du precis tittade på.

**Vad heter varumärket? (Om du ej uppfattade namnet välj "Vet ej")**

- (1) ☐ Felo
- (2) ☐ Nilo
- (3) ☐ Siva
- (4) ☐ Jeva
- (5) ☐ Tilo
- (6) ☐ Vet ej



### Varumärket har tillverkat skor i över... (Om du ej uppfattade svaret välj "Vet ej")

- (1) ☐ ...10 år  
(2) ☐ ...30 år  
(3) ☐ ...50 år  
(4) ☐ ...70 år  
(5) ☐ ...100 år  
(6) ☐ Vet ej

### Det här varumärket förmedlar...

	1. Instämmer inte alls	2. Instämmer till liten del	3. Instämmer delvis	4. Instämmer till stor del	5. Instämmer helt och hållet
Expertis	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(6) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Erfarenhet	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(6) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Status	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(6) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Skicklighet	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(6) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Kunskap	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(6) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

### Jag uppfattar det här varumärket som...

	1. Instämmer inte alls	2. Instämmer till liten del	3. Instämmer delvis	4. Instämmer till stor del	5. Instämmer helt och hållet
Uppriktigt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Glatt/gladlynt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Tilltalande	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Vänligt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

	1. Instämmer inte alls	2. Instämmer till liten del	3. Instämmer delvis	4. Instämmer till stor del	5. Instämmer helt och hållet
Livligt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Ärligt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Framgångsrikt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Jordnära	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

### Jag uppfattar det här varumärket som...

	1. Instämmer inte alls	2. Instämmer till liten del	3. Instämmer delvis	4. Instämmer till stor del	5. Instämmer helt och hållet
Fantasifullt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Ödmjukt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Friluftsmänniska	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Uppriktigt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Djärvt/vågat	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Charmigt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Modernt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Tillförlitligt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

## Jag uppfattar det här varumärket som...

	1. Instämmer inte alls	2. Instämmer till liten del	3. Instämmer delvis	4. Instämmer till stor del	5. Instämmer helt och hållet
Pålitligt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Autentiskt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Intelligent	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Trovärdigt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Överklass	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Robust/rejält	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Trevligt	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

## Jag gillar det här varumärket

1. Instämmer inte alls	2. Instämmer till liten del	3. Instämmer delvis	4. Instämmer till stor del	5. Instämmer helt och hållet
(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

## Är det troligt att du skulle...

	1. Inte alls troligt	2. Inte särskilt troligt	3. Ganska troligt	4. Mycket troligt	5. Ytterst troligt
...ta reda på mer om varumärket eller produkten?	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
...överväga att köpa en produkt från det här varumärket?	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

	1. Inte alls troligt	2. Inte särskilt troligt	3. Ganska troligt	4. Mycket troligt	5. Ytterst troligt
...köpa en produkt från det här varumärket till någon annan?	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
...rekommendera det här varumärket?	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

### Förstod du engelskan i reklamfilmen?\*

- (1) ☐ Förstod helt och hållet
- (2) ☐ Förstod delvis
- (3) ☐ Förstod inte alls

\*This question was not shown for those who watched the Swedish commercial.

### Från vilket land bedömer du att personen som pratar i reklamfilmen kommer?\*

- (1) ☐ Storbritannien
- (2) ☐ USA
- (3) ☐ Australien
- (5) ☐ Annat
- (6) ☐ Vet ej

\*This question was not shown for those who watched the Swedish commercial.

### Har du varit i USA?\*

- (1) ☐ Ja, fler än 5 gånger
- (2) ☐ Ja, 3-5 gånger
- (3) ☐ Ja, 1-2 gånger

- (4) ☐ Nej
- (5) ☐ Vet ej

\*This question was only shown for those who watched the American commercial.

### Har du varit i Australien?\*

- (1) ☐ Ja, fler än 5 gånger
- (3) ☐ Ja, 3-5 gånger
- (4) ☐ Ja, 1-2 gånger
- (2) ☐ Nej
- (5) ☐ Vet ej

\*This question was only shown for those who watched the Australian commercial.

### Har du varit i Storbritannien?\*

- (1) ☐ Ja, fler än 5 gånger
- (3) ☐ Ja, 3-5 gånger
- (4) ☐ Ja, 1-2 gånger
- (2) ☐ Nej
- (5) ☐ Vet ej

\*This question was only shown for those who watched the British commercial.

### Hur ofta tittar du på tv-serier, filmer eller annan media på...\*

	Varje dag	Varje vecka	Varje månad	Mindre än en gång i månaden	Aldrig	Vet ej
...amerikanska?	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>	(7) <input type="checkbox"/>
...brittiska?	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>	(7) <input type="checkbox"/>
...australiensiska?	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>	(7) <input type="checkbox"/>

\*This question was not shown for those who watched the Swedish commercial.

### **I vilket land har du bott större delen av ditt liv?**

- (1) ☐ Sverige
- (2) ☐ USA
- (3) ☐ Storbritannien
- (4) ☐ Australien
- (5) ☐ Annat
- (6) ☐ Vet ej

### **Vilket är ditt modersmål?**

- (1) ☐ Svenska
- (2) ☐ Engelska
- (4) ☐ Både svenska och engelska
- (3) ☐ Annat

### **Hur skulle du uppskatta dina engelskakunskaper?\***

- (1) ☐ Dåliga
- (2) ☐ Grundläggande
- (3) ☐ Goda
- (4) ☐ Mycket goda
- (5) ☐ Flytande
- (6) ☐ Vet ej

\*This question was not shown for those who watched the Swedish commercial.

### **Vilken engelsk dialekt skulle du säga att du talar?\***

- (1) ☐ Brittisk engelska
- (2) ☐ Amerikansk engelska
- (3) ☐ Australiensisk engelska

(4) ☐ Annat

(5) ☐ Vet ej

\*This question was not shown for those who watched the Swedish commercial.

## Personlig information

### Ålder

(1) ☐ 0-15

(2) ☐ 16-25

(3) ☐ 26-35

(4) ☐ 36-45

(5) ☐ 46+

### Kön

(1) ☐ Kvinna

(2) ☐ Man

(3) ☐ Annat

(4) ☐ Vill inte uppge

### Nuvarande sysselsättning

(1) ☐ Arbetar

(2) ☐ Studerar

(3) ☐ Annat

### Högsta utbildning (pågående eller avslutad)

- (1) ☐ Grundskola
- (2) ☐ Gymnasium
- (4) ☐ Eftergymnasial utbildning

För att avsluta och lämna in enkäten, vänligen tryck "AVSLUTA"

Tack för din medverkan!



---

## APPENDIX 9 – VARIABLE NAMES

---

Label	Variable name
lang_var	language variety
engl_acc	english accent
language	language
bp_sin	personality sub-trait sincerity
bp_exc	personality sub-trait excitement
bp_com	personality sub-trait competence
sop_upcl	sophistication sub-trait upper-class
sop_charm	sophistication sub-trait charming
bp_rug	personality sub-trait ruggedness
credible	overall source credibility
cred_tru	credibility sub-trait trustworthiness
cred_exp	credibility sub-trait expertise
cred_att	credibility sub-trait attractiveness
likable	likability
purchase	overall purchase intention
prch_inq	purchase intention - inquiring about brand
prch_buy	purchase intention - buying brand
prch_giv	purchase intention buy brand as gift
prch_rec	purchase intention recommend brand
atn_n_dm	attention to brand name
atn_y_dm	attention to brand's years of existence
origin	perceived origin of spokesperson
accent	respondent's english accent
acc_lang	respondent speaks same accent as the spokesperson
visit	no. of visits to the country of the spokesperson
media	frequency of watching media in accent of spokesperson
engprof	english proficiency
age	age of respondent
gender	gender of respondent
occupat	respondent's main occupation
educat	respondent's level of education

---

## APPENDIX 10 – SIGNIFICANCES FOR HYPOTHESES

---

### Results from statistical tests

#### **H1a**

<b>Trait</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>Hypothesis accepted</b>
Sincerity	0.362	No
Excitement	0.820	No
Competence	0.035**	Yes
Upper-Class	0.644	No
Charm	0.255	No
Ruggedness	0.186	No

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

#### **H1b**

<b>Trait</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>Hypothesis accepted</b>
Sincerity	0.028**	Yes
Excitement	0.004**	Yes
Competence	0.002**	Yes
Upper-Class	0.001***	Yes
Charm	0.000***	Yes
Ruggedness	0.013**	Yes

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

#### **H2a**

<b>Trait</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>Hypothesis accepted</b>
Source Credibility	0.934	No
Trustworthiness	0.542	No
Expertise	0.006***	Yes
Attractiveness	0.003***	Yes

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

#### **H2b**

<b>Trait</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>Hypothesis accepted</b>
Source Credibility	0.031**	Yes
Trustworthiness	0.002**	Yes
Expertise	0.631	No
Attractiveness	0.026**	Yes

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

### **H3**

Category	p-value	Hypothesis accepted
H3a – likability language	0.026**	Yes
H3b – likability accent	0.271	No

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

### **H4**

Category	p-value	Hypothesis accepted
Visit	0.167	No
Media	0.234	No
Accent	0.061*	Yes

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

### **H5a**

Category	p-value	Hypothesis accepted
Purchase	0.204	No
Inquiry	0.036**	Yes
Buy	0.111	No
Gift	0.266	No
Recommend	0.795	No

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

### **H5b**

Category	p-value	Hypothesis accepted
Purchase	0.002**	Yes
Inquiry	0.022**	Yes
Buy	0.004**	Yes
Gift	0.001***	Yes
Recommend	0.010**	Yes

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

### **H6a**

Category	p-value	Phi ( $\phi$ )	Hypothesis accepted
Recall of name	0.029**	0.107	Yes
Recall of no. of years	0.132	0.074	No

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

Effect size:  $\phi>0.1$  small,  $\phi>0.3$  medium,  $\phi>0.5$  large (Pallant, 2007)

### **H6b**

Category	p-value	Cramer's V	Hypothesis accepted
Recall of name	0.000***	0.434	Yes
Recall of no. of years	0.219	0.099	No

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

Effect size:  $V>0.07$  small,  $V>0.21$  medium,  $V>0.35$  large (Pallant, 2007)

## **Results from statistics test with grouping on perceived English accent instead of actual.**

(Colored cell indicate *drastic* change)

### **Adapted H1b**

Category	p-value	Hypothesis accepted
Sincerity	0.958	No
Excitement	0.000***	Yes
Competence	0.000***	Yes
Upper-Class	0.001***	Yes
Charm	0.110	No
Ruggedness	0.036**	Yes

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

### **Adapted H2b**

Category	p-value	Hypothesis accepted
Source Credibility	0.053*	Yes
Trustworthiness	0.005**	Yes
Expertise	0.283	No
Attractiveness	0.284	No

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

### **H3**

Category	p-value	Hypothesis accepted
H3b – likability accent	0.015**	Yes

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

**Adapted H4**

Category	p-value	Hypothesis accepted
Visit	0.049**	Yes
Media	0.009**	Yes
Accent	0.002**	Yes

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

**Adapted H5b**

Category	p-value	Hypothesis accepted
Purchase	0.004**	Yes
Inquiry	0.014**	Yes
Buy	0.003**	Yes
Gift	0.017**	Yes
Recommend	0.012**	Yes

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

**Adapted H6b**

Category	p-value	Cramer's V	Hypothesis accepted
Recall of name	0.024**	0.169	Yes
Recall of no. of years	0.335	0.091	No

\*significant at  $\alpha=0,1$  significance level

\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,05$  significance level

\*\*\*significant at  $\alpha=0,001$  significance level

## APPENDIX 11 – STATISTICAL RESULTS FROM SPSS

### H1a

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	<b>Null Hypothesis</b>	<b>Test</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Decision</b>
<b>1</b>	The distribution of bp_sin is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,362	Retain the null hypothesis.
<b>2</b>	The distribution of bp_exc is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,820	Retain the null hypothesis.
<b>3</b>	The distribution of bp_com is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,035	Reject the null hypothesis.
<b>4</b>	The distribution of sop_upcl is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,644	Retain the null hypothesis.
<b>5</b>	The distribution of sop_char is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,255	Retain the null hypothesis.
<b>6</b>	The distribution of bp_rug is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,186	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

## H1b

### Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of bp_sin is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,028	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of bp_exc is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,004	Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The distribution of bp_com is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,002	Reject the null hypothesis.
4	The distribution of sop_upcl is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,001	Reject the null hypothesis.
5	The distribution of sop_char is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,000	Reject the null hypothesis.
6	The distribution of bp_rug is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,013	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

## H2a

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of credible is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,934	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of cred_tru is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,542	Retain the null hypothesis.
3	The distribution of cred_exp is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,006	Reject the null hypothesis.
4	The distribution of cred_att is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,003	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

## H2b

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of credible is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,031	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of cred_tru is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,002	Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The distribution of cred_exp is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,631	Retain the null hypothesis.
4	The distribution of cred_att is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,026	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



### H3a

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of likable is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,026	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

### H3b

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of likable is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,271	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

### H4

**Correlations**

			likable	visit
Kendall's tau_b	likable	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	-,067
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,167
		N	415	312
	visit	Correlation Coefficient	-,067	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,167	.
		N	312	312

### Correlations

			likable	media
Kendall's tau_b	likable	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	-,056
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,234
		N	415	312
	media	Correlation Coefficient	-,056	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,234	.
		N	312	312

### Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of likable is the same across categories of acc_lang.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,061	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,10.

### H5a

### Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of purchase is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,204	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of prch_ing is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,036	Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The distribution of prch_buy is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,111	Retain the null hypothesis.
4	The distribution of prch_giv is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,266	Retain the null hypothesis.
5	The distribution of prch_rec is the same across categories of language.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,795	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

## H5b

### Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of purchase is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,002	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of prch_ing is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,022	Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The distribution of prch_buy is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,004	Reject the null hypothesis.
4	The distribution of prch_giv is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,001	Reject the null hypothesis.
5	The distribution of prch_rec is the same across categories of engl_acc.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,010	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

## H6a

### atn\_n\_dm \* language Crosstabulation

			language		
			English	Swedish	Total
atn_n_dm	incorrect	Count	166	42	208
		Expected Count	156,4	51,6	208,0
	correct	Count	146	61	207
		Expected Count	155,6	51,4	207,0
Total		Count	312	103	415
		Expected Count	312,0	103,0	415,0

### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,785 <sup>a</sup>	1	,029		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	4,300	1	,038		
Likelihood Ratio	4,806	1	,028		
Fisher's Exact Test				,031	,019
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,773	1	,029		
N of Valid Cases	415				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 51,38.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

### atn\_y\_dm \* language Crosstabulation

			language		Total
			English	Swedish	
atn_y_dm	incorrect	Count	230	68	298
		Expected Count	224,0	74,0	298,0
	correct	Count	82	35	117
		Expected Count	88,0	29,0	117,0
Total	Count		312	103	415
	Expected Count		312,0	103,0	415,0

### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,267 <sup>a</sup>	1	,132		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	1,903	1	,168		
Likelihood Ratio	2,212	1	,137		
Fisher's Exact Test				,164	,085
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,262	1	,133		
N of Valid Cases	415				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 29,04.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

## H6b

**Crosstab**

			engl_acc			Total
			british	american	australian	
atn_n_dm	incorrect	Count	24	72	70	166
		Expected Count	55,9	54,8	55,3	166,0
	correct	Count	81	31	34	146
		Expected Count	49,1	48,2	48,7	146,0
Total	Count		105	103	104	312
	Expected Count		105,0	103,0	104,0	312,0

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	58,684 <sup>a</sup>	2	,000
Likelihood Ratio	60,898	2	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	41,478	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	312		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 48,20.

**Crosstab**

			engl_acc			Total
			british	american	australian	
atn_y_dm	incorrect	Count	71	79	80	230
		Expected Count	77,4	75,9	76,7	230,0
	correct	Count	34	24	24	82
		Expected Count	27,6	27,1	27,3	82,0
Total	Count		105	103	104	312
	Expected Count		105,0	103,0	104,0	312,0

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,040 <sup>a</sup>	2	,219
Likelihood Ratio	2,980	2	,225
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,334	1	,127
N of Valid Cases	312		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27,07.