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Acculturation Effects on Preference for English and Spanish-Language TV Commercials Among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican Descent

John Burton

University of Texas at El Paso, jburton@elp.rr.com

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ACCULTURATION EFFECTS ON PREFERENCE FOR ENGLISH AND
SPANISH-LANGUAGE TV COMMERCIALS AMONG
HISPANIC AUDIENCES OF MEXICAN DESCENT

JOHN M. BURTON

Department of Communication

APPROVED :

Kenneth C. C. Yang, Ph.D., Chair

Tom Ruggiero, Ph.D.

Edward Ramirez, Ph.D.

Benjamin C. Flores, Ph.D.
Acting Dean of the Graduate School

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated
to
my beloved Auntie and muse,
Anna Johnell Crimen

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SPANISH-LANGUAGE TV COMMERCIALS AMONG
HISPANIC AUDIENCES OF MEXICAN DESCENT

By

JOHN M. BURTON, B.A.

THESIS

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Abstract

The growth of the U.S. Hispanic population and its purchasing power over the past twenty years continues to be monitored closely by corporate interests anxious to gain market share and brand loyalty of the segment that now represents the largest minority group in the country. Marketers continue to look for competitive advantages in effectively communicating targeted messages to Hispanics in order to increase revenues and profits.

This study focused on the historically dominant mass-reach medium of television and explored concepts of acculturation theory to examine the effects of acculturation sub-dimensions on TV commercial language preference and attitudes among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent. Defined by its geography and bi-national history, the area along the Southwest U.S. – Mexico border in which the study was conducted provided a rich representation of Hispanic individuals, predominantly of Mexican descent, who belong to three different consumer groups that consume both English- and Spanish-language media: the fully-acculturated Hispanic, the partially-acculturated Hispanic, and the non-acculturated Hispanic. By examining a sample of this population under the illumination of previous research literature, the study sought to explore relationships between language use, ethnic identity, and TV commercial language preference and attitude. Moderating effects of gender, generation in the host culture, and bilingualism are also examined. Discussion of findings and the study's limitations are presented and the implications for future research are outlined.

Keywords: Acculturation, Hispanics, Mexican Descent, Language, Ethnic Identity, TV Commercials, Attitude toward the Ad (Aad), Bilingualism.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Battle for the Bilingual

Since Spanish-language television began its rise to viability in the United States in the mid-1970's and 1980's (La Ferle & Lee, 2005; Strategy Research Corporation, 1991; Yankelovich, Skelly & White, 1981), its competitive battle against the well-established English-language networks for a larger share of advertising revenue has been primarily waged over the fastest-growing segment of the Hispanic population – the bilingual. English-language networks and their affiliates have conceded that the Spanish-only and Spanish-mostly audiences prefer Spanish-language programming and its associated Spanish-language commercial announcements. They have long claimed, however, that these stratified groups make up a small percentage of the available U.S. television market and have even attempted to discredit any value of these groups to advertisers by using market-specific quantitative research data to suggest that household incomes, education levels, and behavioral data make the so-called “Spanish-dominant” groups unworthy of overture by advertisers (Scarborough Research, 2000-2011). For their part, the Spanish-language networks and affiliates have claimed that English-only audiences are diminishing rapidly in many markets, are being replaced by bilingual Hispanics through more rapid acculturation, and that their qualitative research indicates that the growing number of bilinguals, along with Spanish-dominant Hispanics, are, indeed, worthy of advertiser interest due to increased buying power, family size, and more active consumer behaviors (La Ferle & Lee, 2005; Pew Hispanic Center, *The Rise of the Second Generation: Changing Patterns in Hispanic Population Growth*, 2003; Roslow & Nicolls, 1996; Scarborough Research, 2000-2011).

Fueling the debate has been the view of many advertisers and advertising agencies that the optimum way to reach Hispanics has been in Spanish (Noriega & Blair, 2008; Strategy

Research Corporation, 1991; Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997). However, as the body of knowledge and research on this market has increased, many now contend that this view is an oversimplification and point to research that strongly suggests the best choice of language and models depends on the level of acculturation of the target audience. Those individuals of recent immigration or who are considered to be low in acculturation may respond more comfortably to advertising messages in their native language but subsequent generations and those who move from low to high acculturation through length of time in the new culture may prefer the use of the host language. Cultural adoption, including language preference, may be measured against multiple dimensions of the acculturation process which will be further explored in the current study's examination of Hispanics of Mexican descent and their preference for language in television commercials.

Previous studies are in almost complete agreement that language is a key variable of acculturation and the most commonly used indicator in all measures but also agree that acculturation is a multidimensional construct most effectively measured through a combination of language and other variables (Hernandez & Newman, 1992). Sociologists Lennon (1976) and Murguia (1975) explored multiple variables to measure acculturation, including urbanization, age, language ability or preference, national origin, number of generations in the host culture, and education. O'Guinn, Faber, and Meyer (1984) proposed a conceptualization of acculturation which utilized role theory to suggest that individuals may be at different levels of acculturation for the different roles they assume, including behaviors such as media use and product consumption. Using variables of age, household size, national origin, and language use, they concluded that acculturation is not composed of just a single underlying dimension, but, rather, is comprised of several "lower-order" constructs that suggest the complexities of acculturation as a

multidimensional concept (p. 116). Other previous multidimensional measures of acculturation indicators specific to advertising language preference and effectiveness have varied by both researcher and type of media under analysis. Some of the indicators used by researchers are: socioeconomic status (O'Guinn & Faber, 1986; Olmeda & Padilla, 1978; Padilla, 1980), place of birth – U.S. vs. foreign born (Padilla, 1980; Valencia, 1985), and language preference or competence (Hernandez & Kaufman, 1991; Olmedo & Padilla, 1978; Telles, Karno, Hough & Escobar, 1987).

Using demographics of age, gender, education and household income, along with a variety of acculturation indicators such as years of residency, country of origin, and language preference for multiple media, most language studies specific to television prior to 1988 generally suggested that viewers of Spanish-language television tended to be lower in acculturation and socioeconomic status than those who watched English-language stations (Dunn, 1975; Duran & Monroe, 1977; Guernica & Kasperuk, 1982; Mandese, 1988). It is this suggestion that has been used extensively by English-language television networks and affiliates to attempt to gain competitive advantage over Spanish-language networks and affiliates in the race to secure advertising investment. However, as the Hispanic population has continued to grow dramatically and Spanish-language media has increased its reach across the United States, more current research has introduced additional concepts and measures to the research narrative. Hernandez and Newman (1992) supported the suggestion of Albonetti and Dominguez (1989) that more empirical research was necessary to replace intuitive marketing decisions with systematic information on the effectiveness of Spanish-language advertisements. They suggested that Hispanics define themselves by cultural symbols other than language and that those symbols should be used to achieve a strong emotional effect on Hispanics of varied acculturation.

Deshpande, Hoyer, and Donthu (1986) also concentrated on ethnic identity and ethnic self-awareness as key moderators of acculturation, suggesting that the self-awareness exists only when people process ethnic information through language and symbols and categorize themselves along ethnic criteria.

A new context for bilingualism was espoused by Tran (2010) who combined four key concepts proposed in previous literature to explore the growth of the bilingual population and the maintenance of dual language skills. First, the rapid increase in the Hispanic population may have produced a “critical mass effect” suggested by Linton (2004) in which the Spanish-speaking population has become sizable enough to encourage Hispanics to maintain their language skills because of its increased support and use. Second, ongoing immigration has led to a constant replenishment of the Hispanic foreign-born stock which necessitates the use of Spanish due to communication with recent arrivals (Jimenez, 2008). Third, the high level of transnationalism among Hispanics provides an additional incentive for Spanish maintenance because fluency in the native tongue is not only a prerequisite, but also a predictor of meaningful and sustained transnational involvement in the second generation (Levitt, 2001; Rumbaut, 2002). Finally, whereas Spanish use was limited to immigration gateways for much of the 20th century, the context of bilingualism has broadened with the recent emergence of new immigrant destinations across the country (Marrow, 2009; Massey, 2008). Tran suggested, therefore, that these dynamics point to the potential “viability of bilingualism” today (p.261). Because of the rise of bilingualism among Hispanic audiences in the U.S., it is important to examine how these viewers respond to advertising messages created and presented in either English or Spanish.

The battle lines over advertising language choice of the bilingual group of Hispanics that is growing both in numbers and in economic influence throughout the U.S. have been clearly

drawn and the resultant competitive dispute over advertising revenue market share continues more vigorously than ever as Hispanic demographics continue to alter the profile of the U.S. population. The present research will attempt to add some new perspective to the debate by exploring the relationship between acculturation, language preference and attitude in processing television commercials. Demographic variables of gender, generation in the host culture, and bilingualism of respondents will also be explored to test any moderating effect. Thus, it hopes to present new communication considerations in the development and implementation of multicultural marketing.

1.2 Hispanic Population, Purchasing Power and Language Use

For centuries, the word “Hispano” has been used to describe the Spanish-speaking inhabitants of what was called Hispania by the Romans and is now called the Iberian Peninsula. In the United States, Hispano has been translated into the term “Hispanic” and is used to describe individuals with both a Spanish-language heritage (Villarreal & Peterson, 2008) and “persons of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin regardless of race” (U.S. Census Briefs, 2010). Acknowledged now as the largest minority group in the country, Hispanics present fertile ground for communication research as the population undergoes fundamental change. Births in the U.S. are outpacing immigration as the key source of growth which will produce over the next twenty years a shift in the makeup of the Hispanic population with the second-generation, the U.S.-born children of immigrants, emerging as the largest component of the population. Given the substantial differences in earnings, education, English fluency, and attitudes between foreign-born and native-born Hispanics, the shift will have numerous implications for researchers seeking to understand the nature of demographic change in the United States (Pew Hispanic Center, 2003). Also fueling the interest in Hispanic

population growth and the efforts to tap into the marketing opportunities that are presented with such growth are the ongoing debates on the myriad of variables that influence Hispanic consumer behavior.

The 2010 U.S. Census indicates a total current Hispanic population of 50.48 million, up 43% since 2000, confirming Hispanics for the first time as the largest minority in the country at 15.5% of the total population, with 2050 estimates at 24.4% (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). Among all Hispanics, 63% are of Mexican origin. Indeed, more than half of the growth in the entire population of the United States between 2000 and 2010 was due to the increase in the Hispanic population and Census projections attribute 60% of U.S. growth to 2050 to this group. Hispanic purchasing power and attractiveness to marketers has also grown with the population, increasing from \$210 billion in 1990 to over \$957 billion in 2010 and estimated to reach \$1.5 trillion by 2015 (Selig Center for Economic Growth, 2010; Synovate, 2010; U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). 2010 Census data regarding language use and income characteristics among Hispanics have yet to be published but 2009 tabulations by the Pew Hispanic Center (see Table 1.1) and data from the 2009 U.S. Census “American Community Survey” (see Table 1.2) indicate that 19.6% of the total U.S population (age 5+) speaks “a language other than English” in the home and, of that number, 62% speak Spanish. Of Hispanics who speak a language other than English at home, 48% speak English “less than very well” and 52% speak English “very well.”

Table 1.1

U.S. Language Use in the Home by Nativity and Race, 2009

Race/Nativity	Only English spoken at home	Language other than only English at home		
		English spoken very well	English spoken less than very well	Total
Hispanic	10,260,275	16,964,183	15,687,756	42,912,214
Native born	9,537,575	12,209,581	3,198,375	24,945,531
Foreign born	722,700	4,754,602	12,489,381	17,966,683
White alone, not Hispanic	177,384,590	7,797,873	3,187,371	188,369,834
Black alone, not Hispanic	32,112,710	1,525,516	768,467	34,406,693
Asian alone, not Hispanic	2,865,528	5,284,108	4,579,205	12,728,841
Other, not Hispanic	6,174,081	915,469	327,182	7,416,732
Total	228,797,184	32,487,149	24,549,981	285,834,314

Source: Pew Hispanic Center, 2009

Table 1.2Languages Spoken at Home and Ability to Speak English for the U.S.
Population 5 Years and Over, 2009

Population / Language Use	Number of Speakers	Speaks English less than "Very Well"
Population 5 Years and Over	280,564,877	24,252,429
Speaks only English at Home	225,488,799	n/a
Speaks language other than English at Home	55,076,078 (19.6% of Total)	24,252,429
Speaks Spanish / Spanish Creole	34,183,747 (62% of Non-English)	16,120,772
Speaks Other Language	20,892,331	8,131,657

Source: U.S. Census "American Community Survey," 2009

More specific to the universe of television households (TVHHs), Nielsen Research (2011) reports that its sample of the top 25 Hispanic television markets, representing 73% of total U.S. Hispanic TVHHs, is made up of 39% “Spanish dominant” (only or mostly Spanish) and 35% “English dominant” (only or mostly English). Characterizing as “bilingual” those who speak something other than “only Spanish” or “only English,” the Nielsen Hispanic Station Index (NHSI) 2012 universe estimates displayed in Table 1.3 provide data indicating that 76% of occupants of Hispanic TVHH’s speak “mostly Spanish,” “mostly English,” or “both Spanish and English.” Along with the language fluency reported by the Pew Hispanic Center indicating that 76% of Hispanics speak a language other than English in the home and with varying degrees of proficiency, this profile of English and Spanish-speaking fluency among U.S. Hispanics would support the focus on bilinguals as the largest segment of the Hispanic population and presents a viable opportunity to explore acculturation effects on TV commercial language preference and attitudes and contribute to a better understanding of communication in a rapidly-evolving process of multicultural marketing.

Table 1.3

NHSI Estimates of U.S. Hispanic TV HHs by Language Strata, Persons age 2+

Market	Only Spanish	Mostly Spanish	Both Span and Eng	Mostly English	Only English	Spanish Dominant
Albuquerque	7,420	34,250	30,750	122,230	72,000	41,670
Atlanta	25,040	61,220	49,340	21,420	8,060	86,260
Austin	13,280	35,550	28,640	64,260	21,420	48,830
Bakersfield	11,520	14,450	31,120	27,040	10,550	25,970
Chicago	54,860	145,640	161,170	98,550	51,460	200,500
Corpus Christi	3,130	15,790	18,130	61,530	12,770	18,920
Dallas	63,080	144,100	120,010	121,260	56,160	207,180

Denver	29,400	62,910	45,270	50,260	49,440	92,310
El Paso	29,890	58,750	60,820	78,910	15,350	88,640
Fresno	36,300	47,190	61,790	74,540	34,450	83,490
Harlingen	27,590	98,220	100,240	76,220	5,780	125,810
Houston	94,800	179,310	146,090	129,650	57,440	274,110
Los Angeles	231,860	428,320	609,740	394,690	211,500	660,180
Miami	198,090	199,730	180,090	130,970	21,280	397,820
New York	223,600	386,860	388,630	257,320	88,730	610,460
Orlando	27,210	43,140	72,120	58,590	24,800	70,350
Philadelphia	28,610	47,790	77,900	61,290	16,560	76,400
Phoenix	32,420	87,540	74,860	95,890	59,740	119,960
Sacramento	39,920	59,650	67,390	58,420	56,360	99,570
San Antonio	14,970	74,040	83,910	182,430	67,510	89,010
San Diego	37,520	66,840	63,470	63,280	23,540	104,360
San Francisco	69,770	94,360	98,540	82,770	69,290	164,130
Tampa	36,400	52,390	54,660	41,210	28,930	88,790
Tucson	11,210	36,210	20,940	45,030	11,450	47,420
Wash, DC	38,460	68,560	57,650	36,670	15,130	107,020
TOTALS	1,386,350	2,542,810	2,703,270	2,434,430	1,089,700	3,929,160

Source: Nielsen Universe Estimates by Language Stratification, 2011

1.3 Hispanics of Mexican Descent

Much of the early scholarly literature on the study of Hispanic acculturation processes focused on Hispanic populations clearly profiled as combinations of people with heritages of Mexican, Cuban, Puerto Rican, Dominican or other Spanish-speaking nationality, or simply

profiled as Hispanic and Spanish-speaking (Ueltschey & Krampf, 1997). The late 1970's, however, brought a surge of research that was specific to Mexican-Americans and Mexican immigrants, particularly in the development of scales with which to operationalize the study of acculturation variables. These models and their adaptations have served as the basis of much acculturation research in the decades since. Acculturation studies that have specifically focused on Mexican Americans did so because the ethnic group represented the largest percentage of the Hispanic minority in the U.S. (Olmeda & Padilla, 1978), differed from the Anglo culture on numerous psychological dimensions (Holtzman, Diaz-Guerrero, & Swartz, 1975), demonstrated a wide range of variability in the extent to which individuals have adopted the sociocultural characteristics of the Anglo society (Mercer, 1976, cited in Olmeda & Padilla, 1978), and the individual differences in acculturation appeared to be critical to a number of areas of psychological functioning and assessment (Olmeda, 1977). Subsequent research (Cuellar, Arnold & Maldonado, 1995; Cuellar, Harris & Jasso, 1980; Deyo, Diehl, Hazuda & Stern, 1985; Montgomery, 1992; Padilla, 1980; Prislin, Suarez, Simpson & Dyer, 1998), followed with specific emphasis on Mexican American acculturation and produced multi-factor rating scales to assess cultural preferences and behavioral tendencies of the group. Selection of the Mexican-American Hispanic in some studies may have been simply a matter of convenience, given the geographical location of the researcher and/or the majority of the ethnic group at that place and time.

Ueltschey (2001) justified her Mexican-American sample simply by declaring that “the ethnic group is constantly replenished with new immigrants fresh over the border, so that all levels of acculturation can be found at any point in time” (p. 1). The present study also focuses on Hispanics of Mexican descent that nationally account for a sizable majority of the U.S.

Hispanic population (U.S. Census, 2011) and may be sampled along a Southwest U.S. – Mexico border long defined by its geography and bi-national history. The area also provides a rich representation of Hispanic individuals who belong to three different groups that consume both English and Spanish-language media: the fully-acculturated Hispanic, the partially-acculturated Hispanic, and the non-acculturated Hispanic. As such, the availability of a robust population sample to support the current study's focus on the largest sub-group of U.S. Hispanics and possible effects of acculturation on their language, media behaviors and attitudes presents a viable research opportunity.

1.4 The Rise of Multicultural Marketing

Mueller and Yang (2007) has suggested that “multicultural marketing” should be the focus of U.S. marketers as the mix of culturally unique groups such as African-Americans, Asians, and Hispanics is large and growing and should be treated as if the multicultural consumer is imbued with a unique homogeneous identity (Mueller & Lang, 2007). Korzenny (2008), however, argued against the belief that new emerging minorities will become “part of the next iteration of the melting pot symbology of the early 1900's” and suggested that it is the shared experience of ethnic groups that makes the aggregate multicultural, not the individuals (p. 173). Acknowledging the growing diversity of ethnic populations in the United States and the abundance of time and monetary investment spent on attempts to more effectively communicate advertising messages to them, the current research prefers to focus on Hispanics of Mexican origin as the largest and fastest growing ethnic group in the country.

Currently, 63% of all U.S. Hispanics are of Mexican origin, representing 59% of all Hispanic buying power (Packaged Facts, 2010), and Census estimates project Mexican-origin Hispanics to represent almost 70% of all U.S. Hispanics by 2020 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011).

As this group currently represents a majority of both Hispanic population and purchasing power and is estimated to continue to grow in numbers and significance for years to come, the current research will focus on Hispanics of Mexican origin as a population of great interest to marketers, particularly in the Western and Southwestern regions of the country which have higher percentages than the national profile. Additionally, the present location on the Southwest U.S. – Mexico border available for conducting the current research is clearly defined by its bi-cultural history and provides a rich representation of Hispanic individuals, predominantly of Mexican descent, from which to collect data for analysis. The study hopes to provide current information that will provide marketing managers a new perspective on language processing of advertising messages and attitudes of Hispanic consumers toward commercial outreach. Such information may have implications for development of advertising strategies across multimedia platforms, including effective language use; use of models, characters and symbols, and creative message executions in communicating to Hispanic audiences.

1.5 Justifications of This Study

In addition to the managerial implications for multicultural marketing professionals, numerous academic studies have explored acculturation, language preference and attitudes of Hispanics in consuming different media and attempted to measure and explain the effectiveness and persuasiveness of media advertising in different languages. Relatively little, if any, research, however, has specifically investigated the relationship between acculturation and a person's stated preference for the language used in television advertising or his/her attitudes in processing the commercial messages. As the most powerful mass-audience medium historically generating the largest share of consumer advertising spending in the U.S. (eMarketer.com, 2011), commercial television offers a rich and important field of study in which to explore the

dimensions of acculturation that may moderate a Hispanic's commercial language preference and attitude through behavioral, affective and cognitive processes. Assuming preference to represent a person's specific option for comfort and meaningfulness in language use as opposed to a need or obligation to use a certain language within a given communicative interaction, the present research attempts to isolate a focus on television commercial language preference and attitude and study the impact of acculturation and its sub-dimensions on language preference and attitude among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent. The present study does not address issues of advertising effectiveness per se, including consumer motivations, brand recall, or other variables in the creation, delivery, and consumption of specific media or associated advertising messages. Rather, it intends to utilize concepts of acculturation theory to examine and quantify an area of research that appears to have been overlooked in much of the previous literature, i.e., television commercial language preference and attitude among viewers of Mexican descent. Using established and modified acculturation scales for Mexican-Americans, the research will attempt to provide a more thorough understanding of how acculturation accounts for Hispanic audiences' language preference and attitudes.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 An Overview of Acculturation Theory

Social scientists have long theorized about the process by which newcomers become incorporated into a mainstream culture. With its roots in anthropology, a general definition of acculturation is “the process through which immigrants begin to understand and then adopt at least some of the norms, values, and behaviors of the host culture” (O’Guinn & Faber, 1985, p.113). While simple, this definition represents over a century of study and analysis into the essence of cultural adjustment and various models to operationalize both contrasting and complementary theories of the acculturation and assimilation processes within multicultural societies. The considerable debate over acculturation theory and measurement has contributed to a perplexing state of acculturation research. Recent qualitative and quantitative studies of acculturation have drawn from earlier analyses and have crossed over various disciplines of *sociology* (Miller, Barnes, & Hartley, 2011; Ramirez, 2007); *behavioral science* (Guinn, Vincent, Wang, & Villas, 2011); *political science* (DeSipio & Uhlaner, 2007; Michelson, 2003); *education* (Carranzo, You, Chhoun, & Hudley, 2009); *anthropology* (Leal, 2011); *cultural studies* (Cote, 2006); *psychology* (Meyler, Stimpson, & Peek (2006); *health science* (Lee, Goldstein, Brown, & Ballard-Barbash, 2010); and numerous others.

Beginning in 1914, Robert Park, a sociologist at the University of Chicago and best known of the so-called “melting pot theorists,” undertook the study of what happens to people of diverse cultures and languages when they come into contact with one another (Padilla & Perez, 2003). He drew on an ecological framework that advanced a three-stage model – contact, acculturation, and assimilation (Persons, 1987). The model, which is considered a cornerstone in the study of post-immigration adjustment, theorizes that contact between peoples from different

cultures encourages them to seek ways to accommodate each other as a means to avoid conflict, thus shaping intergroup relations between different ethnic communities. Immigrants adopt the language, manners, social ritual, and outward forms of the adopted country and the differences between the races are gradually erased (Padilla & Perez, 2003).

“According to Park, as immigrants learned to accommodate the dominant group, a process of cultural assimilation ensued culminating in intermarriage and amalgamation. For Park, the process leading to cultural assimilation was progressive and irreversible and contributed to the ethos of America as a country of immigrants” (p. 36).

Anthropologists were next to expand on the three-stage model with Redfield, Linton, and Herskovits (1936) theorizing that acculturation occurs when groups of individuals from different cultures come into continuous contact with one another and, subsequently, changes occur in the original cultural patterns and behaviors of either or both groups. Continuous first-hand contact is the essential ingredient of acculturation and change in cultural patterns is essential for at least one of the two groups in contact. However, acculturation did not imply that assimilation would follow automatically.

In 1954, other social scientists under the auspices of the Social Science Research Council, expanded upon Redfield et al. (1936) by adding a psychological dimension to the acculturation process. Their definition stated:

“Acculturative change may be the consequence of direct transmission; it may be derived from non-cultural causes, such as ecological or demographic modifications induced by an impinging culture; it may be delayed, as with internal adjustments following upon the acceptance of alien traits or patterns;

or it may be a reactive adaptation of traditional modes of life. Its dynamics can be seen as the selective adaptation of value systems, the processes of integration and differentiation, the generation of developmental sequences, and the operation of role determinants and personality factors” (Social Science Research Council, 1954, p. 974).

This expanded view of acculturation added value systems, roles, and personality factors to the discussion of how individuals accommodate when they come into contact with each other. The significance is that the model provides for choice in the acculturation process, allowing persons involved in intergroup contact to decide what elements of their culture they wish to give up and what elements they want to incorporate from the new culture (Padilla & Perez, 2003).

Psychological perspectives on acculturation continued with Teske and Nelson (1974) who suggested that acculturation not only included values but also changes in material traits, behavior patterns, norms, and institutional changes. Berry (1980) followed with the view that acculturation included four varieties of adaptation: assimilation, or eschewing the heritage language, identity, attitudes and behaviors in full favor of those of the host society; integration, or finding a functional middle ground between both cultures; rejection of the host culture while maintaining a presence within it; and deculturation, or returning to the cultural heritage after some level of acculturative adoption had occurred. Berry’s model incorporated language of the ethnic revival movement beginning in the 1970’s and held that a minority person or group could reverse their acculturation process to the dominant group and return to their former cultural heritage. Thus, acculturation was not seen as a strictly unidimensional process of cultural change but as a process forced by intergroup contact with multiple outcomes and dimensions, including acculturative stress (Padilla & Perez, 2003). The more immediate outcomes of the acculturation

process, including behavioral changes and acculturative stress manifested through alienation, loss of identity and even marginalization, are known to be a function of what people try to do during their acculturation. The longer term outcomes of both psychological and sociocultural adaptations, however, often correspond to the strategic goals set by the groups of which individuals are members (Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987).

“The importance of Berry’s model was that it recognized the importance of multicultural societies, minority individuals and groups, and the fact that individuals have a choice in the matter of how far they are willing to go in the acculturation process” (Padilla & Perez, 2003, p.37).

Marin (1992) proceeded with a conceptualization of acculturation as having three levels: a) a superficial level involving the learning of facts that are a part of one’s cultural traditions and history, including changes in such choices as media consumption and food preferences; b) an intermediate level including behaviors central to a person’s social life, including language use and ethnic identification of friends, neighbors and spouse; and c) a significant level of more permanent cultural learning or adoption, including values and norms. Similarly, Cuellar, Arnold, and Gonzalez (1995) defined acculturation in terms of changes at three levels of functioning: behavioral (e.g., language, customs, foods, and cultural expressions including music preference); affective (e.g., emotions that have cultural connections about aspects of self-identity and meanings one attaches to him/herself; and cognitive (e.g., beliefs about gender roles, attitudes about illness, and fundamental values). These multidimensional measures, along with previous references, would lend some veracity to the assertion that “much of the literature on acculturation has been mired by a lack of consensus regarding the definitions to be employed.

Culture is one of the most complex terms in the human vocabulary, making its very definition problematic in research” (Valencia & Johnson, 2008, p.39).

Padilla (1980) presented multidimensional models of acculturation that relied on two major constructs – cultural awareness and ethnic loyalty. Cultural awareness represents the knowledge that individuals have of their cultures of origin and of the host culture, including such things as language proficiency in each culture, knowledge of significant historical events that shaped the cultures, an understanding of and appreciation for the artistic and musical forms of the cultures, and awareness of the standards of behavior and values that determine how people conduct themselves. Ethnic loyalty, on the other hand, depends on the self-ascribed ethnicity of individuals, the ethnic group membership of their friends, and preferences for such things as recreational activities. This work reinforced earlier research supporting the cultural effects on consumer behavior (Henry, 1976; Howard & Sheth, 1969; Sturdivant, 1973) and suggested that the degree of ethnic identification felt by an individual with a given ethnic group largely determines the level of commitment he/she experiences regarding the norms of the group and the influence of the group on his/her actions and attitudes (Hirschman, 1981). Kara and Kara (1996) studied ethnic identification in the processes specific to consumer acculturation and Forehand and Deshpande (2001) followed later with a model that keyed on a similar ethnic self-awareness which the researchers described as “a temporary state during which a person is more sensitive to information related to his or her own ethnicity” (p. 336). While focusing on ethnic self-awareness as a moderator of consumer response to targeted advertising, this model does provide further examination of earlier dimensions of acculturation.

Other theoretical approaches held that acculturation was the polar opposite of ethnicity and that immigrants were viewed as either ethnically bound or acculturated and nothing in

between (Chang, 1972, cited in O'Guinn & Faber, 1985). This view was disputed in later research that proposed a bipolar unidimensional model treating ethnicity and acculturation as anchor points along a continuum. An individual thus may be perceived as being more or less acculturated at any given point of time (Kim, 1979; Phinney, 1990). A contrasting bidimensional model viewed an individual's relationships with both the original and receiving cultures as two independent processes (Berry, 1992, 1998). A subsequent conceptualization utilizes "role theory" to suggest that individuals may be at different levels of acculturation for the different roles they assume in the course of their daily lives (O'Guinn, Faber, & Meyer, 1984). Each role may bring into play a different level of acculturation. Examining these roles in the home vs. work, school, or social situations outside the home, along with attitudes and behaviors in multiple situations of interaction, suggests that language use is an integral construct in role theory, a key indicator of acculturation, and most commonly used in all measures (Burnam, Telles, Karno, Hough, & Escobar, 1987; Cuellar et al., 1980; Mainous, 1989).

Acculturation as psychosocial adaptation involves more than simply becoming knowledgeable of the language, norms, and values of the new culture and can involve a fundamental change which includes relearning the meaning of symbols, readjusting to a new value system, and letting go old beliefs, customs and behaviors (Burnam et al., 1987). It follows, therefore, that acculturation phenomenon impacts individuals at all levels of functioning, including behavioral, affective, and cognitive. The behavioral level includes many types of behaviors, including language use in different contexts, work and leisure time activities, food and music preferences, and relationships with family and friends. Obviously, language development includes aspects of cognitive and related processes and affective levels of acculturation represent emotions that have strong cultural connections. The present research, however, is focused

primarily on behavioral aspects of acculturation as variables that are most relevant to an exploratory study of television commercial language preference and attitude.

2.2. Acculturation Scales

Numerous scales have been previously developed to operationalize measurement of acculturation and its effects on Hispanics generally and on Mexican-Americans specifically. From Olmeda and Padilla's Chicano Adolescent Acculturation Scale (1978) to the Acculturation and Nutrition Needs Assessment authored by Fitzgerald et al. (2006), different measures have been developed and utilized in research of Hispanic acculturation as a moderator of attitudes and behaviors in social science, health science and other disciplines. Each used different or modified variables of acculturation measurement to explore its dynamic and multidimensional characteristics and to quantify participants' cultural and social knowledge, behaviors, and attitudes on responses to such factors as length of time in the new culture, nativity, language and media preferences, and other subjective measures determined to be important to the specific study undertaken. Scales have ranged from the use of a single-item index, such as ethnicity (Ranieri, Klimidis & Rosenthal, 1994) or language (Tharp, Meadow, Lennhof & Satterfield, 1968), to the use of multidimensional items such as language use, ability and knowledge as a single indicator of acculturation (Deyo et al., 1985), and to the broader use of a wide range of items on the behavior that characterizes an acculturating individual, e.g., language and media use, nationality, level of contact and length of contact with the host and heritage societies (Cuellar et al., 1980). Table 2.1 provides a summary of the more significant Hispanic-specific acculturation measures among the many that have been reviewed for precedent in the current research:

Table 2.1

Reviewed Acculturation Measures Specific to Hispanics in the U.S.

Authors	Study Group	Measure	Scale Content
Olmeda and Padilla (1978)	924 Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans	Chicano Adolescent Acculturation Scale	Sociocultural demographics and nationality, 20 items
Cuellar et al. (1980)	222 Mexican-American psychiatric patients and hospital staff	Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (ARSMA)	Language, ethnic/cultural identity and interaction, family nativity; 20 items
Padilla (1980)	381 Mexican-American mental health patients	Padilla's Acculturation Scale	Cultural awareness and ethnic loyalty, 26 items
Franco (1983)	175 Mexican-American elementary school children	Children Acculturation Scale	Language, social contacts and cultural participation, 10 items
Deyo et al. (1985)	2,885 Mexican-Americans and non-Hispanic Whites	Simple Language-Based Acculturation Scale for Mexican Americans	Language scale, 4 items
Marin, Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, and Perez-Stable (1987)	591 Mexican-Americans, Cubans and Central Americans	Short Acculturation Scale for Hispanics	Language scale, 12 items
Burnam et al. (1987)	1,245 Mexican-Americans	Los Angeles Epidemiological Catchment Area (LAECA) Scale	Language and cultural participation, 26 items
Hazuda et al. (1988)	3,078 Mexican-Americans and non-Hispanic Whites	San Antonio Health Study Scale	Language and cultural participation, traditional values and preferences; 31 items
Mainous (1989)	991 Mexican-Americans	Mainous Acculturation Scale	Language and self-concept, 9 items

Cuellar et al. (1995)	379 Mexican-Americans and non-Hispanic Whites	Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican-Americans II (ARSMA II)	Language and lifestyle preference and attitudes, 12 items + 18 optional
Norris et al. (1996)	684 Puerto Rican and Mexican-Americans, 15-24 years old	Brief Acculturation Scale for Hispanics	Language use and generation, 4 items
Dawson, Crano, and Burgoon (1996)	790 Hispanic-Americans	Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican-Americans – Short Form	Language, socioeconomic factors, education; 20 items
Marin and Gamba (1996)	254 Hispanics and non-Hispanics	Bidimensional Acculturation Scale for Hispanics	Language, media preference, generations; 24 items
Murguia, Zea, Reisen, and Peterson (2000)	340 Hispanics	Cultural Health Attributions Questionnaire	Positive and negative health experiences, 12 items; used focus groups in scale development
Zea, Asner-Self, Birman, and Buki (2003)	246 Hispanic college students	Abbreviated Multidimensional Acculturation Scale	Nativity, residency, language and cultural competence; 42 items
Fitzgerald et al. (2006)	200 Puerto Rican, adolescent and middle-age females	Acculturation and Nutrition Needs Assessment	Socioeconomic and lifestyle factors, 32 items

Three of the most widely cited and emulated studies of acculturation and from which the present research draws much of its measure of independent acculturation variables are Burnam et al.'s (1987) measurement of acculturation in a community population of Mexican Americans, Cuellar et al.'s (1980) Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (ARSMA), and its revised study, ARSMA-II, published by Cuellar et al. in 1995. Burnam et al. (1987) developed and used the Los Angeles Epidemiological Catchment Area (LAECA) Acculturation Scale, which drew from the original ARSMA scale, in its research on a sample of 1,245 adult Mexican

Americans residing in Los Angeles. Conceptually, the researchers wished to focus on a broad range of behaviors which reflected degree of involvement in Hispanic culture relative to the Anglo American culture and found Cuellar et al.'s (1980) ARSMA appropriate for a personal survey interview which could be administered to both Mexican Americans and other Hispanic origin adults. ARSMA had consistently demonstrated adequate levels of reliability and validity and allowed for a measurement of acculturation "in a comprehensive fashion, including language preference and use in a variety of contexts, ethnic background and identification, culturally-linked customs and habits, and ethnic interaction" (Burnam et al., 1987, p. 113). The original 20-item ARSMA scale was based on four empirically-derived factors: the first factor was language use and preference; the second was ethnic identification and generation; the third was language of reading and writing, and general cultural heritage and exposure; and the fourth was ethnic interaction, or the ethnicity of persons with whom the respondent associated. These dimensions were subsequently isolated and each validated in further factor analysis conducted by Montgomery and Orozco (1984). Since ARSMA had used a self-administered format and LAECA was using an interview format, some items in the LAECA scale were modified for presentation clarity in an interview protocol. Variables specific to items of the LAECA scale and compared to variables of the ARSMA and ARSMA-II scales are outlined in Table 2.2 below.

ARSMA-II (Cuellar et al., 1995) revised the original ARSMA (Cuellar, et al., 1980) for the purpose of extending ARSMA's capabilities as an instrument in the assessment of acculturation processes at the individual level and to develop an instrument that assessed acculturation through an orthogonal, multidimensional approach that would build on ARSMA's more linear representation of the acculturation process. Acknowledged by some researchers as a limitation of the study, the original ARSMA (1980) measured acculturation along a line

representing Mexican culture at one extreme and U.S. culture at the other extreme, categorizing individuals undergoing the process of acculturation at some point along this line. As linearly defined, acculturation is represented as a function of movement in one direction along the continuum with corresponding reduction along the other direction of the continuum, i.e., “as one increases their orientation in one culture there is a corresponding reduction in the other” (Cuellar, et al., 1995, p. 276). While Montgomery and Orozco (1984) defined the original ARMSA as a multidimensional scale in that it measured four factors of acculturation, Cuellar, et al. (1995) saw a need to revise the original scale to more fully measure biculturals with characteristics relative to two cultures by using a multidimensional orthogonal frame employing two independently derived axes with four quadrants as described in Cartesian analytic geometry (Hill & Linker, 1960, as cited in Cuellar, et al., 1995). The researchers also added an 18-item second scale to ARSMA-II which tested for affective measures of acculturation through the assessment of both positive and negative affirmation of ethnicity and thus allowed the development of two independent measurements of orientation toward the Mexican and Anglo cultures. ARSMA-II retained construct equivalence with the original ARSMA, however, as it had developed an index of acculturation that could provide moderator variables in clinical practice and research and had, since its first publication, been the most cited and popular measure employed in scholarly research to assess acculturation. Both ARSMA-II and LAECA retained and built on the original ARSMA measurement items as seen in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2

A Comparative Summary of Variables in ARSMA, LAECA and ARSMA-II Scales

ARSMA (20 items) ^a	LAECA (26 items) ^b	ARSMA-II (Scale 1, 30 items) ^c
1. Language spoken	1. Generation	1. Speak Spanish
2. Language preferred	2. Language spoken	2. Speak English
3. Ethnic identification of self	3. Language preferred	3. Enjoy speaking Spanish
4. Ethnic identification of mother	4. Language use with spouse	4. Associate with Anglos
5. Ethnic identification of father	5. Language use with children	5. Associate with Mexicans and/or Mexican-Americans
6. Ethnic origin of friends/peers up to age 6	6. Language use with parents	6. Enjoy listening to Spanish-language music
7. Ethnic origin of friends/peers from 6-18	7. Language use with co-workers	7. Enjoy listening to English-language music
8. Ethnicity of current associates in outside community	8. Language use with friends	8. Enjoy Spanish-language TV
9. Language of music preference	9. Language of TV viewing	9. Enjoy English-language TV
10. Language of TV viewing preference	10. Language of radio listening	10. Enjoy English-language movies
11. Language of movie preference	11. Language of thinking	11. Enjoy Spanish-language movies
12. Nearest generation of family born in Mexico	12. Language reads better	12. Enjoy reading in Spanish
13. Where raised	13. Language used with reading	13. Enjoy reading in English
14. Contact with Mexico	14. Language writes better	14. Write in Spanish
15. Food preference	15. Ethnicity of people in neighborhood	15. Write in English
16. Language for thinking	16. Ethnicity of co-workers	16. Think in English
17. Language read better	17. Ethnicity of close friends	17. Think in Spanish
18. Language write better	18. Proportion of time eating Hispanic foods	18. Frequency of contact with Mexico

19. Pride in group identity	19. Proportion of time listening to Latin music	19. Frequency of contact with USA
20. Rating of self: Very Mexican...Very Anglicized	20. Proportion of time celebrating Hispanic tradition	20. Identification of father as “Mexicano”
	21. Ethnicity of leisure-time social environment	21. Identification of mother as “Mexicana”
	22. Ethnic background	22. While growing up, friends were of Mexican origin
	23. Mother’s ethnic background	23. While growing up, friends were of Anglo origin
	24. Father’s ethnic background	24. Family cooks Mexican foods
	25. Country spent childhood	25. Current friends are of Anglo origin
	26. Proportion of life lived in U.S. vs. Hispanic country	26. Current friends are of Mexican origin
		27. Identify self as Anglo American
		28. Identify self as Mexican American
		29. Identify self as Mexican
		30. Identify self as American

^aARSMA used dichotomous, 3-level nominal, and 5-level Likert measurement of item variables.

^bLAECA used 5-level ordinal, 5-level Likert, 5-level nominal, 4-level Likert, and dichotomous measurement of item variables.

^cARSMA-II used 5-level Likert measurement of all item variables.

The present research draws its measure of acculturation variables from a revised composite of the three complimentary scales. The utility of the four factors of acculturation originally presented in ARSMA was supported by Bauman’s (2005) analysis of the reliability and validity of each measure in ARSMA-II, with strong implications for use in recording “contextually rich facts about ethnic culture” and for assessing “the traditional aspects of Hispanic culture, such as language, cultural identity, social networks, place of origin, and media preferences, that is, the fabric of Hispanic cultural experiences” (Wallace, Pomery, Latimer,

Martinez, & Salovey, 2010, p. 42). Each has been well researched and validated in previous literature. The tested reliability of these acculturation measures and their stability and integrity through decades of review and analysis provides the current study with a credible foundation for an exploration of effects on a new dimension of the acculturation process.

2.3 Acculturation Variables in Advertising Research

As previously discussed, multiple dimensions of acculturation have been examined and measured in various scales and conceptual models and it may be argued that early conceptualizations of Hispanic acculturation were typically treated on a simplistic level, generally using a single variable or occasionally a few variables in a rather arbitrary manner (O'Guinn & Faber, 1985). Variables have included strength of ethnic identification (Deshpande et al., 1986; Hirschman, 1981), socioeconomic status (Olmedo & Padilla, 1978), surname (Saegert, Hoover, & Hilger, 1985), place of birth (Valencia, 1985), ancestry (Wilkes & Valencia, 1985), and language preference and competence (O'Guinn & Faber, 1985; Olmeda & Padilla, 1978). Similarly, sociologists Lennon (1976) and Murguia (1975) introduced multiple demographic variables to operationalize acculturation, including urbanization, age, language ability or preference, national origin, number of generations in the host culture, and education. Hirschman (1981) also included religion as a variable as the correlation between Jewish culture and Jewish religion was found to be high. She concluded with Hispanics, however, that congruence between culture and religion was not as significant and, therefore, not appropriate in all indices. More concerted work by researchers followed to formalize acculturation scales based on behavioral traits and attitudes and to further develop communication variables of language use while thinking, reading and writing, use in the home and at work/school, and in the consumption of different media.

Specific to media use and preference, other studies have focused on various measures and complexities of language preference and advertising effectiveness specific to Hispanic bilinguals but much of the research was concentrated on media content other than television commercials. Roslow and Roslow (1980) conducted a simple survey of radio listenership in New York, without measurement of advertising effectiveness, and found a majority of Hispanics (57%) preferred to listen to Spanish-language programming. Newton (1986) used four experimental groups of bilingual Mexican-Americans and an Anglo monolingual control group in a study of radio advertising and found no significant differences in advertising recall that could be attributed to the choice of language used in the ad. Dolinsky (1984) and Dolinsky and Feinberg (1986) studied print advertising, using two groups of bilingual college students (Hispanics who were native Spanish speakers and Anglos who were native English speakers) to find that information overload occurs sooner when information is presented in the non-dominant language. Duran and Monroe (1977) examined television news and entertainment programming engagement among Hispanics and found that exposure to Spanish-language TV and dependence on it for information about their Hispanic community was significantly associated with lower education, fewer years of residency, and speaking and reading mostly in Spanish. Guernica and Kasperuk (1982) studied Hispanic television consumption and found that female, older and lower income Hispanics were more likely than other Hispanics to watch Spanish TV programming. Feinberg (1988) used slide screen media with a sample of bilingual college students to suggest that Hispanics paid more attention to ads in Spanish than in English, preferred ads in Spanish over English, and could recall ads in Spanish better than in English. In a more modern study, Carrier and Benitez (2010) conducted two studies of bilingualism on communication in text messages, including advertising messages, among a sample of college

students and found that, overall, data provided no evidence that bilingual users of text messaging drew upon their multiple languages to increase communication efficiency.

O'Guinn and Meyer (1984) previously attempted to go beyond just demographic analysis by developing a profile of Hispanics who preferred Spanish-language radio based on media use and consumption variables, along with traditional demographic characteristics. They found that preference for Spanish-language radio programming was not only related to age and education, but also to other factors such as marital status, a preference for Spanish language use at home and while watching TV, as well as consumer behaviors such as the purchase of phonograph records, tapes and soft drinks. While this and other studies found that ethnic groups responded more favorably to media programming and content presented in their native language (Brill, 1994; Feinberg, 1988, cited in Ruggiero & Yang, 2005; Roslow & Roslow, 1980), other research failed to find any significant differences in preference for English or Spanish (Newton, 1986) and few studies were specific to television commercials.

Previous research has presented numerous perspectives to attempt to explain why both language and message content can make a difference in the effectiveness of an advertising message. Some early research considered hypotheses related to identity and accommodation (Deshpande, Hoyer, & Donthu, 1986; Giles, Coupland & Coupland, 1991; Hirschman, 1981; Whittler, 1991). These approaches recommended that communicators make themselves similar to a target audience to increase the likelihood of reaching communication objectives. By using spokespersons of an ethnic background matching that of their intended audience and using ethnic language or other cultural symbols in advertising, marketers can achieve a strong and emotional communicative effect. Torres and Gelb (2002) supported the distinctiveness theory suggested by McGuire and McGuire (1981) which promoted the notion that targeting a minority ethnic group

engenders more favorable attention than does targeting a majority ethnic group. “A person’s ethnicity is more likely to be spontaneously evoked in social contexts in which others of the same ethnic group are few” (p.70).

Ueltschey (2002) suggested that marketers use a prototype strategy of advertising by using both Hispanic and Anglo models in the same advertisement to create the most positive attitude toward the ad among different acculturation groups (low in acculturation, high in acculturation, bicultural), changing only the language of the advertising message according to the level of acculturation being targeted. Ruggiero and Yang (2005) employed social identity theory as a method to better understand the relationship between ethnic identity and Spanish-language media use and showed that respondents who identified with Mexicans preferred Spanish-language programming and content, while those identified with Mexican-Americans preferred English-language programming and content.

In these and other measures, acculturation variables have been identified and used to analyze the cognitive, affective and behavioral characteristics of the multidimensional processes of cultural adaptation. While embracing the integrity of the previous measures as it further investigates multidimensional factors of acculturation and possible effects on the preference for English and Spanish-language TV commercials, the present study does not intend to use sub-dimension variables to assess or rate acculturation levels of participants from “low” to “high” or from “very Mexican” to “very Anglicized,” as has been done in previous studies. Instead, the study chooses to reframe the four key dimensions of acculturation presented in the original ARSMA, as defined by Montgomery and Orozco (1984) and expanded in LAECA and ARSMA-II, as it develops research questions with which to test the relationship between two key

dimensions of acculturation and language preference and attitude in the processing of television commercial messages by the sample group (See Table 2.3).

In order to control the length of the instrument and to present a manageable framework for variable analysis and interpretation, it is the perspective of the present researcher that variables of language use and preference and ethnic identity will offer the most salience to the study and effect on the dependent variables. Ethnic identity encompasses conceptual elements of both cultural heritage (Holland & Gentry, 1997) and ethnic interaction (Noriega & Blair, 2008) and use of separate variables is not expected to produce meaningful correlation in the current context. Generation in the host culture, which has often been used to correlate the effect(s) of country of nativity and length of time in the host culture on other measures of acculturation (Orozco & Thompson, 1993), will also be employed as a moderating variable, along with gender and bilingualism, to test for any moderating effect on the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables of a specific consumer behavior.

Table 2.3

Comparison of Acculturation Factors

Original ARSMA, LAECA, ARSMA-II	Current Study
Language Use and Preference	Language Use and Preference
Ethnic Identification and Generation	Ethnic Identity
Language of Reading and Writing and General Cultural Heritage and Exposure	
Ethnic Interaction	

2.3.1 Acculturation Dimensions as Independent Variables

Advertising is regarded as a form of social communication that reflects the cultural values of a society. Values, norms and characteristics are embedded in advertisements in such a way that viewers and readers can find similarity between themselves and the characters and symbols used in the advertisements. Thus, diversity in culture affects how consumers in the U.S. perceive, process and accept advertising messages (Khairullah, 1995). Based on validity of previous literature on the effects of acculturation and its sub-dimensions on multicultural consumer behaviors, each explored through various scales developed to operationalize analyses, the present study has selected two acculturation variables with which to develop research questions and test relationship with language preference of and attitudes toward television commercials among audiences of Mexican descent. Among the most commonly used acculturation variables in past research and offering the most salience in the present study of media processing behavior, the variables were validated by Orozco and Thompson (1993) and are determined likely to suggest correlation as evidenced in previous literature on similar measures.

2.3.1.1 Language Use and Preference as an Independent Variable

Previous research clearly suggests that language is an integral construct in acculturation theory and the most commonly used variable in multidimensional measures (Burnam et al., 1987; Cuellar et al., 1980; Cuellar et al., 1995; Mainous, 1989; Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997). Communication is considered to be the fundamental process through which acculturation occurs (Kim, 1979), and is a primary indicator of acculturation as it establishes the categories on which perceptions of the world are organized (Ferraro, 2002). “Communication variables should be highly related to acculturation since the process of becoming acculturated is by definition

accomplished through communication” (O’Guinn & Faber, 1985, p.114). “Language structures the way we view the world” (Singer, 1998, p. 3) and “language variables should be expected to be closely related to acculturation” (Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997, p.90). Language variables explored in these and other studies included language spoken at home, at work/school and in social situations with friends; language preferred in the consumption of various media, and language used in thinking, reading and writing.

As a dimension of acculturation, language use and preference has been used by a number of researchers as a measure of advertising effectiveness, with many suggesting that Hispanics tend to remain loyal to their native tongue regardless of their period of residency in the U.S. (Foster, Sullivan & Perea, 1989) and that “the enduring power of Spanish language use by U.S. Hispanics is perhaps most attributable to its direct and positive connection with the family and the home” (Guernica, 1982, p. 124). In these and other studies, researchers often conceptually defined language use as the verbal or written form of language used in different communicative interactions, whether by necessity or dictate, and language preference as an individual’s simple choice to speak or write a particular language in different communicative interactions moderated only by comfort level or facility. The current research embraces these definitions as previously validated and reliable dimensions of acculturation with which to test for relationship on the study’s dependent variables of language preference for and attitude toward television commercials.

From a consumer behavior perspective, acculturation may be defined as “a process by which an individual raised in one culture acquires through first-hand experience the consumption-related values, behavior and customs of another culture” (Khairullah, 1995, cited in Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997, p.89). As previous studies have espoused language as the most

common indicator of acculturation, language preference in the consumption of TV commercials may be logically examined in the context of other dimensions of acculturation which might affect the participants in the study and thus moderate the language preference. The extent to which, and the manner in which this multidimensional acculturation process is articulated in Hispanic consumer behavioral terms has been and continues to be of considerable interest to marketing and advertising researchers who have undertaken a number of attempts to demonstrate the importance of language use and preference in predicting advertising effectiveness and explaining acculturation as a moderator of media use and consumer behavior.

Using a composite index of acculturation (high, medium/bicultural, or low), Ueltschey and Krampf (1997) tested hypotheses of relationships between the levels of acculturation, positive attitudes toward print advertisements, and average recall of the ads when presented in English or Spanish with Hispanic models or characters. Their study utilized cluster analysis of 501 subjects using the 26-item LAECA Acculturation Scale designed for adult Mexican Americans by Burnam et al. (1987) and suggested that marketers should advertise in English to highly acculturated Mexican Americans and use Hispanic or Anglo models. Lowly acculturated Mexican Americans can be reached more effectively by print advertisements written in Spanish and using Anglo models, and bicultural/bilingual Mexican Americans have the most positive attitude toward print ads written in English and using Anglo models but have highest ad recall when the ads are written in English and using Hispanic models.

Roslow (2006) used phone interviews and focus groups to test a sample of 648 Hispanic adults for advertising recall, persuasiveness, and main-message communication of selected Spanish- and English-language television commercials aired within specific Spanish- and English-language news and entertainment programming. Employing Webster's (1990, 1991)

ethnic identity categorization of Hispanics into high Hispanic identifiers and low Hispanic identifiers based on the degree to which Spanish was spoken at home, the study's subjects were either Spanish-dominant (spoke Spanish only or Spanish mostly in the home) or bilingual (spoke Spanish and English equally in the home). The study utilized a quantitative measure of participants' purchase intention for product brands advertised on television, including a direct comparison and evaluation of competitive brands in a given category. The study assessed persuasiveness in a controlled setting designed to contrast television advertising aimed at Hispanic viewers and broadcast in Spanish with advertising directed to a similar group of Hispanics but broadcast in English. In measuring these definitions of advertising effectiveness, the researchers found indication of higher score advantage of Spanish-over-English for the criteria used and the results were in line with findings of Nicholls and Roslow (1996) which had previously broken new ground with a study of main message retention that indicated a greater degree of main message recall for those Hispanics viewing television in Spanish than those viewing in English.

To further account for the results of language preference and use in various communication settings, Ruggiero and Yang (2005) tested hypotheses of influence on Hispanics' response to Spanish language media content by degree of linguistic acculturation, using a 5-point Likert scale designed to measure the linguistic acculturation rate of Mexican Americans (Arnold & Maldonado, 1995) among a sample of 231 undergraduates at a U.S./Mexico border university in the Southwest. A composite mean from several language use items was computed and correlated with language preferences in different media. Linguistic acculturation was predicted to influence response to media content with study data confirming that high linguistically acculturated respondents consistently showed significant preference for Spanish language media

content, while low linguistically acculturated respondents preferred Spanish language media content less.

While the studies cited above, among many others, did not specifically test hypotheses or attempt to answer research questions relating to the relationship between the independent variable of language use and preference and language preference and attitude in the processing of television commercials by bilinguals of Mexican descent, they have demonstrated language use and preference, as a dimension of acculturation, to be a reliable predictor of advertising effectiveness in different media and an important factor in consumer behavior considerations in multicultural marketing. The current research suggests, therefore, that the dimension will behave similarly in affecting the dependent variables under the current exploratory study.

2.3.1.2 Ethnic Identity as an Independent Variable

As another important variable of acculturation used effectively in numerous acculturation scales, ethnic identity has been used extensively in previous research as a variable of influence on advertising effectiveness and choice of language and models in the delivery of advertising messages. Ethnic identity with one's native culture refers to the positive identification with indigenous cultural roots and with use of the native tongue (Reich, Ramos, & Jaipal, 2000) and represents the degree to which one feels a part of one's ethnic group connectivity (Phinney, 1989; Sue & Sue, 1990, cited in Ruggiero & Yang, 2005). Ethnic identity is not a fixed categorization, but rather a fluid and dynamic understanding of self and ethnic background, constructed and modified as individuals become aware of their ethnicity within the larger social setting (Phinney, 2003). Suggesting the multidimensionality of the construct, Tajfel (1981) defined ethnic identity as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group (or groups) together with the perceived value and

positive emotional significance attached to that membership” (p. 255). Deshpande et al. (1986) concentrated on ethnic identification as a key moderator of acculturation, suggesting that self-identity exists only when people process ethnic information through language and symbols and categorize themselves along ethnic criteria.

In Ruggiero and Yang (2005), the dimension of ethnic identity was also explored along with language use and preference as the most pertinent of “other dimensions of the acculturation process effecting mass media consumption” (p.2). Referencing previous research by Deshpande et al. (1986), the study tested hypotheses of relationship between ethnic identity and media language preference. Respondents were administered an ethnic identity measure (Phinney, 1992) and answered on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). T-tests results supported the relationships between the two variables with non-Hispanic respondents consistently showing a preference for English language media content and Hispanic respondents consistently showing a preference for Spanish language content. Correlation analysis indicated that, while Anglo identity and American identity did not predict respondents’ preference of media language, identity with Mexicans or Mexican-Americans showed strikingly different and consistent patterns of media language preference.

In a more recent study, Wang and Arpan (2008) examined the effects of using HIV public service announcements (PSAs) from spokespersons that either matched or did not match participants’ race and included a measure of ethnic identity to examine the extent to which identity influenced preferences for same-race spokespersons. Findings suggested that matched spokesperson race might be sufficient to improve evaluations and that strength of ethnic identity might not be particularly important. The findings did not necessarily contradict previous studies which had shown that ethnic minorities with strong ethnic identities preferred ethnic media

(Appiah, 2004; Donthu & Cherian, 1992) and preferred ethnically advertised products (Deshpande et al., 1986). The researchers suggested, however, that the moderating effect of ethnic identity may depend on product categories and the dependent variables that were used in a study.

In another exploration of ethnic identity as a significant factor in media preference, Villarreal and Peterson (2008) argued that there was a difference between being Hispanic and possessing Hispanicness (Hispanic ethnicity) and that the difference between the two had important media preference and behavior implications. Using telephone interviews of 762 Hispanic men and women, strength of ethnic identity was measured using a revised version of Phinney's (1992) Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure and familism (the core Hispanic cultural value) was also measured using the 5-item Villarreal (2004) Pan-Hispanic Familism Scale. Response options for both measures were presented in a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A confirmatory factor analysis incorporating the strength of both scales produced a statistically significant correlation which supported the construct of Hispanicness used in the study. Based on the scales, the sample was divided into four groups: *A-Symbolic Hispanics* with relatively weak ethnic identity but a high degree of familism, *Symbolic Hispanics* with the lowest degree of familism and the strongest ethnic identity, *Strong Hispanics* with the highest degree of familism and the second highest strength of ethnic identity, and *Weak Hispanics* with the weakest ethnic identity strength and the second lowest degree of familism. Mean responses of the four ethnicity groups were related to 12 media preference and behavior items using both within-group and across-groups analysis. The results suggested that across the media investigated – television, radio, newspapers and magazines – the four ethnic groups tended to generally engage the media in both English and Spanish. Although

Strong Hispanics showed a slightly greater preference for Spanish-language media than the other groups, there was no strong preference by any one group for being exposed to only English-language or Spanish-language communication. Indeed, all groups tended to watch more English-language television which proved counter to previous findings of O'Guinn et al. (1985) and others who reported that Spanish-language preferred Hispanics only tend to watch Spanish-language television. The results of this study are another example of the often conflicting nature of acculturation research, particularly in media studies with wide varieties of variable use and conceptual models. Such studies are important to the current research, however, as it attempts to recognize and appreciate the vast scholarship on the subject and incorporate a broad range of quantitative contexts in its effort to provide additional scholarship to the research narrative.

As with the acculturation variable of language use and preference, the ethnic identity studies cited above did not specifically test hypotheses or attempt to answer research questions relating to the relationship between the independent variable of ethnic identity and dependent variables of language preference and attitude in the processing of television commercials by bilinguals of Mexican descent. They do, however, provide a credible background of previous research to suggest that ethnic identity, as a dimension of acculturation, has been a predictor of advertising effectiveness in different media and a factor in consumer behavior considerations in multicultural marketing. The current research suggests, therefore, that the dimension will behave similarly in affecting the dependent variables under the current exploratory study.

2.3.2 Language Preference in Television Commercials as a Dependent Variable

A dependent variable in the present study offers an opportunity to test influence of acculturation sub-dimensions on a component of media advertising that has not been found in

previous literature. As the most powerful mass-audience medium historically generating the largest share of consumer advertising spending in the U.S. (eMarketer.com, 2011), commercial television offers a rich and important field of study in which to explore the dimensions of acculturation that may moderate a Hispanic's commercial language preference through affective and behavioral processes. Assuming preference to represent a person's specific option for comfort and meaningfulness in language use as opposed to a need or obligation to use a certain language within a given communicative interaction, the present research attempts to isolate a focus on television commercial language preference and study the impact of the independent variable of acculturation and two of its sub-dimensions on a dependent variable of language preference among bilinguals of Mexican descent. Drawing from established and modified acculturation scales for Mexican-Americans, the research attempts to determine and measure relationships between acculturation and commercial language preference among the sample group and to contribute a new and important perspective to both the social science narrative and the practices of multicultural marketing.

Numerous studies have explored language preference of various ethnic groups for television, radio, print, motion picture and online delivery systems and many have explored relationships between acculturation sub-dimensions and media preference for news, sports and entertainment programming and content. Others have tested for relationship between the sub-dimensions and measures of multimedia commercial advertising effectiveness such as ad recall, purchase intent, positive influence of ethnic advertising models, and positive consumer attitudes toward advertised products and services. The present study, however, has not found literature specific to the relationship of acculturation on an individual's language preference for television commercials. Indeed, much of the early research in similar studies concentrated on demographic

characterizations and supported theories of Spanish-language media preference among low-acculturated, low-income and less educated Hispanics, helping to fuel the claims by English-language media that Spanish-language media were ineffective and unnecessary for marketing investment by advertisers, claims upon which the present study strives to shed new light.

One of the earliest studies of media use among Hispanics was an investigation by Brennan (1968) using a sample of Spanish-surnamed individuals in San Antonio, Texas. Exploring preferred channels of communication for a variety of news and local community-interest topics, the study found that the preferred channels of communication, those consistently used by more than ten percent of the sample, were radio, television, newspapers, and interpersonal relations, and that individuals using Spanish-language television and radio were generally less acculturated, older, less educated, and had lower incomes than those using English-language stations.

Dunn (1975) used factor analysis in an effort to determine if clusters of relevant subgroups of social characteristics, media habits and preferences of samples in Austin and San Antonio, Texas could be identified. The traditional cluster was composed of older individuals self-described as “Mexican” or “Mexicano” and whose media preferences were toward Spanish-language TV and radio. The non-traditional cluster was defined by younger, better educated respondents, students and white collar workers self-described as “Mexican-Americans.” The study clearly defined media preference by two distinct levels of acculturation, with the non-traditional group being more acculturated and preferring English-language television and radio and the traditional group being low in acculturation and preferring Spanish-language broadcast media.

Guernica and Kasperuk (1982) developed a television audience composition profile in research of numerous demographic characteristics among a sample of Hispanics and found that, in general, those participants considered to be of lower acculturation (older, less affluent and educated) were more likely to watch Spanish-language television than those considered to be of higher acculturation. O'Guinn et al. (1985) surveyed Mexican-Americans in San Antonio on preference for Spanish-language TV over English-language TV and their discriminant analysis of multiple demographic characteristics further suggested that less acculturated Hispanics preferred Spanish-language television, as well as Spanish-language radio, movies and print media.

While these studies focused primarily on demographic characteristics of Hispanic populations and media behaviors, later research followed on more complex multidimensional concepts of acculturative effects on media use and preference, particularly among Hispanics, and has been previously referenced in discussion of variables used to show correlation between multiple dimensions of acculturation and media use and advertising effectiveness. While no research has been found that is specific to an individual's preference for television commercial language as a dependent variable in analysis of acculturative influence, the literature does, however, provide a substantial background of theoretical and operational research with which to suggest that dimensions of acculturation have influenced different media preferences and behaviors and perceptions of advertising effectiveness across multiple media platforms. The current exploratory study suggests, therefore, that language preference of TV commercials among Hispanics of Mexican descent will likely be affected by the independent variables presented.

2.3.3 Attitude toward the Commercial as a Dependent Variable

As an affective construct, attitude toward the ad (Aad) has been defined as a “predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion” (Lutz, 1985, cited in MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986, p.130). This definition is consistent with Fishbein and Ajzen’s (1975) definition of attitude which viewed Aad as comprising solely an evaluative or affective response to the commercial stimulus and did not refer to cognitive or behavioral responses that have since been explored by other researchers. As stressed by MacKenzie and Lutz (1989), Aad pertains to a particular exposure to a particular ad and not to consumers’ attitudes toward advertising in general or their attitudes toward the ad stimulus of interest at another point in time. “Aad is construed as a situationally bound construct, an attitudinal reaction to the ad generated at the point of exposure” (p. 49). As such, Aad has been found to be a mediator of advertising effects on brand attitude and purchase intent (Mitchell & Olson, 1981) and a stronger predictor of brand attitude than ad credibility (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989). Zinkhan, Locander, and Leigh (1986) also found that attitude toward the ad and attitude toward a brand were strongly associated with aided brand recall and recognition. Russell and Lane (1993) found attitude to be an important predisposition and a strong influencer of brand preference and loyalty. While many studies have used Aad as an independent or moderating variable, the current study uses attitude toward the ad as a dependent variable in order to test acculturation effects.

The idea that consumers may have affective responses to commercial stimuli is hardly a recent notion, with Silk and Vavra (1974) citing literature dating back to 1929 which assigned a causally significant role to the pleasant or unpleasant feelings evoked by advertising. Ratings of the “likeability” of advertising materials were “regularly obtained in copy testing” (p. 157) which reflected advertisers’ acceptance of the idea that Aad mediated advertising effectiveness.

Research specific to television advertising brought about the development of “reaction profiles” or “viewer response profiles” based on a variety of scales to measure a viewer’s discrimination between high-appeal and low-appeal advertisements. Wells (1964) developed an early 12-item “emotional quotient” scale to measure an ad’s affective appeal using descriptive statements such as “This ad is very appealing to me,” “I dislike this ad” and “This ad leaves me cold.” Schlinger (1979) later assessed reactions to commercials on a multidimensional 30-item descriptive scale and Calder and Sternthal (1980) used a unidimensional measure of Aad as the dependent variable in their investigation of advertising repetition and wearout. In each case, Aad was defined as an affective response to advertising stimuli and not part of a two-component construct to include cognitive response.

The current study follows the precedent of Ueltschy and Krampf’s (1997) communication-effect acculturation research which examined advertising effectiveness and operationalized Aad with a set of three questions measuring attitude toward print advertisements as used and validated by Zinkhan, Locander, and Leigh (1986). Their study had abbreviated Wells’ (1964) earlier 12-item emotional quotient scale and is used in the current study to measure respondents’ attitude as indicated by the extent to which they liked the commercial, enjoyed the commercial, and found the commercial to be good. Based on earlier research of Aad as a dependent variable moderated by various dimensions of acculturation, the current research expects that attitude toward TV commercials among Hispanics of Mexican descent will likely be affected by the independent variables under study.

2.3.4 Moderating Variables

Moderating variables are often used in a study to determine if the effects of a change in the independent variable in turn cause a change in the dependent variable (Wrench, Thomas-

Maddox, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2008). Commonly used variables in both acculturation and consumer research are generally divided into two broad categories: demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, such as age, gender and income, and psychological characteristics, such as personality and motivation (Stayman & Deshpande, 1989). More specific variable segmentation may include four distinct categories: demographic, including age, marital status and education level; geographic, including region, city and metro size; psychographic, including lifestyles and personality; and behavioral, including consumer loyalty status and media habits (Kotter & Keller, 2009).

Most early studies on acculturation and media preference simply used demographics of age, gender, education and household income, along with a variety of acculturation indicators such as years of residency, country of origin, and language preference for multiple media to suggest a profile of consumers of Spanish-language media as lower in acculturation and socioeconomic status than those who preferred English-language media (Dunn, 1975; Guernica & Kasperuk, 1982). Later studies explored other dimensions of acculturation beyond demographic effects, testing relationship between levels of acculturation and a variety of cognitive, affective and behavioral measures, using demographics as possible intervening variables moderating independent and dependent variable relationship (Noriega & Blair, 2008; Roslow & Nicholls, 1996; Ueltschy, 2001). While a list of multiple moderating variables presents interesting and varied dimensions to any research, the present study uses three moderating variables that follow an almost universal utilization in previous literature and reflect the sampling characteristics of the population under study: gender, generation in the host culture, and bilingualism. As the study's population sample will be predominantly university students, age is not expected to significantly predict variable interaction and will not be included.

2.3.4.1 Gender has been shown to influence both the process of migration to the United States and behavioral adaptation upon arrival (Hill & Wong, 2005) and has been studied consistently as a factor of moderation in relationship between acculturation and factors of health, familial relationships, media preference, consumer behavior, and other multicultural issues. Differences in perceptions, motivations and attitudes held by men and women, and the implications for theory, methods and policy in a variety of disciplines (Gorman, Read & Krueger, 2010; Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 1991) have commonly been uncovered and explored in virtually all acculturation research. Studies on media preference, advertising effectiveness and consumer behavior have demonstrated marked distinction by gender in affective response to advertising models and imagery (Ueltschey, 2001) and advertising recall and purchase intent (Nicholls & Roslow, 1996). The precedent of research which inspires the present study strongly suggests that gender will moderate variable relationship, continues to serve as an important demographic of influence, and justifies its further examination.

2.3.4.2 In many studies, generation in the host culture has been examined as a sub-dimension of acculturation and used as an independent variable of relationship with an extensive array of affective and behavioral measures. Other researchers have elected to use generation as a demographic variable of analysis in order to correlate the effect(s) of country of nativity and length of time in the host country of both an individual and his/her parents and ancestors on other measures of acculturation (Orozco & Thompson, 1993). Lennon (1976) and Murguia (1975) included generations in the host culture as integral components of their measurements. Marin and Marin (1991) developed a Brief Acculturation Scale (BAS) for Hispanic-Americans using only four items and justified the use of generational proximity as a moderator of acculturation, especially useful in longitudinal studies examining acculturation

effects over several generations away from the native culture (Fuligni, 2001). Norris, Ford and Bova (1996) provided support for the reliability of the BAS and the variable of generational proximity in operationalizing dimensions of acculturation. In her study of acculturation of children, Lopez (2009) also used traditional proxy measures of generational status, place of birth, and length of time in the U.S. to evaluate the construct validity of acculturation measures when used with children and to correlate her findings with measures used with adolescents and adults. Feliz-Ortiz, Newcomb, and Myers (1994) included generational proximity items in their scale and retained construct validity with both ARSMA and the revised ARSMA-II measures of generation(s) in the host country and length of time spent away from the country of origin. As much research suggests that nativity and length of time in a host culture is a significant moderator of acculturation and a viable means of variable correlation with measures of advertising and media preference, the current research will utilize the variable to examine relationship between the independent and dependent variables under study.

2.3.4.3 Bilingualism has been defined by social scientists in many different ways in an attempt to better understand dual-language phonology, creation, adoption, code-switching and other psycholinguistic processes, cultural and social motivations, and language effects on attitudes and behaviors. The current study defines “bilingual” more simply as it serves to characterize a person’s ability, choice and need to use either Spanish or English or both in different social settings and communicative interactions during the course of any given day. Derived from Barea et al.’s (2010) definition of bilingual competencies, the current study defines bilingualism as the comfortable use of both Spanish and English in the communicative activities of one’s normal daily life. While recognizing and respecting the multivariate dimensions of bilingualism at both cognitive and affective levels, the present study elects to

emulate the previous research of Roslow and Nicholls (1996), Noriega and Blair (2008), and Carroll and Luna (2011) who each studied bilingual response to advertising stimuli among Hispanic samples self-identified as comfortably bilingual or which scored adequately on a language proficiency scale. Self-identification of ethnicity and language proficiency has been widely used and validated in previous survey research by Constant and Zimmermann (2008), Golash-Boza (2006); Pearson, Garvin, Ford and Balluz (2010); and Staton, Jackson, and Canache (2007), among many others.

Roslow and Nicholls (1996) presented one of the most commercially relevant quantitative studies of bilingual processing of television commercials broadcast in Spanish and English, focusing on purchase intent as the key variable and establishing an “effectiveness differential” to index the persuasiveness of commercial messages in Spanish and English. This was followed by cross-cultural communication research that suggested that language choice can be related to advertising effectiveness through ease of processing, finding it preferable to advertise to bilinguals in their first or native language because second-language words and concepts are more difficult to process (Luna & Peracchio, 1999, 2001). Later, Luna and Perrachio (2005) considered language use from the perspective of affective response, arguing that some words have more of an emotional attachment when presented in the native language than in the second language. The bilingual’s native culture may value certain concepts, e.g., family, relationships and religion more highly than other cultures, and the language in which the meaning of the concept is first learned becomes the prototypical representation of the concept. Noriega and Blair (2008) offered another perspective based on social cognition, arguing that each of a bilingual’s two languages may cue different associations for the same messages, thus rendering the execution of each language with the potential to lead to different levels of

persuasiveness. This “consumption context” presented in an advertisement may moderate the relationship between choice of language and the resultant thoughts and persuasion (p. 70). This context provides a strong argument for the accuracy and thoughtfulness of translations from one language to another in creating advertising messages. As words and symbols may provide different associations and meanings based on levels of acculturation and the differing efficiencies of bilingual code-switching, the effectiveness of advertising messages in communicating to dual-language Hispanics may be decidedly undermined by failure to incorporate proper and meaningful translations of both words and concepts.

Measurement of bilingualism as a moderating variable in the current study will be an informal assessment derived from language use and preference data provided in the survey to create an index of language use in behavioral contexts of Spanish-dominance, bilingualism and English-dominance (Koslow, Shamdasani, & Touchstone, 1994; Ueltschey & Krampf, 1997). Informal measurement through both questionnaires and ethnographic interviews and observations has been reliably used in previous research (Hamers & Blanc, 1989) and validated by Taura (1996). Thus, bilingualism, as a factor of significant measurement in previous research on the language adoption and utilization processes of acculturation, is expected to moderate relationship between the variables in this study.

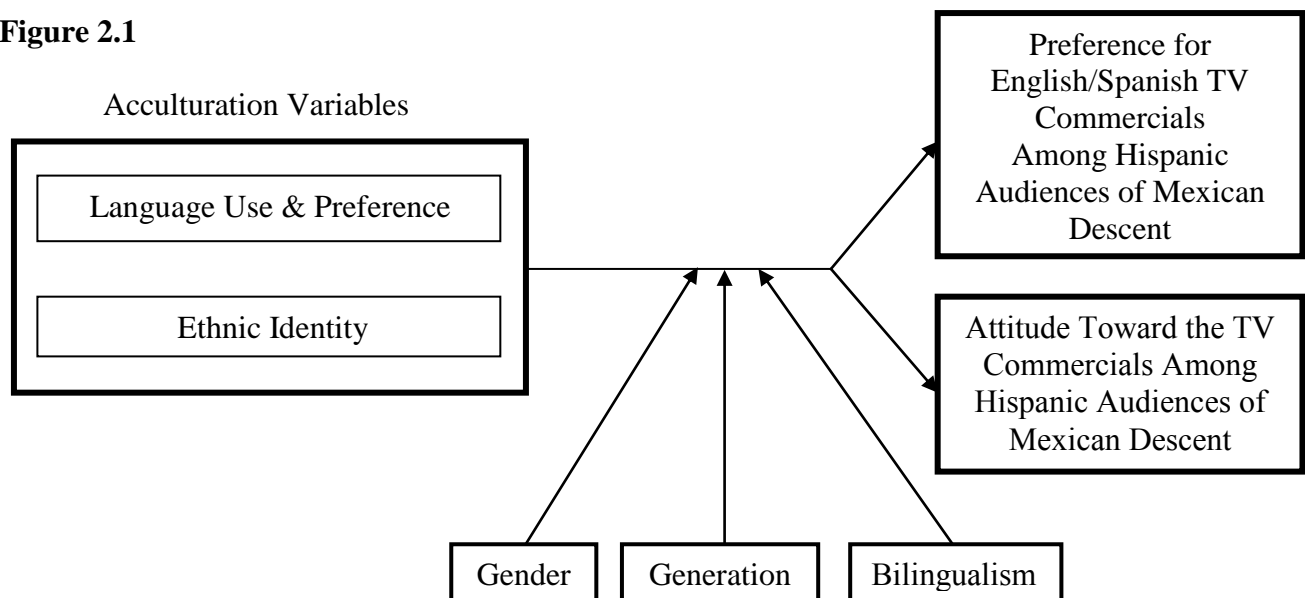
2.4 Theoretical Model

Having presented an overview of acculturation and discussion of its multidimensional nature, and reviewed previous scholarly literature to suggest a consistent and meaningful relationship between acculturation sub-dimensions and advertising effectiveness, language and symbol use in multiple media, and effect on subsequent consumer behaviors, below is a theoretical model (Figure 2.1) to illustrate the proposed relationship between the independent

variables of acculturation and the dependent variable of TV commercial language preference among bilinguals of Mexican descent.

The figure on the left represents a two-dimensional structure of acculturation as the independent variable. In previous research, both dimensions have been shown to influence various dependent variables of media use and preference, advertising effectiveness, and multicultural consumer behavior. The figures on the right represent two specific dependent variables of TV commercial language preference among a defined population and attitude toward TV commercials within the same population. Moderating variables of gender, generation and bilingualism are shown for any possible influence on the main variable relationships.

Figure 2.1



2.5 Research Questions

After review of previous literature and presentation of a theoretical model to operationalize the variables presented, the present study asked the following research questions:

RQ1: Does acculturation affect the preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ1-1: Does language use and preference affect the preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ1-2: Does ethnic identity affect the preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ2: Does acculturation affect the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ2-1: Does language use and preference affect the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ2-2: Does ethnic identity affect the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ3: Do demographics (such as gender, generation in the host culture, bilingualism) affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ3-1: Does gender affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ3-2: Does generation in the host culture affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ3-3: Does bilingualism affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ4: Do demographics (such as gender, generation in the host culture, bilingualism) affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ4-1: Does gender affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ4-2: Does generation in the host culture affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ4-3: Does bilingualism affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Selection of Survey Method

By definition, quantitative research is a scientific discipline of creating knowledge by objectively examining facts to establish and defend theories, make reasonable predictions, test hypotheses, and to create empirical generalizations to describe phenomena (Wrench et al., 2008). Methods for accomplishing these purposes are survey research, content analysis, and experimental design. Content analysis is an examination of messages that relies on scientific method and is not limited to the types of variables to be measured or the context in which the messages are presented (Neuendorf, 2002, cited in Wrench et al., 2008). Based on the variable relationship analysis goals of the current research, neither the content nor the context of communicative messages is under study and thus precludes content analysis as an appropriate research method. Experiment as a method seeks to study cause and effect, establishing a time order by manipulating one or more variables to see how the manipulation affects other variables (Ryan, 2007). Once again, based on the simple variable relationship goals of the current research and the intent to collect data on a phenomenon that cannot be observed, experimental design is not a necessary or valid methodology.

An analytical, cross-sectional survey, however, does present a logical and appropriate method for the current research as it is designed to gather data from a particular group at a given point in time. The analytical survey seeks to explain why people behave and think the way they do by identifying influences on their behavior and attitudes (Wrench et al., 2008). By such definition, the analytical survey method thus allows for the collection of data that can then be quantitatively measured to identify relationships between the variables under study and to answer the specific research questions presented. As the current research was intended to ascertain from

a population of Hispanics of Mexican descent evidence of preference for English and Spanish-language TV commercials and attitudes toward the commercials to determine relationships, if any, between those factors and the independent variable of acculturation and its sub-dimensions, the study used an analytical, cross-sectional survey method as the most appropriate means of gathering data for analysis.

While telephone and face-to-face interviewing tends to produce very high response rates in surveys (Wrench et al., 2008), the cost and time investment of such methods were beyond the scope of the current research. And although Internet administration of a survey has been proven to be a viable and efficient method for reliably collecting sample data on phenomena that cannot be directly observed within a large population (Couper & Miller, 2008; Frippiat & Marquis, 2010), distribution of the current study's survey instrument was administered by the researcher directly to a convenience sample of university students. Following precedent on much previous survey research using convenience samples of college students for analysis of advertising and promotional messages (Engelin-Maddox, 2005; Ott, Cashin & Altekruise, 2005), the direct method of distribution and collection was deemed to offer the highest level of control and expediency without placing an undue or intrusive burden on either students or faculty.

3.2 Instrumentation

3.2.1 Instrument Development

The collection of empirical data with which to measure variable correlation and answer the specified research questions was accomplished through a 27-item survey questionnaire revised from but consistent with the items used in the ARSMA (1980), LAECA (1987) and ARSMA-II (1995) acculturation studies and within recommended survey length, particularly among younger respondent populations. The constant of Mexican descent was ascertained at the

outset of the questionnaire by a dichotomous filter question that allowed each respondent to self-confirm qualifying membership in the target group. A “No” answer to the question terminated the survey at that point. The demographic variable of age was determined with a question of exact age (Question 25) for statistical purposes only and was not used for moderating effect. Gender was determined through a dichotomous question of male/female (Question 26), and generation in the host culture was ascertained by a 5-point nominal scale characterizing nearest generation to the respondent born in Mexico as “self,” “one or both parents,” “one or both grandparents,” “one or both great-grandparents,” and “other” (Question 27). Through the following items in the questionnaire (Questions 1 - 17) based on Cuellar, et al. (1980) and validated by Montgomery and Orozco (1984), the two sub-dimensions of acculturation were determined for analysis. Components of the dependent variables, TV commercial language preference (Question 18) and attitude toward the commercials (Questions 19 – 24) were also ascertained:

- Questions 1 - 12: Language Use and Preference (3-point nominal scale – Both, English, or Spanish).
- Questions 13 - 16: Ethnic Identity (5-point nominal scale – Hispanic or Latina/o, White or Anglo, Black, Asian, or Other).
- Question 17: Ethnic Identity (5-point Likert scale anchored on *Very Mexican* and *Very Anglicized* interval values).
- Question 18: Ethnic Identity (5-point Likert scale anchored on *Not proud at all* and *Very proud* interval values).
- Questions 19 - 24: Attitude toward the commercials (5-point Likert scales anchored on *Strongly Disagree* and *Strongly Agree* interval values). Scales were

adapted from an original 3-question scale to measure global attitude toward the ad as used by Zinkhan, Locander and Leigh (1986), cited in Ueltschy and Krampf (1997).

3.2.2 Pretesting of the Instrument

Pretesting of the survey was conducted among a test sample of fourteen university graduate students in Communication to ensure all parameters of informed consent, test the ease and comprehension of survey questions and structure, and to elicit feedback from participants to eliminate any problems or obstacles before mass distribution. After completion of the original survey, the pretest participants offered suggestions and options to refine the instrument for ease of use and clarity. All suggestions were incorporated into the final survey questionnaire.

3.3 Sampling Plan and Characteristics

3.3.1 Sampling Methods

The size of the total U.S. Hispanic population and limitations of the current study precluded a probability random sampling which would otherwise allow a calculation of sampling error and produce results that would be generalizable to the entire population (Wrench et al., 2008). As such, the study used a combination of convenience sampling and snowball sampling methods to recruit 351 participants from a population of undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in the departments of Communication and Marketing & Management at a mid-size university in the Southwestern United States located on the Texas – Mexico border. The sampling was also purposive in that a large majority of students available for recruitment were known to have both the language and generational characteristics under study and that were needed to determine eligibility.

For the convenience sampling method, six members of the faculty in the Communication and Marketing Management departments were asked via e-mails to allow the researcher to distribute survey questionnaires to students in twelve of their classes. All instructors replied in the affirmative within 48 hours. Please see Appendix A for a copy of the e-mail solicitation. Class participants were requested to complete the self-administered, 27-item questionnaires hand-distributed by the researcher. Snowballing distribution was achieved through further dissemination of the questionnaire by students enrolled in two classes to other students, colleagues and relatives over a period of one week with all surveys returned to the class instructor for final collection by the researcher.

In-class distribution of the instrument by the researcher to participants included a brief statement of introduction, explanation of the research, an invitation to participate, and an incentive to assist with snowballing distribution to other students in return for a chance to receive a \$50 gift card from a local electronics retailer. From all completed surveys received, a single survey would be selected at random as winner of the gift card. In order to accomplish this, surveys required the respondent's name and e-mail address so that they could be contacted in the event their survey had been selected. All participants were assured that names and e-mail addresses would be used only for that purpose and would not be shared with any other person or entity. Prior to starting the survey, each respondent was provided detailed disclosure of informed consent, including notice of voluntary participation and contact information on the principal investigator and the Institutional Review Board (IRB) administrator. Participants were told that completion of the survey would take approximately five minutes. Please see Appendix B for a complete survey questionnaire and the full IRB Informed Consent Disclosure.

A total of 379 surveys were distributed and 351 surveys were returned at the end of the 9-day collection period, March 19 - 27, 2012. Review of each returned survey's filter question to confirm Mexican descent showed 39 surveys had indicated "No" to the question and all were removed from the sample. Further examination of all remaining questionnaires yielded no additional justification for exclusion and a total of 312 valid surveys were coded and entered into SPSS data analysis software. See Table 3.1 below for the number of participants recruited from each class session and the final sample size after snowballing.

Table 3.1

Sampling Results by Class Session

Class Sessions	Surveys Distributed	Surveys Returned	Valid Surveys
COMM 4350/5350	13	13	9
MKT 3300-1	48	48	43
MKT 4305-1	16	16	14
MKT 4305-2	19	19	16
COMM 3320	20	20	17
COMM 4350	14	14	14
COMM 2330 ^a	88	71	67
COMM 4372 ^a	64	53	50
MKT 3300-7	51	51	45
COMM 4323	12	12	9
CHIC 3302	28	28	24
COMM 5350	6	6	4
TOTALS	379	351	312

^a Class sessions in which snowballing distribution of surveys was achieved.

3.3.2 Sample Characteristics

A majority of possible participants was initially assumed to be of Mexican descent. The primary filter question at the outset of the survey determined validity of the assumption and allowed or disallowed continuation at that point. For purposes of the study, “Mexican descent” was defined as each participant’s blood descendancy from one or both parents or any preceding direct generation born in Mexico and of Hispanic heritage or ancestry. Participants provided a simple “yes” or “no” response to the qualifying question.

In Table 3.2 below, the characteristics of the sample (N=312) are outlined. Average age of the sample was 25 and gender division was 42% male (N=131) and 58% female (N=180). 16% of the sample (N=50) self-described as first generation in the U.S. and the largest percentage (54%) indicated second generation (N=169). 40% of the sample (N=125) self-characterized as very or mostly Mexican, 47% (N=146) characterized bicultural, and 13% (N=39) characterized as mostly to very Anglicized. Only 3% of the sample (N=9) indicated some lack of pride in their cultural characterization, with the vast majority (96%) indicating some degree of pride (N=300).

Table 3.2

Sample Characteristics

		<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
Age		25.28	8.102
		<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Gender	Male	131	42.0
	Female	180	57.7
	Missing	1	0.3
		<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Generation in Host Culture			
	First	50	16.0
	Second	169	54.2
	Third	55	17.6
	Fourth	31	9.9
	Other	2	0.6
	Missing	5	1.6
		<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Self Characterization	Very Mexican	60	19.2
	Mostly Mexican	65	20.8
	Bicultural	146	46.8
	Mostly Anglicized	30	9.6
	Very Anglicized	9	2.9
	Missing	2	0.6
		<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Level of Ethnic Pride in Self Characterization			
	Not proud at All	4	1.3
	Somewhat Not Proud	5	1.6
	Somewhat Proud	39	12.5
	Proud	120	38.5
	Very Proud	141	45.2
	Missing	3	1.0

For the 12-item measure of language use and preference, use in the home was predominantly Spanish (47%, N=146) and closely aligned with home language preference (45%, N=139). Language use at work/school showed a dominance for English (64%, N=198) with work/school language preference slightly lower at 54% (N=169). While the language for prayer indicated a majority preference for Spanish (48%, N=150), language use and preference for thinking, reading, writing and media consumption was decidedly English. Use of both languages showed a dominance over Spanish in all these categories except thinking and writing. See Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3

Language Use and Preference among Participants

	Both English and Spanish	English	Spanish	Total
Speak at Home	82 26.3%	84 26.9%	146 46.8%	312 100%
Prefer to Speak at Home	66 21.2%	107 34.3%	139 44.6%	312 100%
Speak at Work/School	77 24.7%	198 63.5%	37 11.9%	312 100%
Prefer to Speak at Work/School	95 30.4%	169 54.2%	47 15.1%	311 99.7%
Think Most Often	47 15.1%	174 55.8%	91 29.2%	312 100%
Pray Most Often	37 11.9%	116 37.2%	150 48.1%	303 97.1%
Read Better	73 23.4%	192 61.5%	47 15.1%	312 100%
Write Better	42 13.5%	208 66.7%	61 19.6%	311 99.7%
Preference for TV	112 35.9%	181 58.0%	19 6.1%	312 100%
Preference for Music	164 52.6%	127 40.7%	21 6.7%	312 100%
Preference for Movies	85 27.2%	217 69.6%	8 2.6%	310 99.4%
Preference for TV Commercials	123 39.4%	166 53.2%	23 7.4%	312 100%

The dependent variable of attitude toward the ad (Aad) was measured through three affective responses to commercials in English and in Spanish. A significant majority of respondents showed positive responses to commercials in English with 76% (N=236) indicating they like TV commercials in English, 77% (N=240) indicating that English commercials are good, and 68% (N=213) indicating that they enjoy English commercials. This contrasts with lower scores for Spanish commercials, with 46% (N=144) indicating they like TV commercials in Spanish, 49% (N=152) indicating that Spanish commercials are good, and 43% (N=134) indicating that they enjoy Spanish commercials. Higher indications of ambivalence in Aad were indicated in the Spanish-language measurement than in the English-language responses. An average of 33% of responses indicated neither agreement nor disagreement with Spanish-language Aad vs. 21% of responses for English-language Aad. See Table 3.4 below.

Table 3.4

Attitude toward the Ad (Aad) among Participants

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Like TV Commercials in English	6 1.9%	10 3.2%	59 18.9%	136 43.6%	100 32.1%	311 99.7%
English TV Commercials are Good	7 2.2%	8 2.6%	56 17.9%	158 50.6%	82 26.3%	311 99.7%
Enjoy TV Commercials in English	6 1.9%	13 4.2%	77 24.7%	131 42.0%	82 26.3%	309 99.0%
Like TV Commercials in Spanish	22 7.1%	41 13.1%	103 33.0%	119 38.1%	25 8.0%	310 99.4%
Spanish TV Commercials are Good	22 7.1%	46 14.7%	91 29.2%	129 41.3%	23 7.4%	311 99.7%
Enjoy TV Commercials in Spanish	24 7.7%	43 13.8%	110 35.3%	108 34.6%	26 8.3%	311 99.7%

3.3.3 Reliability of the Instrument

Cronbach's α is the most common tool used to assess the internal consistency reliability of items used for summated scale scores of independent and dependent variables. α coefficients range in value from zero to one and should usually be greater than 0.70 in order to provide good support for reliability (Wrench et al., 2008). α coefficients were run to test scale reliability of the Aad interval measurement summarized in Table 3.5. Attitude toward the ad showed an acceptable α coefficient ($\alpha=0.71$).

Table 3.5

Reliability Test for Attitude toward the Ad (Aad)

	Mean	SD	α if Item Deleted
In general, I really like TV commercials in <u>English</u> .	4.01	0.91	0.72
In general, I find TV commercials in <u>English</u> to be good.	3.97	0.87	0.67
In general, I truly enjoy TV commercials in <u>English</u> .	3.88	0.92	0.69
In general, I really like TV commercials in <u>Spanish</u> .	3.27	1.03	0.66
In general, I find TV commercials in <u>Spanish</u> to be good.	3.29	1.03	0.64
In general, I truly enjoy TV commercials in <u>Spanish</u> .	3.23	1.04	0.64
Cronbach α Coefficient	0.71		

Chapter 4: Findings

4.1 Preliminary Data Manipulations

The study examines the relationship between *acculturation*, *language use and preference*, and *attitudes* of Hispanic television audiences of Mexican descent. Preliminary data manipulations were required to create composite scores from multi-item scales for acculturation variables of *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity*, and a moderating variable of *bilingualism* in order to test these relationships.

4.1.1 The Computation of Language Use and Preference Index

Derived from ARSMA-II (Cuellar et al., 1995) and Ruggiero and Yang (2005), a composite mean from eleven *language use and preference* items was computed to form a new language variable, *language use and preference* (Mean=0.97, SD=0.31). The variable was then used to median split (Median=0.95) the sample into 2 groups: English dominant (means ranging from 0-0.95) and Spanish-dominant (means ranging from 0.96 to 2) to test effects on the dependent variables. Mean difference comparison indicated that the English-dominant group tended to be bilingual (Mean English dominant=0.50 vs. Mean Spanish dominant=0.86). See Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1

Language Use and Preference					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	English-Dominant				
	Group	156	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Spanish-Dominant				
	Group	156	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	312	100.0	100.0	

4.1.2 The Computation of Ethnic Identity Index

Three variables were used to measure participants' ethnic identity. Participants were originally asked to self-identify their own ethnic identity (Hispanic/Latino, White/Anglo, Black, Asian, or Other), to characterize their own ethnic identity (Very Mexican...Very Anglicized), and to confirm the level of pride they felt in their own ethnic identity (Not Proud at All...Very Proud), both latter items using a 5-point scale. These ethnic identity items were then recoded to collapse some categories in order to create three new variables: *Ethnic Identity*, *Ethnic Characterization*, and *Ethnic Pride*.

Ethnic identity was recoded into two levels of "Hispanic/Latino" and "Non-Hispanic/Latino." As expected for the sample, a high majority (93%) self-identified as Hispanic/Latino and 7% identified as non-Hispanic/Latino despite their affirmed ancestry of Mexican descent. See Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2

Ethnic Identity of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Non-				
	Hispanic/Latino	21	6.7	6.7	6.7
	Hispanic/Latino	291	93.3	93.3	100.0
	Total	312	100.0	100.0	

Following Alba (1990) and Koslow et al. (1994), ethnic identity characterization items were likewise recoded to develop a new variable, *ethnic characterization*, providing three ethnic categories defined as "Mostly Anglicized to Very Anglicized," Mostly Mexican to Very

Mexican,” and “Bicultural.” See Table 4.3 below. The recoding procedure followed Deshpande et al. (1986) and Hirschman (1981) who also modified a similar 5-point scale to measure Strong Hispanic Identifiers and Weak Hispanic Identifiers in their studies of self-designated Hispanics. Almost half of respondents characterized themselves as bicultural and over 87% characterized as either bicultural or mostly to very Mexican.

Table 4.3

Ethnic Characterization of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Mostly Anglicized to				
	Very Anglicized	39	12.5	12.6	12.6
	Mostly Mexican to				
	Very Mexican	125	40.1	40.3	52.9
	Bicultural	146	46.8	47.1	100.0
	Total	310	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.6		
Total		312	100.0		

Following the original ARSMA (Cuellar et al., 1980) as validated by Montgomery and Orozco (1984), respondents’ level of pride in their self-designation of ethnic identity was ascertained and then recoded to develop a new variable, *ethnic pride*, producing a bi-level measure of “Somewhat Not Proud to Not Proud at All” and “Somewhat Proud to Very Proud.” See Table 4.4 below. As a significant element in the measure of *ethnic identity* as a dimension of acculturation, ethnic pride was important in the development of a composite measure of *ethnic*

identity as an independent variable in the study. Over 97% of valid responses showed some degree of pride in their ethnic self-characterizations.

Table 4.4

Ethnic Pride of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Proud at All to				
	Somewhat Not Proud	9	2.9	.9	2.9
	Somewhat Proud to				
	Very Proud	300	96.2	97.1	100.0
	Total	309	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.0		
Total		312	100.0		

4.1.3 The Computation of Bilingualism Index

The moderating variable of *bilingualism* was computed by following Barea et al.'s (2010) definition of bilingual competencies as the comfortable use of both Spanish and English in the communicative activities of one's normal daily life. As such, a composite score was computed by averaging five language scale items indicating respondents' preference for language at home, at work/school, for reading, writing, and for watching television (Mean=0.95, SD=0.38). As with all other language use and preference items, original scale values of 1 = Both, 2 = English, and 3 = Spanish were recoded to 0 = Both, 1 = English, and 2 = Spanish. See Table 4.5. By this composite measure, approximately 75% of respondents used English or both English and Spanish in their daily communicative activities.

Table 4.5

Bilingualism Composite Index of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	4	1.3	1.3	1.3
	.20	6	1.9	1.9	3.2
	.40	22	7.1	7.1	10.3
	.50	1	.3	.3	10.6
	.60	37	11.9	11.9	22.4
	.80	59	18.9	18.9	41.3
	1.00	108	34.6	34.6	76.0
	1.20	33	10.6	10.6	86.5
	1.40	12	3.8	3.8	90.4
	1.60	17	5.4	5.4	95.8
	1.80	3	1.0	1.0	96.8
	2.00	10	3.2	3.2	100.0
	Total	312	100.0	100.0	

4.2 Restatement of Research Questions

The study collected empirical data to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: Does acculturation affect the preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ1-1: Does language use and preference affect the preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ1-2: Does ethnic identity affect the preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ2: Does acculturation affect the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ2-1: Does language use and preference affect the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ2-2: Does ethnic identity affect the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ3: Do demographics (such as gender, generation in the host culture, and bilingualism) affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ3-1: Does gender affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ3-2: Does generation in the host culture affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ3-3: Does bilingualism affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ4: Do demographics (such as gender, generation in the host culture, and bilingualism) affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ4-1: Does gender affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ4-2: Does generation in the host culture affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

RQ4-3: Does bilingualism affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?

4.3 Acculturation Effects on Language Preference in TV Commercials and Aad

The study used three variables to measure how acculturation may explain participants' *language preference of TV commercials* and *attitude toward the ad (Aad)*. Factor analysis was conducted using principal component analysis to allow extraction of two common factors: *Aad – English* and *Aad – Spanish*, and thus composite scores were computed from three survey items for each factor. Descriptive results are shown in Table 4.6 below. Aad variable scale reliability was confirmed with very high α coefficients of 0.88 and 0.93.

Table 4.6

TV Commercial Language Preference and Attitude toward the Ad (Aad) of the Respondents				
		Composite Aad-English ($\alpha=0.88$)	Composite Aad-Spanish ($\alpha=0.93$)	TV Commercial Language Preference
N	Valid	311	311	312
	Missing	1	1	0
Mean		3.96	3.26	.68
Std. Deviation		.814	.980	.605

To examine the main effects of two acculturation variables in this study (i.e., *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity*) on participants' preference for and attitudes toward language in television commercials (RQ1 and RQ2), three MANOVA procedures were run by entering *language use and preference* and three *ethnic identity* variables as the fixed factors, and *TV commercial language preference*, *Aad-English*, and *Aad-Spanish* as the dependent variables. With correlated dependent variables, MANOVA was selected to run multiple tests on variance in three dependent variables simultaneously and to avoid Type I error. The first two tests, using independent ethnic identity variables, Hispanic/Latino or non-Hispanic/Latino, and mostly Mexican to very Mexican, bicultural, or mostly Anglicized to very Anglicized, showed significant relationships and are discussed below. A third test, using ethnic characterization variable of somewhat not proud to not proud at all or somewhat proud to very proud in the independent variable, showed no main effect on the dependent variables and is not discussed.

Results of the first MANOVA test with ethnic identity as an independent variable (Model 1) indicated that Wilks' Lambda for *language use and preference* ($F=2.905$, $p=.035<.05$) significantly predicted the difference between English-language dominant and Spanish-language dominant groups in responses to the dependent variables. However, the model showed no main interaction effect of both independent variables on *TV commercial language preference* and *attitude* ($F=.795$, $p=.498>.05$). See Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7

MANOVA Model 1 (with *Language Use and Preference* and *Ethnic Identity* as the Independent Variables)

		Hypothesis				Observed	
Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.	Power ^b
Language Use and Preference	Pillai's Trace	.028	2.905 ^a	3.000	305.000	.035	.689
	Wilks' Lambda	.972	2.905 ^a	3.000	305.000	.035	.689
	Hotelling's Trace	.029	2.905 ^a	3.000	305.000	.035	.689
	Roy's Largest Root	.029	2.905 ^a	3.000	305.000	.035	.689
Hispanic/Latino or non-Hispanic/Latino	Pillai's Trace	.003	.303 ^a	3.000	305.000	.824	.108
	Wilks' Lambda	.997	.303 ^a	3.000	305.000	.824	.108
	Hotelling's Trace	.003	.303 ^a	3.000	305.000	.824	.108
	Roy's Largest Root	.003	.303 ^a	3.000	305.000	.824	.108
Language Use and Preference * Ethnic Identity	Pillai's Trace	.008	.795 ^a	3.000	305.000	.498	.221
	Wilks' Lambda	.992	.795 ^a	3.000	305.000	.498	.221
	Hotelling's Trace	.008	.795 ^a	3.000	305.000	.498	.221
	Roy's Largest Root	.008	.795 ^a	3.000	305.000	.498	.221

One-Way ANOVA demonstrated that *language use and preference* significantly predicts *TV commercial language preference* ($F=6.745$, $p=.010<.05$) but not *Aad-English* ($F=1.934$, $p=.165>.05$) or *Aad-Spanish* ($F=.567$, $p=.452>.05$). Neither *ethnic identity* as Hispanic/Latino or non-Hispanic/Latino nor interaction effects of *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity* showed any significant effects on the dependent variables. As a result, RQ1 was only partially supported by the effects of RQ1-1 but not RQ1-2. See Table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8

One-Way ANOVA Model 1

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III		Mean Square	F	Sig.	Observed Power ^b
		Sum of Squares	df				
Language Use and Preference	TV Comm Pref	2.264	1	2.264	6.745	.010	.735
	Aad-ENGLISH	1.284	1	1.284	1.934	.165	.283
	Aad-SPANISH	.543	1	.543	.567	.452	.117
Hisp/Lat or Non-Hisp/Lat	TV Comm Pref	.092	1	.092	.275	.600	.082
	Aad-ENGLISH	.020	1	.020	.031	.861	.053
	Aad-SPANISH	.414	1	.414	.432	.512	.100
Language Use and Preference *	TV Comm Pref	8.368E-5	1	8.368E-5	.000	.987	.050
	Aad-ENGLISH	1.587	1	1.587	2.391	.123	.338
	Aad-SPANISH	.019	1	.019	.020	.887	.052

Results of the second MANOVA test with ethnic characterization as an independent variable (Model 2) indicated that Wilks' Lambda for *language use and preference* significantly predicted the difference between English-language dominant and Spanish-language dominant groups in responses to the dependent variables ($F=4.047$, $p=.008<.05$) and the difference between ethnic characterizations of mostly to very Mexican, bicultural, and mostly to very Anglicized ($F=7.098$, $p=.000<.05$) in responses to the dependent variables. While each of the

two independent variables showed a main effect, the model showed no main interaction effect on *TV commercial language preference or attitude* ($F=1.324$, $p=.244>.05$). See Table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9

MANOVA Model 2 (with Language Use and Preference and Ethnic Characterization as the Independent Variables)

		Hypothesis				Observed	
Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.	Power ^b
Language Use and Preference	Pillai's Trace	.039	4.047 ^a	3.000	301.000	.008	.840
	Wilks' Lambda	.961	4.047 ^a	3.000	301.000	.008	.840
	Hotelling's Trace	.040	4.047 ^a	3.000	301.000	.008	.840
	Roy's Largest Root	.040	4.047 ^a	3.000	301.000	.008	.840
Mostly - Very Mex, Bicultural or Mostly – Very Anglicized	Pillai's Trace	.130	6.970	6.000	604.000	.000	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.872	7.098 ^a	6.000	602.000	.000	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.145	.225	6.000	600.000	.000	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.129	13.002 ^c	3.000	302.000	.000	1.000
Language Use and Preference * Mostly – Very Mex, Bicultural or Mostly – Very Anglicized	Pillai's Trace	.026	1.321	6.000	604.000	.246	.521
	Wilks' Lambda	.974	1.324 ^a	6.000	602.000	.244	.522
	Hotelling's Trace	.027	1.328	6.000	600.000	.242	.524
	Roy's Largest Root	.026	2.646 ^c	3.000	302.000	.049	.644

One-Way ANOVA showed significant main effect of *language use and preference* on *TV commercial language preference* ($F=9.130$, $p=.003<.05$) and on *Aad-Spanish* ($F=4.675$, $p=.031<.05$) but not on *Aad-English* ($F=.179$, $p=.673>.05$). Ethnic characterization of very

Mexican-bicultural-very Anglicized showed a significant effect only on *Aad-Spanish* ($F=18.986$, $p=.000<.05$) but not on *Aad-English* ($F=1.857$, $p=.158>.05$) or *TV commercial language preference* ($F=2.447$, $p=.088>.05$). Similarly, interaction effect of the independent variables showed a main effect only on *Aad-Spanish* ($F=3.198$, $p=.042<.05$) but not on *Aad-English* ($F=.096$, $p=.908>.05$) or *TV commercial language preference* ($F=.343$, $p=.710>.05$). As a result, RQ1 was partially supported by the effects of RQ1-1 but not RQ1-2. RQ2 was partially supported by the effects of both RQ2-1 and RQ2-2. See Table 4.10 below.

Table 4.10

One-Way ANOVA Model 2

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum	df	Mean		
		of Squares		Square	F	Sig.
Language Use and Preference	TV Comm Pref	3.037	1	3.037	9.130	.003
	Aad-ENGLISH	.119	1	.119	.179	.673
	Aad-SPANISH	3.612	1	3.612	4.675	.031
Mostly – Very Mex, Bicultural or	TV Comm Pref	1.628	2	.814	2.447	.088
Mostly – Very Anglicized	Aad-ENGLISH	2.469	2	1.234	1.857	.158
	Aad-SPANISH	29.342	2	14.671	18.986	.000
Language Use and Preference *	TV Comm Pref	.228	2	.114	.343	.710
Mostly – Very Mex, Bicultural or	Aad-ENGLISH	.128	2	.064	.096	.908
Mostly – Very Anglicized	Aad-SPANISH	4.942	2	2.471	3.198	.042

4.4 Moderating Effects of Demographics

To examine the moderating effects of demographics of gender, generation in the host culture, and bilingualism on the relationships between the independent and dependent variables, MANCOVA was conducted to measure their moderating effects in a multivariate design (Wrench et al., 2008).

In the first MANCOVA test with *ethnic identity* as an independent variable (Model 1), Wilks' Lambda reported that there was no main effect of *language use and preference* ($F=.569$, $p=.636>.05$) or of *ethnic identity* as Hispanic/Latino or non-Hispanic/Latino ($F=.778$, $p=.588$). However, an interaction effect of *language use and preference* and *generation in the host culture* was found to be significant ($F=3.774$, $p=.037<.05$), as was the interaction effect of *language use and preference* and *bilingualism* ($F=7.500$, $p=.000<.05$). See Table 4.11 below.

Table 4.11

MANCOVA Model 1 (with Ethnic Identity as an Independent Variable)

Effect		Partial						
		Value	F	Hypo-thesis df	Error df	Sig.	Eta Squared	Observed Power ^b
Language Use and Preference	Pillai's Trace	.006	.569 ^a	3.000	291.000	.636	.006	.167
	Wilks' Lambda	.994	.569 ^a	3.000	291.000	.636	.006	.167
	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.006	.569 ^a	3.000	291.000	.636	.006	.167
	Roy's Largest Root							
	Root	.006	.569 ^a	3.000	291.000	.636	.006	.167

Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.016	.778	6.000	584.000	.587	.008	.311
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.984	.778 ^a	6.000	582.000	.588	.008	.311
* Hisp/Lat	Hotelling's							
or non-Hisp/Lat	Trace	.016	.777	6.000	580.000	.588	.008	.310
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.014	1.403 ^c	3.000	292.000	.242	.014	.371
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.008	.804 ^a	3.000	291.000	.492	.008	.223
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.992	.804 ^a	3.000	291.000	.492	.008	.223
* Gender	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.008	.804 ^a	3.000	291.000	.492	.008	.223
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.008	.804 ^a	3.000	291.000	.492	.008	.223
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.037	3.774 ^a	3.000	291.000	.011	.037	.811
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.963	3.774 ^a	3.000	291.000	.011	.037	.811
* Generation	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.039	3.774 ^a	3.000	291.000	.011	.037	.811
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.039	3.774 ^a	3.000	291.000	.011	.037	.811
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.072	7.500 ^a	3.000	291.000	.000	.072	.986
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.928	7.500 ^a	3.000	291.000	.000	.072	.986
*	Hotelling's							
Bilingualism	Trace	.077	7.500 ^a	3.000	291.000	.000	.072	.986

	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.077	7.500 ^a	3.000	291.000	.000	.072	.986
Hispanic/Lat	Pillai's Trace	.012	1.191 ^a	3.000	291.000	.313	.012	.319
or non-Hispanic/Lat	Wilks' Lambda	.988	1.191 ^a	3.000	291.000	.313	.012	.319
* Gender	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.012	1.191 ^a	3.000	291.000	.313	.012	.319
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.012	1.191 ^a	3.000	91.000	.313	.012	.319
Hispanic/Lat	Pillai's Trace	.003	.296 ^a	3.000	291.000	.828	.003	.107
or non-Hispanic/Lat	Wilks' Lambda	.997	.296 ^a	3.000	291.000	.828	.003	.107
* Generation	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.003	.296 ^a	3.000	291.000	.828	.003	.107
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.003	.296 ^a	3.000	291.000	.828	.003	.107
Hispanic/Lat	Pillai's Trace	.010	1.003 ^a	3.000	291.000	.392	.010	.272
or non-Hispanic/Lat *	Wilks' Lambda	.990	1.003 ^a	3.000	291.000	.392	.010	.272
Bilingualism	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.010	1.003 ^a	3.000	291.000	.392	.010	.272
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.010	1.003 ^a	3.000	291.000	.392	.010	.272

One-Way ANCOVA further confirmed a significant effect of *language use and preference* and *generation* on *Aad-Spanish* ($F=8.839$, $p=.003<.05$) but not on *Aad-English*

($F=.443$, $p=.506>.05$) or *TV commercial preference* ($F=.629$, $p=.428>.05$). *Language use and preference* and *bilingualism* also showed significant interaction effect on *Aad-Spanish* ($F=20.72$, $p=.000<.05$) but not on the other dependent variables. Therefore, RQ3 was partially supported by the effects of RQ3-2 and RQ3-3 and RQ4 was partially supported by the effects of RQ4-2 and RQ4-3. *Gender* showed no moderating effect on relationship between the independent and dependent variables. See Table 4.12 below.

Table 4.12

One-Way ANCOVA Model 1

Source		Type						
		III Sum			Partial			
Dependent		of	Mean		Eta		Observed	
Variable		Squares	df	Square	F	Sig.	Squared	Power ^b
Language Use and Preference	TV Comm Pref	.243	1	.243	.778	.379	.003	.142
	Aad-ENGLISH	.037	1	.037	.057	.811	.000	.057
	Aad-SPANISH	.948	1	.948	1.200	.274	.004	.194
Language Use and Preference * Hisp/Lat or non-Hisp/Lat	TV Comm Pref	.103	2	.052	.165	.848	.001	.075
	Aad-ENGLISH	2.119	2	1.059	1.624	.199	.011	.342
	Aad-SPANISH	.918	2	.459	.581	.560	.004	.146

Language Use	TV Comm Pref	.168	1	.168	.537	.464	.002	.113
and Preference								
* Gender	Aad-ENGLISH	.405	1	.405	.621	.431	.002	.123
	Aad-SPANISH	.702	1	.702	.888	.347	.003	.156
Language Use	TV Comm Pref	.196	1	.196	.629	.428	.002	.124
and Preference								
* Generation	Aad-ENGLISH	.289	1	.289	.443	.506	.002	.102
	Aad-SPANISH	6.981	1	6.981	8.839	.003	.029	.842
Language Use	TV Comm Pref	.002	1	.002	.007	.931	.000	.051
and Preference								
* Bilingualism	Aad-ENGLISH	.555	1	.555	.851	.357	.003	.151
	Aad-SPANISH	16.366	1	16.366	20.72	.000	.066	.995
Hisp/Lat	TV Comm Pref	.456	1	.456	1.461	.228	.005	.226
or non-Hisp/Lat								
* Gender	Aad-ENGLISH	1.437	1	1.437	2.204	.139	.007	.316
	Aad-SPANISH	.007	1	.007	.009	.926	.000	.051
Hisp/Lat	TV Comm Pref	.046	1	.046	.147	.701	.001	.067

or non-Hisp/Lat								
* Generation	Aad-ENGLISH	.473	1	473	.725	.395	.002	.136
	Aad-SPANISH	.007	1	.007	.009	.924	.000	.051
Hisp/Lat	TV Comm Pref	.511	1	.511	1.635	.202	.006	.247
or non-Hisp/								
Lat *	Aad-ENGLISH	.259	1	.259	.397	.529	.001	.096
Bilingualism								
	Aad-SPANISH	.159	1	1.159	1.468	.227	.005	.227

Results of the second MANCOVA test with *ethnic characterization* as an independent variable (Model 2) showed only a significant Wilks' Lambda for the interaction effect of *language use and preference* and *bilingualism* ($F=4.191$, $p=.006<.05$) and not for any other variables. See Table 4.13 below.

Table 4.13

MANCOVA Model 2 (with Ethnic Characterization as an Independent Variable)

Effect		Hypo-				Partial		
		thesis				Eta		
		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.	Squared	Power ^b
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.015	1.433 ^a	3.000	285.000	.233	.015	.378
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.985	1.433 ^a	3.000	285.000	.233	.015	.378

	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.015	1.433 ^a	3.000	285.000	.233	.015	.378
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.015	1.433 ^a	3.000	285.000	.233	.015	.378
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.008	.808 ^a	3.000	285.000	.490	.008	.224
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.992	.808 ^a	3.000	285.000	.490	.008	.224
* Gender	Hotelling's							.224
	Trace	.009	.808 ^a	3.000	285.000	.490	.008	
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.009	.808 ^a	3.000	285.000	.490	.008	.224
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.017	1.655 ^a	3.000	285.000	.177	.017	.432
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.983	1.655 ^a	3.000	285.000	.177	.017	.432
* Generation	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.017	1.655 ^a	3.000	285.000	.177	.017	.432
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.017	1.655 ^a	3.000	285.000	.177	.017	.432
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.042	4.191 ^a	3.000	285.000	.006	.042	.853
and Preference *	Wilks' Lambda	.958	4.191 ^a	3.000	285.000	.006	.042	.853
Bilingualism	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.044	4.191 ^a	3.000	285.000	.006	.042	.853
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.044	4.191 ^a	3.000	285.000	.006	.042	.853

Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.032	.769	12.000	861.000	.683	.011	.460
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.968	.766	12.000	754.331	.686	.011	.401
* Mostly -	Hotelling's							
Very Mex,	Trace	.032	.763	12.000	851.000	.689	.011	.456
Bicultural or	Roy's Largest							
Mostly – Very	Root	.019	1.351 ^c	4.000	287.000	.251	.018	.420
Anglicized								
Mostly -	Pillai's Trace	.014	.679	6.000	572.000	.667	.007	.272
Very Mex,	Wilks' Lambda	.986	.679 ^a	6.000	570.000	.667	.007	.272
Bicultural or	Hotelling's							
Mostly – Very	Trace	.014	.678	6.000	568.000	.667	.007	.271
Anglicized	Roy's Largest							
* Gender	Root	.014	1.293 ^c	3.000	286.000	.277	.013	.344
Mostly -	Pillai's Trace	.015	.699	6.000	572.000	.651	.007	.279
Very Mex,	Wilks' Lambda	.985	.698 ^a	6.000	570.000	.651	.007	.279
Bicultural or	Hotelling's							
Mostly – Very	Trace	.015	.697	6.000	568.000	.652	.007	.279
Anglicized	Roy's Largest							
* Generation	Root	.013	1.286 ^c	3.000	286.000	.279	.013	.342
Mostly -	Pillai's Trace	.018	.864	6.000	572.000	.521	.009	.345
Very Mex,	Wilks' Lambda	.982	.864 ^a	6.000	570.000	.521	.009	.345

Bicultural or	Hotelling's							
Mostly – Very	Trace	.018	.863	6.000	568.000	.522	.009	.344
Anglicized *	Roy's Largest							
Bilingualism	Root	.017	1.604 ^c	3.000	286.000	.189	.017	.420

Additionally, One-Way ANCOVA tests confirmed significant interaction effect of *language use and preference* and *bilingualism* on *Aad-Spanish* ($F=11.63$, $p=.001<.05$) but not on *Aad-English* ($F=.847$, $p=.358>.05$) or *TV commercial language preference* ($F=.403$, $p=.526$). *Ethnic characterization* of mostly to very Mexican, bicultural, or mostly to very Anglicized exhibited no interaction with the dependent variables. Similarly, *gender* and *generation in the host culture* demonstrated no moderating effect on relationship between the independent and dependent variables. See Table 4.14 below. As a result, RQ3 was only partially supported by the effects of RQ3-3 and RQ4 was partially supported by the effects of RQ4-3.

Table 4.14

One-Way ANCOVA Model 2

Source		Type III					Partial	
	Dependent	Sum of	Mean				Eta	Observed
	Variable	Squares	df	Square	F	Sig.	Squared	Power ^b
Language Use and Preference	TV Comm Pref	.550	1	.550	1.792	.182	.006	.266
	Aad-ENGLISH	.574	1	.574	.869	.352	.003	.153
	Aad-SPANISH	1.516	1	1.516	2.095	.149	.007	.303
Language Use	TV Comm Pref	.034	1	.034	.112	.738	.000	.063

and Preference	Aad-ENGLISH	.066	1	.066	.100	.752	.000	.061
* Gender	Aad-SPANISH	1.451	1	1.451	2.005	.158	.007	.292
Language Use	TV Comm Pref	.186	1	.186	.608	.436	.002	.121
and Preference	Aad-ENGLISH	.221	1	.221	.335	.563	.001	.089
* Generation	Aad-SPANISH	2.483	1	2.483	3.431	.065	.012	.455
Language Use	TV Comm Pref	.124	1	.124	.403	.526	.001	.097
and Preference	Aad-ENGLISH	.559	1	.559	.847	.358	.003	.150
*	Aad-SPANISH	8.414	1	8.414	11.63	.001	.039	.925
Bilingualism								
Language Use	TV Comm Pref	1.165	4	.291	.949	.436	.013	.300
and Preference	Aad-ENGLISH	2.087	4	.522	.790	.532	.011	.252
* Mostly -	Aad-SPANISH	2.192	4	.548	.757	.554	.010	.243
Very Mex, Bicultural or Mostly – Very Anglicized								
Mostly -	TV Comm Pref	.299	2	.150	.488	.614	.003	.130
Very Mex,	Aad-ENGLISH	1.898	2	.949	1.437	.239	.010	.307
Bicultural or	Aad-SPANISH	.202	2	.101	.140	.870	.001	.071
Mostly – Very Anglicized								
* Gender								
Mostly -	TV Comm Pref	.095	2	.048	.155	.856	.001	.074

Very Mex,	Aad-ENGLISH	1.085	2	.543	.822	.441	.006	.190
Bicultural or	Aad-SPANISH	1.691	2	.845	1.168	.312	.008	.255
Mostly – Very								
Anglicized *								
Generation								
Mostly -	TV Comm Pref	1.452	2	.726	2.366	.096	.016	.476
Very Mex,	Aad-ENGLISH	.140	2	.070	.106	.899	.001	.066
Bicultural or	Aad-SPANISH	.475	2	.238	.328	.720	.002	.102
Mostly – Very								
Anglicized *								
Bilingualism								

Results of the third MANCOVA test with *ethnic pride* as an independent variable (Model 3) indicated significant Wilks' Lambda for the interaction effect of *language use and preference* and *generation in the host culture* ($F=3.443$, $p=.017<.05$), interaction of *language use and preference* and *bilingualism* ($F=7.805$, $p=.000<.05$), and interaction of *ethnic pride* (somewhat not proud to not proud at all or somewhat proud to very proud) and *generation* ($F=2.751$, $p=.043$). See Table 4.15 below.

Table 4.15

MANCOVA Model 3 (with Ethnic Pride as an Independent Variable)

Effect	Hypo-				Partial		
	thesis				Eta	Observed	
	Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.	Squared	Power ^b

Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.006	.562 ^a	3.000	288.000	.641	.006	.166
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.994	.562 ^a	3.000	288.000	.641	.006	.166
	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.006	.562 ^a	3.000	288.000	.641	.006	.166
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.006	.562 ^a	3.000	288.000	.641	.006	.166
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.009	.918 ^a	3.000	288.000	.433	.009	.251
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.991	.918 ^a	3.000	288.000	.433	.009	.251
* Gender	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.010	.918 ^a	3.000	288.000	.433	.009	.251
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.010	.918 ^a	3.000	288.000	.433	.009	.251
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.035	3.443 ^a	3.000	288.000	.017	.035	.770
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.965	3.443 ^a	3.000	288.000	.017	.035	.770
* Generation	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.036	3.443 ^a	3.000	288.000	.017	.035	.770
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.036	3.443 ^a	3.000	288.000	.017	.035	.770
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.075	7.805 ^a	3.000	288.000	.000	.075	.989
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.925	7.805 ^a	3.000	288.000	.000	.075	.989
*	Hotelling's							
Bilingualism	Trace	.081	7.805 ^a	3.000	288.000	.000	.075	.989

	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.081	7.805 ^a	3.000	288.000	.000	.075	.989
Language Use	Pillai's Trace	.043	2.100	6.000	578.000	.052	.021	.757
and Preference	Wilks' Lambda	.958	2.098 ^a	6.000	576.000	.052	.021	.756
* Ethnic Pride	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.044	2.095	6.000	574.000	.052	.021	.756
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.032	3.065 ^c	3.000	289.000	.028	.031	.715
Ethnic Pride	Pillai's Trace	.015	1.417 ^a	3.000	288.000	.238	.015	.375
* Gender	Wilks' Lambda	.985	1.417 ^a	3.000	288.000	.238	.015	.375
	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.015	1.417 ^a	3.000	288.000	.238	.015	.375
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.015	1.417 ^a	3.000	288.000	.238	.015	.375
Ethnic Pride	Pillai's Trace	.028	2.751 ^a	3.000	288.000	.043	.028	.663
* Generation	Wilks' Lambda	.972	2.751 ^a	3.000	288.000	.043	.028	.663
	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.029	2.751 ^a	3.000	288.000	.043	.028	.663
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.029	2.751 ^a	3.000	88.000	.043	.028	.663
Ethnic Pride *	Pillai's Trace	.006	.594 ^a	3.000	288.000	.620	.006	.173
Bilingualism	Wilks' Lambda	.994	.594 ^a	3.000	288.000	.620	.006	.173

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	Hotelling's							
	Trace	.006	.594 ^a	3.000	288.000	.620	.006	.173
	Roy's Largest							
	Root	.006	.594 ^a	3.000	288.000	.620	.006	.173
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One-Way ANCOVA confirmed a main effect of *language use and preference* and *generation* on *Aad-Spanish* ($F=8.166$, $p=.005<.05$) and an interaction effect of *language use and preference* and *bilingualism* on *Aad-Spanish* ($F=20.68$, $p=.000$). ANCOVA also demonstrated an interaction effect of *ethnic pride* and *generation* on *Aad-Spanish* ($F=4.847$, $p=.028<.05$) but not on *Aad-English* ($F=1.691$, $p=.195>.05$) or *TV commercial language preference* ($F=.506$, $p=.477>.05$). See Table 4.16 below. As a result, RQ3 was not supported and RQ4 was partially supported by the effects of RQ4-2 and RQ4.3.

Table 4.16

One-Way ANCOVA Model 3

Source		Type III						
	Dependent	Sum of	Mean				Partial Eta	Observed
	Variable	Squares	df	Square	F	Sig.	Squared	Power ^b
Language Use and Preference	TV Comm Pref	.443	1	.443	1.441	.231	.005	.223
	Aad-ENGLISH	.140	1	.140	.215	.643	.001	.075
	Aad-SPANISH	.208	1	.208	.269	.605	.001	.081
Language Use and Preference	TV Comm Pref	.235	1	.235	.763	.383	.003	.140
	Aad-ENGLISH	.165	1	.165	.253	.615	.001	.079

*	Aad-SPANISH	.931	1	.931	1.200	.274	.004	.194
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Gender

Language Use	TV Comm Pref	.173	1	.173	.564	.453	.002	.116
and Preference	Aad-ENGLISH	.111	1	.111	.169	.681	.001	.069
* Generation	Aad-SPANISH	6.333	1	6.333	8.166	.005	.027	.813
Language Use	TV Comm Pref	.013	1	.013	.041	.839	.000	.055
and Preference	Aad-ENGLISH	.592	1	.592	.907	.342	.003	.158
*	Aad-SPANISH	16.037	1	16.037	20.68	.000	.067	.995

Bilingualism

Language Use	TV Comm Pref	.767	2	.384	1.247	.289	.009	.271
and Preference	Aad-ENGLISH	3.049	2	1.524	2.334	.099	.016	.471
* Ethnic Pride	Aad-SPANISH	2.825	2	1.413	1.821	.164	.012	.379
Ethnic Pride	TV Comm Pref	.548	1	.548	1.781	.183	.006	.265
* Gender	Aad-ENGLISH	1.310	1	1.310	2.006	.158	.007	.292
	Aad-SPANISH	.098	1	.098	.127	.722	.000	.065
Ethnic Pride	TV Comm Pref	.156	1	.156	.506	.477	.002	.109
* Generation	Aad-ENGLISH	.104	1	1.104	1.691	.195	.006	.254
	Aad-SPANISH	3.759	1	3.759	4.847	.028	.016	.593
Ethnic Pride	TV Comm Pref	.291	1	.291	.947	.331	.003	.163
*	Aad-ENGLISH	.033	1	.033	.051	.822	.000	.056
Bilingualism	Aad-SPANISH	.321	1	.321	.414	.521	.001	.098

Table 4.17 below summarizes the statistical findings in support of or rejecting the research questions presented. As shown, effects of *language use and preference* do predict *TV commercial language preference* among the sample population but effects of *ethnic identity* do not. *Attitude toward the ad* is partially affected by both *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity*. Demographic variables partially moderate the relationship between *acculturation* and *TV commercial language preference* through the effects of *generation in the host culture* and *bilingualism*, but not the effects of *gender*. Similarly, demographic variables of *generation* and *bilingualism* moderate the relationship between *acculturation* and *attitude toward the ad*, but *gender* does not.

Table 4.17

Summary Table of Findings

Research Questions	Results
RQ1: Does acculturation affect the preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?	Was partially supported.
RQ1-1: Does language use and preference affect the preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?	Was supported.
RQ1-2: Does ethnic identity affect the preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?	Was not supported.
RQ2: Does acculturation affect the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?	Was partially supported.
RQ2-1: Does language use and preference affect the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?	Was partially supported.

RQ2-2: Does ethnic identity affect the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic Audiences of Mexican descent?	Was partially supported.
RQ3: Do demographics (such as gender, generation in the host culture, and bilingualism) affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?	Was partially supported.
RQ3-1: Does gender affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?	Was not supported.
RQ3-2: Does generation in the host culture affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?	Was partially supported.
RQ3-3: Does bilingualism affect the relationship between acculturation and preference for English or Spanish TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?	Was partially supported.
RQ4: Do demographics (such as gender, generation in the host culture, and bilingualism) affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?	Was partially supported.
RQ4-1: Does gender affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?	Was not supported.
RQ4-2: Does generation in the host culture affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?	Was partially supported.
RQ4-3: Does bilingualism affect the relationship between acculturation and the attitude toward the TV commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent?	Was partially supported.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The study attempted to explore the relationship between acculturation and television language preference and attitude among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent. Based on a multidimensional theoretical model adapted from Cuellar et al. (1980, 1995) and Ueltschy and Krampf (1997), the research questions were structured to address possible relationships between an independent variable of acculturation, measured by two specific dimensions used widely in previous research, i.e., *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity*, and three dependent variables, *TV commercial language preference*, *attitude toward the commercial in English*, and *attitude toward the commercial in Spanish*. Three moderating variables of *gender*, *generation in the host culture*, and *bilingualism* were also rendered to examine any moderating relationships between the independent and dependent variables. Discussion of findings based on the study's empirical data follows the structure of the research questions presented as each offers a distinctive perspective on the variables under examination.

5.1 Acculturation Effects on TV Commercial Language Preference

Will the level of participants' acculturation have any effects on their preference of language in TV commercials? To answer this question for advertisers and advertising research, the study used two acculturation variables, *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity*.

5.1.1 Effects of Language Use and Preference on TV Commercial Language Preference

Previous research clearly suggests that language is an integral construct in acculturation theory and the most commonly used variable in multidimensional measures (Burnam et al., 1987; Cuellar et al., 1980; Cuellar et al., 1995; Mainous, 1989; Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997). The original 20-item ARSMA scale (Cuellar et al., 1980) was based on four factors: language use and

preference, ethnic identification and generation, language of reading, writing, and general cultural heritage and exposure; and ethnic interaction, or the ethnicity of persons with whom the respondent associated. Specific to media use and preference, other studies focused on various measures of language use as a dimension of media preference specific to Hispanics but much of the research was concentrated on media content other than television commercials. As a result, the present study attempted to compare and contrast findings with similar research that used *language use and preference* as a predictor of media preference, advertising effectiveness and recall, and other dimensions of multicultural consumer behaviors. The language variables explored in the current study included language spoken at home, at work/school and in social situations with friends; language preferred in the consumption of television, and language used in reading and writing.

Empirical data from the current study's survey of Hispanics of Mexican descent indicates that an individual's *language use and preference* in daily communicative actions does influence his/her *preference for the language used in TV commercials*. This would seem to support previous research on language use and the efficiency of message processing in the dominant language. For example, Dolinsky (1984) examined the relationship between information overload and linguistic ability in print advertisements and found that bilingual Hispanics process information more effectively in their dominant language. Feinberg (1988), using a Spanish-dominant sample of Hispanics, generated results showing that Hispanics prefer advertisements in Spanish and process information more effectively in Spanish as the dominant language. Newton (1986) had previously used four groups of bilingual Mexican-Americans and an Anglo monolingual control group in a study of radio advertising and found no significant differences in advertising recall that could be attributed to the choice of language used in the ad. The Newton

sample, however, was mostly U.S. born Hispanics with higher family incomes and higher level jobs than the general Hispanic population, indicating a high level of acculturation and English fluency. His study suggested, therefore, that advertising recall based on language used in the ad was not affected in Anglo groups or groups of high-accultured Hispanics.

While previous research has not been specific to an individual's preference for TV commercial language, considerable research has demonstrated *language use and preference*, as a dimension of acculturation, to be a reliable predictor of media language preference and advertising effectiveness as important consumer behavior considerations in multicultural marketing. Roslow (2006) used phone interviews and focus groups to test Hispanic adults for advertising recall, persuasiveness, and main-message communication of selected Spanish- and English-language television commercials aired within specific Spanish- and English-language news and entertainment programming. Employing Webster's (1990, 1991) ethnic identity categorization of Hispanics into high Hispanic identifiers and low Hispanic identifiers based on the degree to which Spanish was spoken at home, the study's subjects were either Spanish-dominant (spoke Spanish only or Spanish mostly in the home) or bilingual (spoke Spanish and English equally in the home). His study assessed persuasiveness in a controlled setting designed to contrast television advertising aimed at Hispanic viewers and broadcast in Spanish with advertising directed to a similar group of Hispanics but broadcast in English. In measuring these dimensions of advertising language use, he found indication of higher score advantage of Spanish-over-English for the criteria used and the results were in line with findings of Nicholls and Roslow (1996) which had previously studied main message retention and found a greater degree of main message recall for those Hispanics viewing television in Spanish than those viewing in English.

Ruggiero and Yang (2005) tested hypotheses of influence on Hispanics' response to Spanish language media content by degree of linguistic acculturation, using a 5-point scale designed by Arnold and Maldonado (1995) to measure the linguistic acculturation rate of Mexican Americans. As employed in the current study, a composite mean from several language use items was computed and correlated with language preferences in different media. Linguistic acculturation was predicted to influence response to media content with study data confirming that high linguistically acculturated respondents consistently showed significant preference for Spanish language media content, while low linguistically acculturated respondents preferred Spanish language media content less. In summary, most previous studies found that ethnic groups responded more favorably to media programming and content presented in their native language (Brill, 1994; Feinberg, 1988, cited in Ruggiero & Yang, 2005; Roslow & Roslow, 1980), while other research failed to find any significant differences in preference for English or Spanish (Newton, 1986) and few studies were specific to television commercials.

The current study found a significant relationship between *language use and preference*, measured by a composite mean of key language use and preference variables, and *the television commercial language preference* of Hispanics of Mexican descent. This supports previous research that *language use and preference* does predict media consumption behaviors (O'Guinn & Meyer, 1984; Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997) and complements findings in previous studies cited above that have indicated a similar relationship between *language use and preference* and media language preference, message recall, and other dimensions of multicultural marketing.

5.1.2 Effects of Ethnic Identity on TV Commercial Language Preference

In the present study, dimensions of the independent variable of *ethnic identity* were examined through three variables created by recoding the original 5-item nominal *ethnic identity*

variable (Hispanic/Latino, White/Anglo, Black, Asian, or Other), and the two original 5-item Likert scale variables for *ethnic characterization* (Very Mexican...Very Anglicized) and *ethnic pride* in the characterization (Not Proud at All...Very Proud). *Ethnic identity* was recoded into two levels of “Hispanic/Latino” and “Non-Hispanic/Latino,” *ethnic characterization* items were recoded into three ethnic categories defined as “Mostly Anglicized to Very Anglicized,” “Mostly Mexican to Very Mexican,” and “Bicultural”; and items for respondents’ level of *ethnic pride* in their characterizations were recoded to produce a bi-level measure of “Not Proud at All to Somewhat Not Proud” and “Somewhat Proud to Very Proud.”

Statistical analysis found that all three *ethnic identity* variables showed no effects on respondents’ *TV commercial language preference*. These results would seem to contradict Ruggiero and Yang (2005) who studied the dimension of *ethnic identity*, along with *language use and preference*, as the most pertinent of “other dimensions of the acculturation process effecting mass media consumption” (p.2). Their study found that, while Anglo identity and American identity did not predict respondents’ preference of media language, identity with Mexicans or Mexican-Americans showed strikingly different and consistent patterns of media language preference. Respondents who identified with Mexicans preferred Spanish-language programming and content, and those identified with Mexican-Americans preferred English-language programming and content. T-test results supported the relationships between the two variables of *ethnic identity* and *media language preference*, with non-Hispanic respondents consistently showing a preference for English language media content and Hispanic respondents consistently showing a preference for Spanish language content. As such, *ethnic identity* showed significant effect on media language preference.

The findings of the current study, however, do seem to support the general findings of another exploration of ethnic identity as a significant factor in media preference. Villarreal and Peterson (2008) argued that there was a difference between being Hispanic and possessing Hispanicness (Hispanic ethnicity) and that the difference between the two had important media preference and behavior implications. Using a revised version of Phinney's (1992) Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure and Villarreal's (2004) Pan-Hispanic Familism Scale, the study divided the sample into four groups: *A-Symbolic Hispanics* with relatively weak ethnic identity, *Symbolic Hispanics* with the strongest ethnic identity, *Strong Hispanics* with the second highest strength of ethnic identity, and *Weak Hispanics* with the weakest ethnic identity. Mean responses of the four ethnicity groups were related to 12 media preference and behavior items using both within-group and across-groups analysis. The results suggested that across the media investigated – television, radio, newspapers and magazines – the four ethnic groups tended to generally engage the media in both English and Spanish. Although Strong Hispanics showed a slightly greater preference for Spanish-language media than the other groups, there was no strong preference by any one group for being exposed to only English-language or Spanish-language communication. Indeed, all groups tended to watch more English- language television which proved counter to previous findings of O'Guinn et al. (1985) and others who reported that Spanish-language preferred Hispanics only tend to watch Spanish-language television. With no effect of ethnic identity on TV commercial language preference, the current study more closely aligns with Villarreal and Peterson (2008) who found no strong preference by any one ethnic group for being exposed to only English-language or Spanish-language communication.

The contradiction of findings in one study and complementary support of findings in another appear to be another example of the often conflicting nature of acculturation research, particularly in media studies with wide varieties of variable use and conceptual models.

5.2 Acculturation Effects on Attitude toward the TV Commercials

As an affective construct, *attitude toward the ad (Aad)* has been defined as a “predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion” (Lutz, 1985, cited in MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986, p.130). Consistent with Fishbein and Ajzen’s (1975) definition of attitude which viewed *Aad* as comprising solely an evaluative or affective response to the commercial stimulus and did not refer to cognitive or behavioral responses, *Aad* has been found to be a mediator of advertising effects on brand attitude and purchase intent (Mitchell & Olson, 1981) and a stronger predictor of brand attitude than ad credibility (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989). Zinkhan, Locander, and Leigh (1986) also found that *attitude toward the ad* and attitude toward a brand were strongly associated with aided brand recall and recognition.

While many studies have used *Aad* as an independent or moderating variable (MacKenzie et al., 1986; Zinkhan, et al., 1986), the current study used *attitude toward the ad* as a dependent variable in order to test acculturation effects. Following Ueltschy and Krampf’s (1997) communication-effect acculturation research, the current study operationalized *Aad* with a set of three questions measuring attitude toward TV commercials in English and Spanish to measure respondents’ attitude as indicated by the extent to which they liked the commercial, enjoyed the commercial, and found the commercial to be good. Factor analysis was conducted using principal component analysis to allow extraction of two factors: *Aad – English* and *Aad – Spanish*, and composite scores were computed from the three survey items for each factor.

Empirical data from the current study's survey of Hispanics of Mexican descent indicates that acculturation does predict attitude toward the language used in the ad through main effect demonstrated by both independent variables.

5.2.1 The Main Effects of Language Use and Preference on Attitude toward the TV Commercials

In the present study, statistical analysis reported a main effect of *language use and preference* on *Aad-Spanish* but not on *Aad-English*. Also, interaction effect of *language use and preference* and the *ethnic characterization* of mostly to very Mexican, mostly to very Anglicized, and bicultural predicted *Aad-Spanish* but not *Aad-English*.

The results appear to support the notion that an individual's preference for and use of language as a dimension of acculturation does influence *attitude toward the ad* but is more likely to affect *Aad* in the heritage language than in the host language. Acculturative interaction of *language use and preference* and *ethnic characterization* of mostly to very Mexican, mostly to very Anglicized, and bicultural also is shown to affect *Aad-Spanish*. Indeed, mean difference analysis indicated that the English-dominant group tended to be bilingual when compared to the Spanish-dominant group (Mean_{English dominant}=0.50 vs. Mean_{Spanish dominant}=0.86) and that the English-dominant group tended to prefer Spanish TV commercials more than the Spanish-dominant group (Mean_{English dominant}=3.37 vs. Mean_{Spanish dominant}= 3.16).

An assumption of accommodation theory as applied to advertising is that Hispanic consumers reached with Spanish-language advertising have positive feelings about their culture and language (Koslow et al., 1994). In their study of language effects on ethnic advertising, the researchers found support for their hypothesis that, among Hispanic consumers, perceptions of the advertiser's sensitivity to Hispanic culture are associated positively with affect toward

advertisements that use the Spanish language. “Spanish language usage increases Hispanics consumers’ perceptions of the advertiser’s sensitivity, which in turn have a positive influence on their affect toward the advertisement” (p. 581).

However, Platt and Weber (1984) showed that positive feelings and attitudes are not always present in a communicative act. For example, they discovered that a speaker’s use of an ethnic language and dialect does not always lead to positive feelings on the ethnic recipient’s part. They suggested that, while racism toward Hispanics in the U.S. was not as common as it was in prior decades, linguistic insecurity might be more likely to be observed among Hispanics who had not formed a strong affinity with their native culture or who were more linguistically acculturated. Koslow et al. (1994) supported that position by suggesting that “Although minority language may have a positive effect through the perceived cultural sensitivity of the advertiser, it may also have a direct negative effect on affect toward the advertisement due to language-related inferiority complexes” (p.577).

As *language use and preference* shows effect on *Aad-Spanish* in the present study, the relationship may be explained by respondents’ appreciation for the advertiser’s sensitivity to their culture by using the preferred language or the language of most often and comfortable use. Interaction effect of *language use and preference* and *ethnic characterization* on *Aad-Spanish* may also be explained by that appreciation as determined by the respondents’ level of ethnic characterization as mostly to very Mexican, bicultural, or mostly to very Anglicized. The fact that analysis of mean difference showed that the English-dominant respondent group tended to prefer Spanish language commercials more than the Spanish-dominant group seems to support the notion that Hispanics who have not formed a strong affinity with their native culture (mostly to very Anglicized) or who were more linguistically acculturated (English dominant) do not

always have positive feelings about advertisements in the dominant language or in response to the advertiser's sensitivity to the Hispanic culture.

5.2.2 The Main Effects of Ethnic Identity on Attitude toward the TV Commercials

In the current study, MANOVA reported that *ethnic characterization* of mostly to very Mexican, mostly to very Anglicized, or bicultural showed main effect on *Aad-Spanish* and, as described above, an interaction effect with *language use and preference* on *Aad-Spanish*. *Ethnic identity* as Hispanic/Latino or non-Hispanic/Latino, and *ethnic pride* demonstrated no main effect on *Aad-Spanish* or *Aad-English*. With such an interaction effect, comparison of mean difference between English-dominant and Spanish-dominant groups unexpectedly found that the English-dominant group preferred Spanish TV commercials more than the Spanish-dominant group (Mean_{English dominant}=3.37 vs. Mean_{Spanish dominant}=3.16). And as *ethnic characterization* showed effect on *Aad-Spanish*, mean difference comparison indicated that the mostly – very Anglicized group (Mean_{Anglo}=2.34) did not prefer Spanish TV commercials when compared to the mostly – very Mexican group (Mean_{Mexican}=3.67), and the bicultural group (Mean_{bicultural}=3.17) was in the middle.

The statistically significant effect of *ethnic characterization* on *Aad-Spanish* concurred with Deshpande et al. (1984) who hypothesized that “strong Hispanic identifiers” are more likely to have a positive attitude toward advertising than are “weak Hispanic identifiers” (p.216). Their study purported to largely confirm the importance of using the strength of ethnic identification as a measure of acculturation and showed strong differences between the two Hispanic groups in terms of their attitudes toward use of Spanish language media and preferences for ethnically-advertised brands. The present study concurred with their findings that *ethnic characterization* is likely to be similar to their concept of Hispanic identification and results appeared to largely

confirm those differences, with the mostly to very Mexican group having a stronger attitude toward Spanish ads than the mostly to very Anglicized group but the English-dominant group preferred Spanish commercials more than the Spanish-dominant group. This data points to the complexities and often contradictory results of multivariate analysis in communication studies.

5.3 Demographic Effects on the Relationship between Acculturation and TV

Commercial Language Preference and Attitudes

Most early studies on acculturation and media preference used demographics of age, gender, education and household income, along with a variety of acculturation indicators such as years of residency, country of origin, and language preference for multiple media to suggest a profile of consumers of Spanish-language media as lower in acculturation and socioeconomic status than those who preferred English-language media (Dunn, 1975; Guernica & Kasperuk, 1982). Duran and Monroe (1977) examined television news and entertainment programming engagement among Hispanics and found that exposure to Spanish-language TV and dependence on it for information about their Hispanic community was significantly associated with lower education, fewer years of residency, and speaking and reading mostly in Spanish. Guernica and Kasperuk (1982) studied Hispanic television consumption and found that female, older and lower income Hispanics were more likely than other Hispanics to watch Spanish TV programming. Feinberg (1988) used slide screen media with a sample of bilingual college students to suggest that Hispanics paid more attention to ads in Spanish than in English, preferred ads in Spanish over English, and could recall ads in Spanish better than in English.

Other studies explored other dimensions of acculturation beyond demographic effects, testing relationship between levels of acculturation and a variety of cognitive, affective and behavioral measures, using demographics as possible intervening variables moderating

independent and dependent variable relationship (Noriega & Blair, 2008; Roslow & Nicholls, 1996; Ueltschy, 2001). For example, O'Guinn and Meyer (1984) attempted to go beyond just demographic analysis by developing a profile of Hispanics who preferred Spanish-language radio based on media use and consumption variables, along with traditional demographic characteristics. They found that preference for Spanish-language radio programming was not only related to age and education, but also to other factors such as marital status, a preference for Spanish language use at home and while watching TV, as well as consumer behaviors such as the purchase of phonograph records, tapes and soft drinks. While many studies found that ethnic groups responded more favorably to media programming and content presented in their native language (Brill, 1994; Feinberg, 1988, cited in Ruggiero & Yang, 2005; Roslow & Roslow, 1980), other research failed to find any significant differences in preference for English or Spanish (Newton, 1986) and few studies were specific to television commercials.

MANCOVA in the current study demonstrated moderating effect of demographics on the relationship between the independent variable of *language use and preference* and the dependent variable of *Aad-Spanish*. Moderating effect was also found on the relationship between *ethnic pride* and *Aad-Spanish*. While interaction effects by *generation in the host culture* and *bilingualism* were exhibited, *gender* showed no main or interaction effect on any variable relationship.

5.3.1 The Moderating Effect of Gender on the Relationship between Acculturation and TV Commercial Language Preference

MANCOVA in the present study reported no main or interaction effect of *gender* on any variable relationship. This is counter to numerous previous studies that have shown that *gender* influences both the process of migration to the United States and behavioral adaptation upon

arrival (Hill & Wong, 2005) and consistently functions as a factor of moderation in relationship between acculturation and health, familial relationships, media preference, consumer behavior, and other multicultural issues. Differences in perceptions, motivations and attitudes held by men and women, and the implications for theory, methods and policy in a variety of disciplines have commonly been uncovered and explored in virtually all acculturation research (Gorman, Read & Krueger, 2010; Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 1991). Studies on media language preference, advertising effectiveness and consumer behavior have demonstrated marked distinction by *gender* in affective response to advertising models and imagery (Ueltschey, 2001) and advertising recall and purchase intent (Nicholls & Roslow, 1996).

The results in the present study may be attributed to the characteristics of the study's convenience sample of young university students who have not yet fully developed consumer attitudes and media behaviors significantly affected by *gender* differentiation or by interaction with other variables such as those presented in this study. Furthermore, since much previous research showed *gender* as a moderator in studies of health issues, personal relationships, and media behaviors with higher emotional dimensions, such as television news and entertainment programming, the current study's focus on *TV commercial language preference* may not have presented the gravitas to stimulate the degree of moderation or affective response seen in other research. An extensive review of previous acculturation literature specific to marketing and advertising communication found only one study in which gender had no main or interactive effect on evaluations. Carroll and Luna (2011), in their study to uncover whether, for bilinguals, words pertaining to specific content areas of advertisements were more accessible in one language than in another language, used a linear mixed effects model to reveal a significant interaction effect for language and content area, including word length as a covariate. However,

even though the content areas were easily mapped on to traditional male/female gender roles, results showed no main or interaction effect and the variable was not included in further analysis nor was any discussion presented regarding the outcome.

5.3.2 The Moderating Effect of Generation on the Relationship between Acculturation and TV Commercial Language Preference

In the current study, MANCOVA showed no moderating effect of *generation in the host culture* on the relationship between either independent variable of *language use and preference* or *ethnic identity* and the dependent variable of *TV commercial language preference*. While some researchers have used *generation in the host culture* as a scale-item measure of acculturation or as an independent variable of relationship with an extensive array of affective and behavioral measures, other researchers and the present study have elected to use *generation* as a demographic variable of analysis in order to correlate the effect(s) of country of nativity and length of time in the host country of both an individual and his/her parents and ancestors on other acculturation variables.

Orozco and Thompson (1993) used a covariance structure analysis of the original ARSMA scale and determined that generation in the host culture, as a dimension of ethnic identity, was least correlated with behavioral factors of oral language usage and ethnic interaction with Mexico. They suggested that generation and other dimensions of a composite measure of acculturation did influence the effectiveness of mental health services and treatments cited in their study but they did not postulate on why generation was the least correlated factor. Marin and Marin (1991) developed a Brief Acculturation Scale (BAS) for Hispanic-Americans using only four items and validated the use of generational proximity as a measure of acculturation, especially useful in longitudinal studies examining acculturation effects over

several generations away from the native culture (Fuligni, 2001). Generation was shown to moderate attitudes and behaviors in family health practices and beliefs as Hispanic families moved further along the acculturation continuum, adopting traditions and practices of the host culture relating to trust of health care providers and primacy of health needs. In their study of attitudes toward immigration, Rouse, Wilkinson, and Garand (2010) found that Hispanics who were strongly attached to and incorporated into American culture were significantly less supportive of immigration than those who identified more with their native culture. Their findings also provided strong evidence that support for immigration was clearly moderated along generational lines, with first-generation Hispanics being strongly supportive of overall immigration and second- and third-generation Hispanics showing significantly more negative attitudes about relaxed immigration.

While *generation* has been widely used as a measure of an individual's level of acculturation at some point along a continuum, its use as a moderating variable in the present study of relationship between two other acculturation variables and *TV commercial language preference* showed no measure of effect. Since over half of respondents (N=169) were second-generation Hispanics and 82% (N=257) were second-generation or higher, the absence of moderating effect on independent variable relationship with *TV commercial language preference* may be attributable to a higher level of acculturation as measured by length of time spent in the host country by both respondents and previous generations. Additionally, as in the Orozco and Thompson (1993) analysis, the variable of generation in the host culture may simply have no or little correlation with the two acculturation dimensions selected for use in the present study. Future research with different acculturation variables would need to be conducted to test that

possibility. The fact that *generation* did show a moderating effect on *Aad- Spanish* in the current study, which is discussed below, does encourage that direction.

5.3.3 The Moderating Effect of Bilingualism on the Relationship between Acculturation and TV Commercial Language Preference

MANCOVA showed no moderating effect of *bilingualism* on relationship between either *language use and preference* or *ethnic identity* as independent variables and the dependent variable of *TV commercial language preference*.

Measurement of *bilingualism* as a moderating variable in the current study was accomplished with an informal assessment derived from *language use and preference* data provided in the survey to create a composite score computed by averaging five language scale items indicating respondents' preference for language at home, at work/school, for reading, writing, and for watching television. Approximately 75% of respondents indicated that they used English or both English and Spanish in these daily communicative activities, indicating a high degree of *bilingualism* in the Hispanic sample.

Bilingualism has been defined by social scientists in many different ways in an attempt to better understand dual-language phonology, creation, adoption, code-switching and other psycholinguistic processes, cultural and social motivations, and language effects on attitudes and behaviors. Derived from Barea et al.'s (2010) definition of bilingual competencies, the current study defined *bilingualism* as the comfortable use of both Spanish and English in the communicative activities of one's normal daily life. While recognizing and respecting the multivariate dimensions of *bilingualism* at both cognitive and affective levels, the present study elected to emulate the previous research of Roslow and Nicholls (1996), Noriega and Blair (2008), and Carroll and Luna (2011) who each studied bilingual response to advertising stimuli

among Hispanic samples self-identified as comfortably bilingual or which scored adequately on a language proficiency scale.

Roslow and Nicholls (1996) presented one of the most commercially relevant quantitative studies of bilingual processing of television commercials broadcast in Spanish and English, focusing on purchase intent as the key variable and establishing an “effectiveness differential” to index the persuasiveness of commercial messages in Spanish and English. Their study found that ads in Spanish showed greater increases in persuasion means for Spanish-dominant Hispanics and that, even among bilinguals, Spanish ads were notably more persuasive than English ads for the same brands. This was followed by cross-cultural communication research by Luna and Peracchio (2001) that suggested that language choice can be related to advertising effectiveness through ease of processing, finding it preferable to advertise to bilinguals in their first or native language because second-language words and concepts are more difficult to process. Noriega and Blair (2008) studied the effect of advertisements on bilinguals’ associations with family, friends, home or homeland (FFHH) and found that since the native language corresponded more closely to bilinguals’ lives among family and members of their ethnic community, using the native language in advertisements was more likely to cue more FFHH-related thoughts and thus moderate ad effectiveness. Carroll and Luna (2011) expanded on Noriega and Blair (2008) by theorizing that the bilingual’s native culture may value certain concepts, e.g., family, relationships and religion more highly than other cultures, and the language in which the meaning of the concept is first learned becomes the prototypical representation of the concept. They suggested that native-language advertisements were more likely to elicit thoughts among bilinguals about FFHH associations because of the increased accessibility of such concepts in the native language.

The absence of moderating effect by *bilingualism* in the present study may be a result of the lack of respondents' actual exposure to an ad or ads which was an integral part of the studies cited above. While *language use and preference* was shown to have an effect on *TV commercial language preference*, and *ethnic pride* did not show effect, it may be possible that a more meaningful test of effect by moderating variables would be to measure responses through a content analysis of different ads rather than to rely on survey data concerning *TV commercial language preference* which may simply have presented less engaging interaction. Another reason may be that the study's *bilingualism* index of five *language use and preference* items did not represent enough dimensions of the variable to register a significant effect on *TV commercial language preference*.

5.4 Demographic Effects on the Relationship between Acculturation and Attitude toward the TV Commercials

MANCOVA reported moderating effect of both *generation in the host culture* and *bilingualism* on the relationship between the independent variable of *language use and preference* and the dependent variable of *Aad-Spanish*. Also, the relationship between *ethnic pride* and *Aad-Spanish* was moderated by *generation*. *Bilingualism* showed no effect on relationship between *ethnic identity* and either dependent variable. As discussed previously, *gender* showed no moderating effect on any variable relationship.

5.4.1 The Moderating Effect of Generation on the Relationship between Acculturation and Attitude toward the TV Commercials

MANCOVA demonstrated *generation in the host culture* to have a moderating effect on the relationship between the independent variable of *language use and preference* and *Aad-Spanish* and on the relationship between the independent variable of *ethnic pride* and *Aad-*

Spanish. As the only moderating variable with effect on relationships between both independent variables and a dependent variable, *generation in the host culture* demonstrated the most consistent prediction of acculturation variable relationship in the study. Since the variable had no moderating effect on *TV commercial language preference* but did moderate relationship with *attitude toward the ad*, it appears that generation in the host culture may represent more of an affective measure of acculturation than a behavioral measure. This would seem to partially mirror Orozco and Thompson (1993) who showed in their study of acculturation effects on the effectiveness of mental health services and treatments that *generation in the host culture*, as a dimension of *ethnic identity*, was least correlated with behavioral scale factors of oral language usage and ethnic interaction with Mexico and more correlated with affective scale factors. They suggested that *generation* as part of a composite measure of acculturation did influence effectiveness but they did not postulate on why generation as a single variable may correlate differently with behavioral and affective factors. Moderation of relationship between *ethnic pride*, as an affective measure, and *Aad-Spanish* would also seem to characterize *generation* as more of an affective interaction.

5.4.2 The Moderating Effect of Bilingualism on the Relationship between Acculturation and Attitude toward the TV Commercials

In the present study, MANCOVA tests indicated *bilingualism* to have moderating effect on the relationship between *language use and preference* and *Aad-Spanish* but no moderating effect on the relationship between the independent variable of *ethnic identity* and any of the dependent variables. While results confirm *language use and preference* as a powerful measure of acculturation and a predictor of both *TV commercial language preference* and *Aad-Spanish*, *bilingualism* only moderated the relationship of the independent variable with *Aad-Spanish*.

In a study of language effects on attitudes and behaviors, it should not be unexpected that a language factor of *bilingualism* has shown moderation of the relationship between *language use and preference* in daily communicative activities and *attitude toward the ad* (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; Noriega & Blair, 2008). However, as approximately 75% of survey respondents indicated that they used English or both English and Spanish in the composite index of language use, indicating a high degree of *bilingualism* in the Hispanic sample, mean difference analysis showed that the English-dominant group preferred Spanish TV commercials more than the Spanish-dominant group. Thus, it is interesting to find results that show that level of *bilingualism* affects the relationship between *language use and preference* and *Aad-Spanish* but not *Aad-English*.

In summary, results of the study indicate that *language use and preference* is a strong predictor of *TV commercial language preference* and does have effect on *Aad-Spanish*. *Ethnic identity* is not a predictor of *TV commercial language preference* but does effect *Aad-Spanish* through the dimension of *ethnic characterization* of very to mostly Mexican, bicultural, or mostly to very Anglicized. *Generation in the host culture* has moderating effect on relationship between *language use and preference* and *Aad-Spanish* and between *ethnic pride* and *Aad-Spanish*. *Bilingualism* showed only moderating effect on relationship between *language use and preference* and *Aad-Spanish*. *Gender* showed no moderating effect on any variable relationship.

Based on these findings, *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity*, as valid measures of acculturation, do predict behavior and attitude in a new study of advertising research focused on *TV commercial language preference* and *attitude toward the ad* among Hispanics of Mexican descent. *Language use and preference* presents the most consistent evidence of effect on both dependent variables which seems to confirm its validity as the most commonly used and

predictive variable in acculturation research. *Ethnic identity* has proved to be less predictive and presents effect only on the dependent variable dimension of *Aad-Spanish* through the identity dimensions of *ethnic characterization* and *ethnic pride*. Among moderating variables, effect by *generation in the host culture* showed the most consistency with evidence in the relationship between both independent variables and *Aad-Spanish*. Bilingualism showed moderation only in the relationship between *language use and preference* and *Aad-Spanish*, and *gender* showed no effect.

Chapter 6: Conclusions

6.1 Summary of Key Findings

This study focused on the historically dominant mass-reach medium of television and explored concepts of acculturation theory to examine the effects of *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity* on *TV commercial language preference* and *attitudes* among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent. Moderating variables of *gender*, *generation in the host culture*, and *bilingualism* were also tested to determine any effect on the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. Empirical data for this exploratory analysis was collected from a cross-sectional, non-probability sampling of 312 university students in a mid-size metropolitan community located in the Southwestern U.S. along the Texas – Mexico border. Respondents self-identified as “Hispanics of Mexican descent” and agreed to voluntarily participate after receipt and review of informed consent.

MANOVA and MANCOVA showed that *language use and preference* of respondents did affect their *preference for English or Spanish language TV commercials*. Results also showed that both *language use and preference* and *ethnic characterization* affected respondents’ *attitude toward the ad in Spanish*, as did the interaction of *language use and preference* and *ethnic characterization*. Moderating variables of *generation in the host culture* and *bilingualism* both showed effect on the relationship between *language use and preference* and *Aad-Spanish*.

In examining relationships between variables, results showed that an individual’s preference for and use of language in daily communication activities at home and at work/school, along with language for reading, writing, and for watching television, did predict his/her preference for English or Spanish TV commercials. However, while previous research suggests that Spanish-dominant Hispanics prefer to consume media in Spanish, mean difference

analysis in this study unexpectedly found that the English-dominant group tended to prefer Spanish TV commercials more than the Spanish-dominant group. Results also showed that none of the three dimensions of *ethnic identity* explored in the study had any effect on *TV commercial language preference*, suggesting that the dependent variable is more likely to be predicted by behavioral dimensions of acculturation such as *language use* than by affective dimensions like *ethnic identity*.

Results also indicated that *language use and preference* affected an individual's *attitude toward the ad in Spanish*, as did *ethnic characterization* as mostly to very Mexican, bicultural, or mostly to very Anglicized. Mean difference comparison indicated that the mostly to very Anglicized group did not prefer Spanish TV commercials when compared to the mostly to very Mexican group, and the bicultural group was in the middle. *Ethnic pride* also predicted *Aad-Spanish*, along with the interaction of *language use and preference* and *ethnic characterization*. These findings suggest that both behavioral and affective dimensions of acculturation are likely to predict *attitude toward the ad in Spanish* as the heritage language. Also, *Ethnic characterization* and *ethnic pride*, as affective dimensions, would seem to be expectedly correlated with an affective dimension of *Aad-Spanish*. However, *language use and preference*, as a behavioral measure, would be an unexpected predictor of *Aad-Spanish* as the present study showed that the English-dominant group preferred Spanish-language TV commercials more than the Spanish-dominant group while the mostly to very Anglicized group did not prefer Spanish TV commercials when compared to the mostly to very Mexican group. Additional factor analysis in future research could possibly suggest additional interpretation of such unexpected relationship.

In examining effects of moderating variables on relationships between independent and dependent variables, results indicated that *generation in the host culture* and *bilingualism* both showed moderating effect on the relationship between *language use and preference* and *Aad-Spanish*, and *generation* showed effect on relationship between *ethnic pride* and *Aad-Spanish*. These results would suggest that demographics as moderating variables each have distinct effect on multiple dimensions of acculturation variable relationships and should each be studied and acknowledged as a unique measure of effect in a multivariate research protocol.

6.2 Theoretical Implications

This study honors the general definition of acculturation as “the process through which immigrants begin to understand and then adopt at least some of the norms, values, and behaviors of the host culture” (O’Guinn & Faber, 1985, p.113). Drawing its measure of acculturation variables from a revised composite of three complimentary scales, ARSMA (Cuellar et al., 1980), LAECA (Burnam et al., 1987) and ARSMA-II (Cuellar et al., 1995), the study provides support for previous research on acculturation as a multidimensional concept encompassing behavioral, affective and cognitive dimensions. The tested reliability of these measures and their stability and integrity through decades of review and analysis provides the current study with a credible foundation for an exploration of effects on a new dimension of the acculturation process, i.e., the relationship between acculturation and *TV commercial language preference and attitude* among Hispanics of Mexican descent.

The study follows the legacy of earlier research on acculturation variables and scales as measures of media language preference, advertising effectiveness, message recall, and other dimensions of multicultural marketing, and extensive study of demographics as moderators of

those measures. While previous research was not specific to acculturation effects on *TV commercial language preference*, it does provide the current study with a wealth of similar and complementary data and concepts with which to answer research questions.

Marin (1992) noted that most acculturation scales have relied heavily on changes in preferences for language usage which may not represent perfectly the multidimensional characteristics of acculturation, but changes in language-preference patterns signal more profound acculturation than do changes in other behavioral domains. Further, communication in the host language is positively related to adoption of the new culture, indicating that language usage and preference may underlie the other domains of acculturation (O'Guinn and Faber 1985). Berry (1980) noted that it is not uncommon for a person from a minority ethnic group to conform to the host culture by speaking the language of the majority group while still maintaining a strong identity with the minority group and suggested that attitude-based measures of acculturation may have differential relationships with consumption behavior than language-based measures. Thus, the present study similarly used two variables of *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity* to represent the acculturation process in an analysis of effect on *TV commercial language preference and attitude*.

As additional theoretical background, Jun, Gentry, Ball, and Gonzalez-Molina (1994) investigated the acculturation processes of Hispanic-Americans and found that the rate of acculturation appeared to be very sensitive to how the acculturation construct was measured. If the common approach of using a language usage measure was taken, there was evidence for assimilation, as language usage appears to improve in a linear fashion over time. On the other hand, a very different cyclical pattern of results was found when cultural identity was used to measure acculturation. The acculturation process starts from the heritage culture but does not

proceed linearly for the host culture, as it may progress rapidly on occasion or it may move backward at any time during the process. Oberg (1960) and Penaloza (1989) presented a more cyclical process, in which the immigrant is initially fascinated by the host culture (the honeymoon stage) and then experiences a rejection stage as he/she finds that the new culture may not be accepting or that he/she does not like several aspects of the new culture. Eventually there is a tolerance stage, followed by an integration stage. The honeymoon stage and the rejection stage may occur more than once until the person (or, if the process takes generations, the person's family) is ultimately melded into the host culture. This view may help to understand why *language use and preference* in the current study showed effect on *TV commercial language preference* but *ethnic identity* did not. The university student sample may have been at different stages or cycles of the acculturation process which have been shown to be present when ethnic identity, as an affective dimension, is used as a measure of acculturation. This might also suggest why demographics behaved differently in moderating relationship with another affective concept, *attitude toward the ad*.

The results support the usefulness of *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity* as measures of acculturation and predictors of media behavior, such as *TV commercial language preference*, and affective dimensions of *attitude toward the ad*. As an integral construct in acculturation theory and the most commonly used variable in multidimensional measures (Burnam et al., 1987; Cuellar et al., 1980; Cuellar et al., 1995; Mainous, 1989; Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997), *language use and preference* has now been shown to have an effect on *TV commercial language preference* and complements previous research on other dimensions of multicultural advertising. *Ethnic identity* has now been shown to affect *attitude toward the ad* and adds a complementary dimension to findings of previous research which showed that

attitude toward the ad was strongly associated with advertising brand preference, recall and purchase intent (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Zinkhan, Locander, and Leigh, 1986). The results also confirm the validity of *generation in the host culture* and *bilingualism* as unique measures of acculturation and moderators of relationship between independent variables of *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity* on a dependent variable of *attitude toward the ad in Spanish*.

6.3 Managerial Implications

For advertisers and media and marketing professionals, the managerial implications of this study are intended to encourage a better understanding of important factors in the successful creation and implementation of more effective television advertising campaigns directed at Hispanics of Mexican descent. As media technologies and consumer choices change at a rapid pace, multicultural marketers must have insights into the array of multidimensional factors affecting consumer and media behaviors.

While providing managers with a vast background of theoretical scholarship and powerful statistical analysis to suggest relationships between variables that may guide strategies and decisions relevant to effective ethnic advertising, this study of Hispanic consumers of Mexican descent has shown that *language use and preference* continues to be a fundamental factor in predicting *TV commercial language preference* and that both *language use and preference* and *ethnic identity* are factors in affecting *attitude toward the ad*, particularly *attitude toward ads in Spanish*. However, the unexpected finding that the English-dominant respondent group preferred Spanish TV commercials more than the Spanish-dominant group should caution managers to the complexities of consumer research and the array of multidimensional interactions of acculturation variables that can moderate consumer behaviors. Effective

communication of advertising messages to Hispanics of Mexican descent would likely be enhanced by an understanding of these factors as means to affect positive attitudes and responses to advertisers and advertised brands. And while not specifically included in the study, use of advertising models and characters, imagery, music, symbols and other creative advertising elements that produce both cognitive and affective response should also be considered along with language and ethnic identity as important, complementary factors in effective multicultural marketing communication.

Perhaps the most powerful implication of this study is the motivation for marketing managers to understand and embrace the fact that there are more compelling and useful factors in marketing research than those often presented in commercial surveys and other research that simply provide top-line, anecdotal data which does not provide a deeper, more insightful look at the subject of interest. Examining and appreciating the body of scholarly research that has previously provided a foundation for studies of ever-changing ethnic consumer behaviors and attitudes will provide marketers with a better grasp of and appreciation for the complexities of multivariate research. Such research has and will continue to provide data, direction and insight into the processes of acculturation and cultural influences that motivate ethnic consumer behavior.

6.4 Limitations of the Study and Future Research Directions

This study surveyed a university student population, using a convenience, non-probability sampling method. Student populations are likely to have different characteristics than a non-student population, including demographics, language use in different settings, media use and preference, and generational proximity defined by similar age. As such, age as a moderating variable was not included in the study. University students in general are from a higher socio-

economic strata and U.S. university classes generally use English as the dominant instructional language. As such, future research should expand beyond the student population to produce a broader range of characteristics that are more representative of the U.S. Hispanic television audience and provide a more robust and diverse sampling of age and other demographics, generation in the host culture, geographical location, and heritage countries of Hispanic origin.

The location for the study provided a large and convenient population from which to sample Hispanics of Mexican descent, representing the largest percentage of the current U.S. Hispanic population. However, a future study to include a valid representation of all U.S. Hispanic sub-groups and using a random sampling method would present a more viable and generalizable research opportunity. Taken further, future research should explore similar acculturation effects on Asian American, African American, Native American and other U.S. ethnic groups to compare and contrast findings with those of the Hispanic population, thus offering marketers additional insights with which to develop new strategies for minority advertising.

Previous acculturation research has used a wide variety of measures and scale items with which to explore the complex multidimensional nature of the topic. The present study used only two, albeit important, dimensions to measure acculturation effects on dependent variables. Future research using additional measures of generation, ethnic interaction, country of origin, language competency and cultural behaviors, along with additional demographic variables of education, socioeconomic status, and age would add more dimension to the analysis and provide a wider array of variables with which to explore possible interactions. Such expansion would likely provide some evidence of main or interaction effect by gender, as seen in most acculturation and consumer research but absent in the present study.

Additionally, the study used three variables to measure participants' *ethnic identity* as a key variable of acculturation. Ethnic identity items were recoded from survey data to collapse some categories in order to create three new variables: *ethnic identity*, *ethnic characterization*, and *ethnic pride*. Separate MANCOVA tests were conducted to test relationship of each with other variables which resulted in a mixed variety of interactions and interpretations. In future research, cluster analysis of survey data would be encouraged to produce a composite of *ethnic identity* to test for relationship as a single measure rather than three measures of a key independent variable.

Finally, the study focused on the traditional and still powerful advertising medium of television in order to test acculturation effects. The study asked for a general assessment of TV commercials without exploring possible impacts of product type, creative strategies and appeals, use of models and characters, and the length of the ads. These variables could play important roles in determining participants' attitudes toward the ad and their language preference. Furthermore, while the medium of television is widely expected to maintain mass audience appeal and advertiser value for the foreseeable future, new media technologies are beginning to provide advertisers with new promotional and branding opportunities, particularly among younger consumers who are rapidly adopting the technologies into their daily lives. Online and mobile platforms, along with instant voice and text communication and social networks that thrive on their use, represent the advertising battleground of the future. And just as marketers have been competing for consumers of traditional print, electronic, and outdoor media for many years and conducting research on language use and ethnic identity to gain advantage, the battle for the bicultural in the digital world will need to find new strategies. As ethnic consumers adopt

new technologies and are exposed to advertising messages in new and creative ways, will acculturation affect language preference and attitudes? A new world of research awaits.

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Appendix A

Dear Department of Communication/Business Faculty Member:

My name is John Burton and I am a graduate student currently working on my Master's Thesis in the Department of Communication with expected graduation in May, 2012. During the next several weeks, I will be conducting a survey for the purpose of gathering data for my thesis which will examine acculturation effects on preference for and attitudes about English and Spanish-language television commercials among Hispanic audiences of Mexican descent. The survey will take less than five minutes to complete, will allow for anonymous response, and the results will be held in strict confidence and only be used for the purpose and submission of my thesis. Informed consent will be provided and agreement required before any participation. I am also providing an incentive of a \$50 Best Buy gift card which will be awarded to a participating student in a random drawing from all completed surveys received. I have attached a copy of the survey questionnaire for your review in advance.

I respectfully request your assistance in allowing me to distribute the survey to all students in your classes and to encourage them to participate and to assist with a snowballing distribution to other students they know on campus. All questionnaires would be returned to your class within one week (or a shorter time span of your choosing) and I would pick them up from you at your convenience. Any in-class encouragement and incentive of extra credit to participate in the survey and improve response rates would be most appreciated.

I am taking this opportunity to assess in advance your willingness to assist me in distributing the survey when it is available after IRB approval. Please conveniently reply to this e-mail and let me know if you are willing to assist my research by distributing the survey to your classes. I respect your time as valuable and do not want to intrude if you are unable or unwilling to participate.

Thank you for your consideration and prompt reply.

Appendix B

Disclosure of Informed Consent:

You are being asked to take part voluntarily in the research described below. Please take your time making a decision and feel free to discuss it with your friends and family. Before agreeing to take part in this study, it is important that you read the following:

Intention of the study: You are being asked to take part in a survey to gather data for a thesis study that examines the relationships between language preference and acculturation. Approximately 300 individuals will be participating in this study at the university.

Survey questions: If you decide to take part in this study, you will be asked to respond to a list of 27 questions about your demographics, cultural background, and language use. Please respond to all answers on the questionnaire. The questionnaire will take less than five minutes to complete.

Risks/Discomforts: There are no known risks associated with this research. The study does not cause personal discomfort, stress, or risks to any participant.

Benefits: You will receive no direct benefit from your participation in this research. However, your participation will help the researcher to better understand the relationships between language preference and acculturation. A copy of the final thesis will be provided to you upon request.

Compensation: You will not be paid or receive any guaranteed compensation for your participation. However, if you choose to participate and provide contact information at the end of this disclosure, you will have a chance to win a **\$50 Best Buy gift card**. One winner will be selected at random from all completed surveys that have provided contact information of name and e-mail address or phone number. Information will only be used for the purpose of notifying a winner and will not be provided to any other person or entity.

Other options: You have the option not to take part in this study. There will be no penalties of any kind involved if you choose not to take part in this study. You may stop your participation in the survey at any time.

Confidentiality: Everything you answer in the questionnaire and all information provided will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. The results of your participation will be kept anonymous and there will be no association between your responses and your identity by the researcher.

Questions: If you have any questions regarding this study, you may contact John Burton, a graduate student in the Department of Communication at The University of Texas at El Paso, by phone at (915) 241-0004 or by email at jburton@elp.rr.com. If you have questions or concerns about your participation as a research subject, please contact the UTEP Institutional Review Board (IRB) at 915-747-8841 or by e-mail at irb.orsp@utep.edu.

Agreement: I am an adult of age 18 years or older. I have read this disclosure about the study and am aware that participation in this survey is voluntary and that I may stop my participation at any time and without any penalty. By completing the questionnaire, I am verifying my acknowledgement of informed consent and agreement to participate in the survey. I understand that I may request information from the researcher on results of the study later if I wish.

Print your name: _____

Your signature: _____

Date: _____

Would you like to enter the random drawing to win a \$50 gift card? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If so, please enter your contact information, so you can be contacted if you win.

Email: _____

or

Phone #: _____

Please begin the survey by first answering the screening question:

Are you of Mexican descent? (*Mexican descent is defined here as blood descendancy from one or both parents or any preceding direct generation born in Mexico and of Hispanic heritage or ancestry*).

If your answer is “No,” please **STOP** and return your survey to your instructor. This survey is designed only for individuals self-described as being of Mexican descent. Thank you.

Yes_____ No_____ (If No, please **STOP**)

Select <u>one</u> response to each of the following questions:	Both	English	Spanish
What language do you <u>speak</u> most often at home?			
What language do you <u>prefer</u> to speak at home?			
What language do you <u>speak</u> most often at work/school?			
What language do you <u>prefer</u> to speak at work/school?			
What language do you <u>think</u> in most often?			
What language do you <u>pray</u> in most often?			
What language do you <u>read</u> better?			
What language do you <u>write</u> better?			
What language is your preference for <u>television</u> ?			
What language is your preference for <u>music</u> ?			
What language is your preference for <u>movies</u> ?			
What language is your preference for <u>TV commercials</u> ?			

Select <u>one</u> response to each of the following questions:	Hispanic or Latina/o	White or Anglo	Black	Asian	Other
Which primary ethnic identification do you use for <u>yourself</u> ?					
Which primary ethnic identification does/did your <u>mother</u> use?					
Which primary ethnic identification does/did your <u>father</u> use?					
Which primary ethnic identification does the majority of your <u>friends/associates</u> use?					

Please continue on next page.

How would you characterize yourself: (Select only one)

Very Mexican_____

Mostly Mexican_____

Bicultural_____

Mostly Anglicized_____

Very Anglicized_____

Please indicate your personal level of pride in the ethnic identification you use for yourself:

Not Proud at All____

Somewhat Not Proud____

Somewhat proud____

Proud____

Very Proud____

Thinking <u>only</u> about the language used in a TV commercial, (Select <u>one</u> response to each of the following questions)	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
In general, I really like TV commercials in <u>English</u> .					
In general, I find TV commercials in <u>English</u> to be good.					
In general, I truly enjoy TV commercials in <u>English</u> .					
In general, I really like TV commercials in <u>Spanish</u> .					
In general, I find TV commercials in <u>Spanish</u> to be good.					
In general, I truly enjoy TV commercials in <u>Spanish</u> .					

Your Age:_____

Your Gender: Male_____ Female_____

What is the nearest generation to you of your family born in Mexico? (Select only one)

Self (you were born in Mexico)_____

One or both parents_____

One or both grandparents_____

One or both great-grandparents_____

Other_____

(Please specify)

Thank you for your participation in this survey.
Please return it to your instructor.

Curriculum Vita

John Burton was born in El Paso, Texas, the third of six children nurtured by parents Bill Burton and Jenny Bob Crimen Burton. He is a 1968 graduate of Jesuit High School in El Paso and received his B.A. degree in Mass Communications from the University of Texas at El Paso in 1972. Over a long and circuitous career path, Mr. Burton enjoyed success in a variety of professions including film production in Dallas, Texas; academic administration as Dean of Students at Spring Hill College in Mobile, Alabama; and president of Zimlich The Florist in Mobile before beginning a 20-year career in sales management positions with Comcast Cable and CBS, ABC, Univision, and Grupo Televisa broadcast television stations. In late 2009, he decided to embrace a process of reinvention and return to his alma mater to pursue a Master's degree in communication. With roots in academia and sales training environments, he hopes to teach and remain involved in marketing and advertising.