



**English-language advertising effectiveness with illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in the Western and Eastern Cape townships of South Africa**

by

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## DECLARATION

I, **David Mzamo Masito**, declare that this research study, *English-language advertising effectiveness with illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in the Western and Eastern Cape townships of South Africa*, is my original work (except where acknowledgements indicate otherwise) and that neither the whole work nor any part of it has been, is being, or is to be submitted for another degree in this or any other university. I authorise the university to reproduce for the purpose of research either the whole or any portion of the contents in any manner whatsoever.

I obtained help and constructive guidelines from the scholarly marketing community to integrate and synthesise ideas resulting in this thesis.

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**Plagiarism Score (TurnItIn):** 23% (green)

# ABSTRACT

“If you do not deliberately, intentionally, proactively include,  
you will unintentionally exclude” (*Joe Gerstandt*)

Consumers globally demand more diversity, equity, and inclusion in the workplace, including in the media content they consume. Language is one of the most important diversity, equity and inclusion factors, cutting across race, gender, sexual orientation and disability. In the South African context, research has ignored the role of language in behavioural intention. Language has been a point of tension and conflict in South Africa for the country’s entire colonial history. The apartheid system was particularly involved in shaping where people live (spatial planning), and the modern language ecosystem in South Africa because it was a system of separate development on the grounds of race. In South Africa, language, race and location highly correlate and intersect. Post 1994, everyone has had the right to use the language and participate in the cultural life of their choice and no one who exercises these rights may do so in a manner inconsistent with any provision of the Bill of Rights. These rights extend to capitalism, the buying and selling of goods, and the creation and consumption of advertising content.

Within multiple business industries and brands, there is now a major focus on diversity, equity and inclusion, hiring, career progression, retention and producing, and telling diverse and inclusive creative stories. For the content of stories (advertisements) to be diverse and inclusive, the creators (client and agencies) need to become more deliberate, intentional and proactive about unstereotyping users or consumers. They are expected to do this by making sure the content reflects the general population, increasing screen time for all: who they cast, gender representation, director diversity, vernacular, voice, skin tones, race, sexual orientations, people with disabilities, location shoot diversity, and age groups, to mention a few.

The primary purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of English-language advertising to non-English speakers in Western and Eastern Cape townships. The study focuses on television advertising, a form of marketing communication. The television medium in South Africa and the rest of Africa still has the greatest reach and media budget compared to marketing via digital platforms, radio, print, out-of-home, and emailing media. The study identified a number of theoretical frameworks and combined them to develop an integrated theoretical framework. The framework helped the researcher understand the complex nature of television advertising. The study proposed that the language used in an advertisement serves as an

attribute and medium of experiences to influence customers' affective responses or intentions to act. A pragmatic philosophical stance was adopted, allowing the collection, analysis and interpretation of qualitative and quantitative data in a single study in three parts. The first sub-study collected and analysed quantitative data, the second involved four focus-group interviews, and the last study involved semi-structured interviews with experts.

The development of an integrated theoretical framework is a major contribution of the study. As the first application of the Theory of Planned Behaviour to understand the effects of English-language television advertising on customers living in Western and Eastern Cape townships, the study contributes value to the marketing discipline. It also contributes significantly by combining quantitative advertising testing with traditional qualitative communication-testing methods. Practical implications of the study include a review of the use of the English language as a medium of communication to non-English-speaking consumers or those who speak English as a second or third language.

**Keywords:** Advertising, English-language, Television, Non-English speakers

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*“Learn a new language and get a new soul.”*

*(Old Czech saying cited in Baker & Wright, 2017, p. 114)*

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## **Dedication**

I dedicate this study to my children, mother and siblings, who inspired and supported me during the period of my study. To my late older brother Khuthele, and our late child, I say to both of you, Lala Ngoxolo. If you were both here today, you would have been proud of this achievement and celebrated with me.

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## List of Acronyms/Abbreviations

AB	: Purchase Behaviour
AIDA	: Attention, Interest, Desire and Action
ALS	: African Language Stations
AMA	: American Marketing Association
ANC	: African National Congress
ARM	: Advertising Response Model
ATs	: Attitudes
ATM	: Automated Teller Machines
BBC	: British Broadcasting Corporation
CEO	: Chief Executive Officer
CMO	: Chief Marketing Officer
Covid-19	: Corona Virus Disease – 2019
DSTV	: Digital Satellite Television
EC	: Eastern Cape
EE	: Employment Equity
EEG	: Electroencephalography
eTV	: Electronic Television
KFC	: Kentucky Fried Chicken
L2	: Second language
L3	: Third language
LGBTQIA	: Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, intersex, asexual
MTN	: Mobile Telephony Network
NIRS	: Simultaneous Near-Infrared Spectroscopy
OKRs	: Objectives and Key Results
PB	: Perceived Behaviour Control
RDP	: Reconstruction and Development Programme
SA	: South Africa
SABC	: South African Broadcasting Corporation
SNs	: Social Norms
SPSS	: Statistical Package for Social Scientists
StatsSA	: Statistics South Africa
TDA	: Thematic Data Analysis
TPB	: Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	: Theory of Reasoned Action
TV	: Television
UCT	: University of Cape Town
USA	: United States of America
WC	: Western Cape

## Definitions of Terms

The following key terms inform this study:

**Black South Africans:** as defined by the South African Constitution, the Labour Relations Act and the Employment Equity Act, exclude Coloured, Indian and Chinese people (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).

**Brand recall:** ability of the audience, viewer or consumer to remember the brand in the advertisement they watched (Kotler & Keller, 2013).

**DSTV Multichoice:** paid television broadcaster throughout Africa. In South Africa, it is the Number One paid television provider and owns more than 99% market share (MultiChoice Africa, 2018).

**Frequency:** number of times advertisements will be flighted and seen by the consumer. The media agencies and advertisers use 3+ frequency, meaning the advertisement would, more than likely, be seen three times. The belief is that the higher the frequency, the higher the brand recall.

**Free-to-air television (SABC, eTV):** South African free-to-air television broadcasters are eTV and the SABC (South African Broadcasting Corporation). The SABC is government owned and eTV is privately owned.

**Intention to purchase:** refers to a consumer's positive keenness to buy a particular product or service in the near future, after watching a television advertisement. Purchase intention depends on multiple internal and external factors, making it a dependent variable (Helsen & Kotabe, 2015).

**Main-message recall:** of the people who have watched the advertisement refers to their ability to remember and explain the advertisement's core meaning.

**L1 – first language:** native language or mother tongue (spoken by either parent); language mainly spoken to and by a person from birth or in the early stages of their lives.

**L2 – L3:** second and third language, language spoken or listened to, other than mother tongue or first language.

**Paid television:** Broadcaster that charges the viewers a subscription fee for watching its content, such as DSTV or Multichoice in Africa.

**Reach:** number of audiences or television viewers that the advertisements will be able to affect or who will be able to see the advertisement.

**Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) houses:** The RDP is a South African socio-economic policy framework. The aim of the policy is to allow beneficiaries to acquire houses built and provided by the government through a government subsidy (StatsSA, 2019).

**Western Cape and Eastern Cape townships:** peri-urban shanty towns or RDP housing areas or areas with government four-room houses in South Africa, where a predominantly Black population lives. South Africa's apartheid government created the townships as part of group racial control and separate development. The Western Cape's well-known townships are Gugulethu, Khayelitsha, Langa, Nyanga East, Mfuleni, and Makhasa (StatsSA, 2019). The Eastern Cape's well-known townships are Bhofolo, Ezibeleni, Kwazakhele, Mndantsane, Motherwell, New Brighton, Rhini and Zwelitsha (StatsSA, 2019).

# Part 1

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

*“You cannot buy engagement. You have to build engagement”*

(Tara-Nicholle Nelson, 2014).

#### 1.1 Introduction

This study evaluates the effectiveness of English television advertising amongst non-English speakers in South African township environments. There are more than 7,000 languages spoken worldwide, of which English is one of the most widely spoken (Boroditsky, 2011), as a major language in global business, education, commerce, medicine and the media. Both the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC, 2014) and Sternberg and Sternberg (2017) estimated that over 2500 languages will no longer exist in a few years due to the globalisation of the English language. In South Africa, the English language is widely used in various spheres because, after many British settlers arrived in the country in the 1820s, the language was taught in schools using the British grammatical system (StatsSA, 2019). The linguistic community argues that language is more than a communication tool and transmitter of information but also impacts the way people think (Boroditsky & Gaby, 2010). The languages spoken (or listened to) shape thought and help people decode their lived experiences and the world around them (Haviland, 1993; Lupyan, 2012; Wolff & Holmes, 2011; Zlatev, 2008).

South Africa has 11 official languages that are used as a first language by various citizens: isiZulu (22.7%), isiXhosa (16%), Afrikaans (13.5%), English (9.6%); Northern Sotho (9.1%), Setswana (8%), Sesotho (7.6%), siSwati (2.5%), Tshivenda (2.4%), isiNdebele (2.1%), and SA Sign Language (0.5%) (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, p. S1.6(1); StatsSA 2019). Most people in South Africa speak more than one language. Still, English maintains a dominant position in advertising (among many other sectors), although less than 10% of the population are English first language speakers.

With only 9.6% of South Africans being English first language speakers (StatsSA 2018) and the majority of advertising being in that language (BRC TAMS, 2017; Nielsen AdDynamix, 2017), a dissonance exists. This dissonance is highlighted by the Kantar Global Monitor (2021), where 88% of consumers agreed that brands and advertisements are not doing a great job of representing them and their community. Consumers would like to see more diverse and inclusive content representation when it comes to ethnic origin, age, gender, race, persons with a disability, sexual orientation (LGBTQIA+), and language, to mention a few (Facebook & Davis, 2021; Think with Google @ Cannes, 2021; Unstereotype Alliance, 2021).

There are many diversity and inclusion areas called out by consumers in promoting more diverse and inclusive offline and online content representation; however, this study's focus area is on language in television advertising in the Western and Eastern Cape townships in South Africa.

The next section briefly explains the contextual setting that underpins the study.

## **1.2 Contextual Setting of the Study**

Language has been a point of tension and conflict in South Africa for the country's entire colonial history. The apartheid system was particularly involved in shaping the modern language ecosystem in South Africa because it was a system with a policy of segregation and separate development on the grounds of race (Moloi, 2014). These legacy laws were exacerbated by racial classification, and as a result, policies that governed the relations between South Africa's White minority and non-White majority were enacted. In the 1970s, the apartheid National Party government of South Africa tried to enforce the main White language known as Afrikaans (a language that evolved from European Dutch) into all Black schools as a medium of instruction (Ellis, 2019). At that time, only a very small percentage of the population spoke Afrikaans as a first language (Ellis, 2019). The imposing of Afrikaans in schools ultimately led to protests by the Black South African youth and the well-documented massacre of youth by the police and army in Soweto and Langa townships on 16 June 1976 (Apartheid Museum, 2014). Riots and protests were early signs that many Black South Africans were unwilling to settle for apartheid laws that infringed on their freedom, especially relating to language and education. The movement towards a democratic South Africa took a further 18 years before all South Africans were allowed to vote for their own national government and, in

the 1990s, a new constitution was created, and apartheid was abolished. In the new Bill of Rights (Chapter 2, Section 30), under Language and Culture, the Bill states:

*Everyone has the right to use the language and participate in the cultural life of their choice and no one exercising these rights may do so in a manner inconsistent with any provision of the Bill of Rights.*

This acknowledgement promotes individual rights, diversity, inclusion and freedom of expression in a mother language to bring about healing, unity and reconciliation (Mandela, 1995). It also reinforces the belief that, by officially and legally recognising previously excluded indigenous languages, the architects of the new constitution hoped that such a gesture would make all identities visible, restore their dignity, increase self-pride (Black pride) and end perceptions that English is superior while indigenous languages are inferior (Herbert, 1992; Madonsela, 2013, p. 1; Mandela, 2010).

*If a person's language is not recognised and respected, it could have a negative bearing on the status of that particular person and greatly affects how they see or view the world around them (Madonsela, 2015, p. 1).*

In support of Madonsela (2015), Wa Thiongo (2018) strongly argues that, “if English is given preference, that constitutes a cultural bomb and its explosive effect is to annihilate a people’s belief in their names, their languages and their heritage”. Long before Madonsela and Wa Thiongo had their say, other scholars and thinkers, like Oyeronke Ovwumi (“The Translation of Cultures: Engendering Yoruba Language, Orature and World-Sense”, a chapter he penned in the book *Women, Gender, Religion: A Reader*) and Frans Fanon (*Black Skin, White Mask*) shared similar beliefs and stated that:

*Language is a social institution and, at the level of the individual, affects social behaviour. A people's language reflects their patterns of social interactions, lines of status, interests and obsessions. Language is an expression of an implied world.*

The views above buttress the need for the country’s authorities to reflect on the challenges confronting indigenous languages. Wa Thiongo (1986) wrote, “use English but do not let English use you”. Speaking English without understanding your mother tongue is akin to enslavement. Wa Thiongo (1986), in the seminal work *Decolonising the Mind*, championed the use of the mother tongue as a form of mental decolonisation. The author argues that the media

is a great tool for consent, as Noam Chomsky clearly demonstrated in *Manufacturing Consent*. Therefore, media channels such as television can be used as tools for decolonisation, and advertising should not be excluded in helping champion mother tongues and supporting the decolonisation of the consumer mind while selling at a profit. After all, advertising and marketing work best when they sell people back their values, dreams, aspirations, traditions and customs – and language, among others.

Over 2000 languages are spoken in more than 55 African countries. Therefore, it is evident that the official languages predominantly used in all communication mediums are ‘foreign’. For example, in South Africa, Black people’s native languages at school are not a medium of instruction but rather a subject. Only English and Afrikaans continue to be the primary and formal teaching languages. The

same situation is seen in places like Nigeria. Nigeria has over 600 languages and three dominant languages (Hausa, Igbo, and Yoruba), but they are only considered languages of national culture and integration. Nigeria’s official languages are English and French. (Africa.net, 2019). Wa Thiongo (2018) stated that languages should co-exist; therefore, no superior language exists. The coexistence of languages should be a positive step for the co-creation of advertising content and communication in all spheres of the economy.

Phaahla (2015, p. 1) argues that African languages are not only linked to people’s identities but are also ‘languages of economic value’, since one cannot separate the buyer from their mother tongue. This economic value is not reflected in South African television advertisements because most of the country’s television advertisements are projected using the English language (BRC TAMS, 2017; Nielsen AdDynamix, 2017). Marketers have not done much work to ameliorate this situation and it has been left for years without any recourse in place (Dowling, 2013; Dowling et al., 2016).

It is estimated that over 7,000 languages are spoken worldwide, which technically means that there are over 7,000 ways to make sense of the world and other homo sapiens (Boroditsky, 2010). Herbert (1992, p. 1) argues that language is at the centre of any society’s culture and social systems. Language is also the glue that binds human interactions.

According to Nielsen AdDynamix (2017; BRC TAMS, 2017), in the period from July 2016 to August 2017, thousands of advertisements were flighted and over 98% of the advertisements aired on South Africa’s pay satellite television network (DSTV) and South Africa’s analogue

free-to-air television networks (SABC and eTV) were in English. It is striking that South African Black African languages do not have a stronger (or even a dominant) presence in television. Mandela (2012) once eloquently argued that,

*When you speak to a person in their second or third language you speak to their head, however when you speak to them in their mother language you speak to their heart.*

The above narrative means that communication occurs if a person speaks to another person using a language understood by the recipient. The two parties will have a common understanding of the subject at hand and both parties can freely express their feelings and emotions (Dowling, 2016, p. 40; Otheguy et al., 2015). *NoViolet Bulawayo* (2013) highlights the problem of not being able to freely express one's feelings and emotions when English is not your first language or mother tongue. NoViolet, through the voice of the soulful central character, Darling Nonkululeko Nkala, eloquently states the problem:

*The problem with English is this: You usually can't open your mouth and it comes out just like that – first you have to think what you want to say. Then you have to carefully arrange those words in your head. Then you have to say the words in your head. Then you have to say the words. Then you have to carefully arrange those words quietly to yourself, to make sure you got them okay. And finally, the last step, which is to say the words out loud and have them sound just right ... But then because you have to do all this, when you get to the final step, something strange has happened to you and you speak the way a drunk walk. And because you are speaking like you are falling, it is as if you are an idiot, when the truth is that it is the language and the whole process that's messed up. And then the problem with those who speak only English is this: They are busy looking at your falling instead of paying attention to what you are saying.*

The traditional linguistic relativity theory also reinforces the point that the way people talk every day has a huge influence on how they decode meaning, see themselves, think about colour, talk about key moments in their lives, remember events, talk about objects, and how people specialise space and time (Boroditsky, 2010). Linguistic determinism and the Sapir-Whorf theory state that the structure of a language, either a mother tongue or a second or third language, greatly influences how people think and behave, how they see the world and decrypt meaning (Sapir, 1968; Whorf, 1956; Zlatev, 2017).

Could this be an issue for South African television English advertisements to non-English speakers in townships whose English is a second or third language? Could language impact advertisement recall, attitudes, social norms, behaviour, brand recall, liking, enjoyment, main-message recall and intention to purchase? Does English advertising with characters who speak English only look like they are falling, and the consumers of that content end up focusing on the falling and less on what they are saying or the message? These questions are the nexus of this study.

The literature reports that most television advertisement consumers in townships like Gugulethu, Khayelitsha, Mdantsane and Magxaki are not conversant with English or non-vernacular languages; thus, a communication barrier to understanding the message communicated by firms becomes a challenge (Dowling, 2016; StatsSA, 2020). Therefore, this thesis attempts to ensure that television advertising adopts an approach that includes marginalised consumers.

To many South Africans, the English language is mostly their second or third, and only a minority speak it as their first language (StatsSA, 2013; StatsSA, 2018). Given the importance of language as a primary means of communication, the impact of English television advertising in South Africa on non-English-first-language speakers or those who are English illiterate is yet to be fully explored. The language of marketing communications through various media channels has a huge effect on persuading, nudging and manipulating people's opinions and even changing behaviour and values (Zlatev, 2017). Western colonial languages such as English, French, and Portuguese are assumed to be natural and official languages for television advertising in South Africa and many parts of the African continent. If advertising and marketing's role is to sell back to people their values (Dowling, 2016), how does the promotion of only English television advertising impact Black South Africans' values, wishes and dreams (assuming many of those for whom English is not their first language also do not dream in English). Thus, the over-use of the English language in advertising creates a communication barrier for non-English speakers.

The problem statement is presented next.

## 1.3 Problem Statement

The use of English in most advertisements creates a communication challenge for illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in Western Cape (WC) and Eastern Cape (EC) townships. Consumers are exposed to complex English-oriented advertisements that might be difficult for them to understand, making it impossible to decipher the advertisement's main message and benefits. Communication barriers posed by a failure to understand English advertisements are consequential to consumers' purchase intentions. Purchase behavioural dimensions are also impeded because consumers do not always understand the messages communicated (Chin & Muhammad, 2012).

When close to 99% of television advertisements in South Africa are in English, marketers and advertisers seem to be slow to address diversity and inclusion through the use of many other official languages. They are not deliberately, intentionally and proactively using the other ten official languages in their communications; thus, they might be unintentionally making consumers feel excluded. Moreover, in the era of Black Lives Matter, diversity, equity and inclusion plus a growing African Black digital presence, television advertising needs to become a tool for social change while working harder to achieve the brief's intended goals or objectives and key results (OKRs). Perhaps, by using only the English language as a medium of television advertising, advertisers are missing a great opportunity to make television advertisements even more effective in achieving brand recall, main-message recall, intentions to purchase and changes in behaviour.

The use of the English language in television advertisements has been there for a long time and there has not been much action to challenge advertisers on why they use the English language for communities or societies that do not understand it. The absence of engagements and debates to find an amicable solution has been integrated into the general public's narrative and accepted as part of people's daily lives. Researchers, consumers and policymakers have either turned a blind eye to the challenge or not paid much heed to the issue, creating the impression that societies accept English advertisements in townships in the WC and EC. The problem is systemic; therefore, there is a need to obtain a better industry perspective.

## 1.4 Research Questions

The discussions in the contextual setting have culminated in the following primary research question:

*How does English-language television advertising affect illiterate or non-English consumer behaviour in the Western and Eastern Cape townships?*

## 1.5 Secondary Research Questions

The primary research question was expanded into a set of three sub-themed secondary research questions. The first secondary research question relates to the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and is divided into each construct of the theory in separate sub-questions. These have been developed into hypotheses in Chapter 3.

**Table 1.1** Secondary Research Questions

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<b>Secondary research question 1: TPB Model</b> <i>How do English advertisements compare to identical Xhosa-dubbed advertisements in terms of their effect on purchase behaviour (AB) for illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships?</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li><i>1. How do attitudes (ATs) towards the brand differ when language is dubbed from English to Xhosa for illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships, and how do these impact the intention to purchase (IA)?</i></li><li><i>2. How do social norms (SNs) related to the brand differ when the language is dubbed from English to Xhosa for illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships, and how do these impact the intention to purchase (IA)?</i></li><li><i>3. How does perceived behaviour control (PB) related to the brand differ when the language is dubbed from English to Xhosa for illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships, and how do these impact intentions to purchase (IAs)?</i></li><li><i>4. How does intention to purchase (IA) the brand differ when the language is dubbed from English to Xhosa for illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships, and how do these impact purchase behaviours (ABs)?</i></li></ol>
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**Secondary research  
question 2: Advertising  
and Effectiveness Stern  
Model**

*To what extent, and why, does the use of English instead of Xhosa impact advertising effectiveness and the communication of advertising messages?*

*RQ<sub>1</sub>: To what extent does the use of English versus Xhosa in an advertisement impact brand awareness?*

*RQ<sub>2</sub>: To what extent is advertisement liking (enjoyment) impacted by using English versus Xhosa in a television advertisement?*

*RQ<sub>3</sub>: To what extent is Persuasion (buying interest) impacted by using English versus Xhosa in a television advertisements.*

*RQ<sub>4</sub>: To what extent is Involvement impacted by using English versus Xhosa in a television advertisements.*

*RQ<sub>5</sub>: To what extent are Sales (STSL and LTE) impacted by using English versus Xhosa in a television advertisement?*

*RQ<sub>6</sub>: How do non-English (L2, L3 or illiterate) speakers decode English television advertising messages?*

*RQ<sub>7</sub>: Why do advertising professionals believe that such a high proportion of television advertising to non-English L1 speakers is done in English?*

*RQ<sub>8</sub>: What interventions can be suggested to use native languages for television advertising for non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships?*

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The above research questions were used to derive the specific hypotheses and research questions aligned to the methodology, as described in Chapters 2 and 3.

## **1.6 Aim of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of English television advertising on non-English consumers who reside in Eastern and Western Cape townships. The researcher hypothesised that English television advertising to South African consumers for whom the language is a second or third language or who are English illiterate has limitations and significantly reduces the effectiveness of the advertising strategy. By examining the effects of the use of English-language television advertising, the study makes invaluable recommendations that might assist television advertisers to change their strategies in order to accommodate consumers who are not affected by English-language advertising. The thesis also identifies the influencing factors for using English-language television advertising.

## **1.7 Contributions of the Study**

### ***1.7.1 Originality/Value***

When research is conducted, it should generate new ideas or present a new discovery that adds to knowledge or theory development. The Theory of Planned Behaviour, Advertising Effectiveness Theory and Stern Model of Communication have not thus far been applied to understanding the effects of English-language television on South African advertising. This is the first attempt to measure the effects of English-language television advertising on non-English-speaking or illiterate consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships.

### ***1.7.2 Theoretical and Methodological Contributions***

This study tested existing theories with the aim of enhancing or altering the theory and generating research questions and propositions for future studies. Its contribution to methodology is the combination of quantitative advertising testing with traditional qualitative communication-testing methods. Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007, p. 1283) and Corley and Gioia (2011, p. 12) reasoned that theory contribution either involves building a new theory or testing an existing theory, both incremental and revelatory, and should have utility (be practically and theoretically useful).

The major contribution of this study is the development of an integrative framework and a modification of TPB theory, since Ajzen (1991, p. 199) encouraged an adjustment to TBP, which is open to the inclusion of additional predictors. The additional predictors to the model were language and key advertising metrics, mainly advertisement recall, brand recall, liking and message recall. They were key to assessing how the language predictor affects intention and behaviour. The study's contribution to applied science or practice will help marketers and advertisers serve consumers well in their mother language at a profit.

### ***1.7.3 Practical Contributions***

The study might help practitioners better understand the use of the mother language in advertising and how to improve key advertising metrics, such as attention and ease of understanding. Other metrics included are liking, enjoyment, brand recall, message recall, persuasion, change in behaviour (buy, use, repeat buy), and awareness (spontaneous and prompted). Another major contribution to knowledge is adding African voices and insights to

advertising, communication effectiveness and efficiency, currently dominated by Western literature and voices.

The study has utility (practically and theoretically) in a number of ways. The study is practically useful for marketers and creatives who apply their trade in a country with 11 official languages, predominantly Black, where the television medium still matters yet is dominated by the English language. Each piece of communication is intended to reach a diverse audience and either refresh memory structures and persuade and nudge the potential user or consumer to buy and use a certain product and service. Currently, there is no scientific evidence on the use of the English language in television advertising in South Africa and the rest of Africa, and its effect on key advertising metrics such as advertisement recall, brand recall, main-message recall, liking and intention to purchase. This study will help marketers and creatives be more deliberate, intentional and proactive when deciding on the language to use in a television advertisement to help achieve brand–brief objectives. This might also indirectly help promote language diversity and inclusivity, which are so badly needed by a nation with a fading rainbow.

## **1.8 Theoretical Frameworks Guiding the Study**

Several theoretical models were investigated to determine their relevance and fitness for the study. Three main frameworks were used to include multiple methods and explore both the consumers and the producers of advertising messages. The frameworks were TPB, the Stern Model of Communication, and the Advertising Effectiveness Model of Kantar Millward Brown, a South African market research company. These are discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

### ***1.8.1 Theory of Planned Behaviour***

This study adopted the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), which is an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen, 1985a, 1991, Ajzen & Madden, 1986). For over 30 years, the TRA has been put to the test and found to be valid, sound and flexible enough to be modified (Ajzen, 1991; Sheppard et al., 1988; Terry et al., 1993). According to the theory, intention is the primary determining factor or predicting variable of perceived behaviour control (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975a). Attitude and subjective norms affect intention as well (Ajzen, 2002). Beliefs, in turn, influence attitude and subjective norms (behavioural, normative and control) (Ajzen, 1991; 2002). According to Sharp (2017, p. 117; Terry et al., 1999; Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1990), intention metrics measure consumer plans and the likelihood of purchasing a

product, and can also be an appropriate measure of the effectiveness of persuasive communication.

### ***1.8.2 Advertising Effectiveness Theory***

Researchers and advertising experts use a number of measures to ascertain the effectiveness of an advertisement. Haley and Baldinger (1991) conceptualised the Advertising Response Model (ARM), which evaluates different measures. For example, the buying intention is the result in the consumer's memory if the advertiser makes efforts to create interest, desire and intention. Among the core measures of advertising effectiveness are brand engagement (enjoyment, involvement, and brand/advertisement recall), brand predisposition (branding), awareness, brand association and impact (persuasion, different). Each of these is discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

### ***1.8.3 Stern Model of Communication***

Because of shortcomings in the TPB, the study infused the Stern Model of Communication to help better understand the creative process and when language comes up in the communication process. The model does not show the behavioural intentions of consumers. The feedback loop from actual consumers is triggered by a buying intention. When the advertisement is flighted in the English language, it is likely that the actual consumers might not understand the messages but rely on word-of-mouth referrals from neighbours or family members. The major drawbacks of the Stern Model of Communication are: (1) interactivity is not clearly implemented throughout the model; (2) the emphasis on message tropes is unbalanced and unnecessary; and (3) the model does not address how the consumer is divided into actual consumers and tested consumers. Therefore, it was imperative to use the TPB as the theoretical anchor for this study.

## **1.9 Scope of the Study**

This study of English-language television advertising in Western and Eastern Cape townships focused on the television medium only and excluded print, out-of-home (billboards), digital (online, analogue and digital radio), and through-the-line advertising mediums. The reason for focusing on television alone was because it is still the medium with the broadest reach and remains the pre-eminent advertising medium in South Africa (StatsSA, 2019). Even though the digital medium is growing fast, albeit off a small base, it still lags behind television due to major South African technology-access challenges, including the high costs of data-enabled smart

devices and expensive data prices (seven times higher than in most developed countries and four times higher than in some developing markets, like India and Indonesia). Western and Eastern Cape townships in South Africa are the main focal point, where Xhosa is the dominant first language, followed by Afrikaans and then English. The study excluded South African Black townships outside the Western and the Eastern Cape, other advertising mediums (as mentioned), as well as languages predominantly spoken outside the Western and Eastern Cape townships, like Pedi, Sotho, Tswana and Zulu.

## **1.10 Research Design**

### ***1.10.1 Paradigms/Design/Methodology***

The study examined the effects of English-language television advertising on non-English-speaking or English-illiterate consumers in the Western and Eastern Cape townships. Various sources of information and literature were consulted to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon investigated, and the researcher explored paradigms about how data should be collected, analysed and used in the study. Pragmatism was best suited because the subject matter required the researcher to “reconcile both objectivism and subjectivism, facts and values, accurate and rigorous knowledge and different contextualised experiences” (Saunders et al., 2016, p. 143). The pragmatic paradigm was also influenced by the researcher’s perspectives formed from being a marketing practitioner with over 20 years of insight into advertising and consumer issues. In addition, the researcher grew up in Western Cape townships (Khayelitsha, Gugulethu, and Valhalla Park), speaks Xhosa fluently, and understands the Afrikaans spoken in townships. In order to enhance the validity and reliability of the study, a pragmatic paradigm was decided upon (Creswell, 2018).

The case study design was ideal to complement pragmatism because researchers can collect both qualitative and quantitative data from multiple sources within a short space of time. In this study, a mixed-method approach was preferred, given the model already existed and had been extensively tested. A combination of traditional advertising quantitative methods and qualitative research was used. Qualitative research focus groups were conducted to assess a deeper understanding of how people decode meaning and advertising, of language preferences across multiple mediums, such as television, print, digital, billboards, and their feelings about the use of English television advertising. In partnership with Kantar Millward Brown, the top five most popular advertisements published by Kantar Millward Brown were dubbed into

Xhosa and tested using the agency's Link test design. Participants were split into a control group using the English advertisement and a test group with Xhosa-dubbed advertisements. The target population was people over 18, residing in Western and Eastern Cape townships, who were English-illiterate or for whom English was L2 or L3.

The research methodology was divided into three main studies, with each study having a different approach to answering the primary and secondary research questions. Each of these approaches is summarised in Chapter 1 and expanded on in Chapter 4.

### **Study 1: Survey**

Check and Schutt (2012, p. 160) defined a survey as the "collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions". In this study, Kantar Millward Brown, a South African market research company, was approached to conduct the survey on behalf of the researcher. The survey collected data from individuals and households in Western and Eastern Cape townships to test the TPB and advertising effectiveness by showing advertisements. Kantar Millward Brown used Link testing with computer-assisted personal interview methodology to identify advertising effectiveness, quality and areas of optimisation. The quantitative procedure of the interview required that the respondent first be screened for the study. This ensured that the individual was a consumer or shopper in the relevant category. A total of 480 respondents were randomly selected.

### **Study 2: Focus Groups**

Creswell (2018) defined a focus group as a market research method whereby six to ten people are brought together in a room to provide feedback regarding a product, concept or service. In this study, focus groups were used to provide feedback on the use of English-language advertising. The researcher wanted to understand the focus groups' perceptions/opinions about advertisers' preference for the English language to communicate messages to non-English speakers in Western Cape townships. Focus-group participants were recruited based on their purchase history, demographics and psychographics, and they did not know each other (Bridson et al., 2013). A total of 14 people were selected for the focus-group interviews, so each focus group had seven participants.

### **Study 3: Expert Interviews**

The third data collection technique used in this study related to expert interviews. Creswell (2018) defined expert interviews as qualitative interview methods aimed at gaining information about or exploring a specific field: in this instance, the use of the English language in television advertising. The researcher interviewed representatives from top advertisers' and agencies' including chief marketing officers (CMOs) and chief executive officers (CEOs). Representatives of other leading South African advertisers and advertising companies were also interviewed. Firms represented included Vodacom, Google, Facebook, MTN, Standard Bank, Nedbank, OUTsurance, Coke, Unilever, Shoprite, Kantar Millward Brown and Ogilvy SA. These individuals were experts or very knowledgeable people who admitted that less than 3% to 5% of the total advertisements they flight are pre-tested and post-tested. The research sites in the Western and Eastern Cape are shown below in Figure 1.1.



Figure 1.1: Maps for the Western Cape and Eastern Cape

Data were collected using formal structured questionnaires and informal qualitative structured discussion guides, preferably in the consumer's real setting or a research space sensitive to the consumer's culture and language. The data were collected between July 2020 and October 2020 concurrently for all three studies (expert interviews, surveys and focus groups). Due to the

global pandemic, Covid-19, there were delays in data collection because many healthcare-related protocols had to be observed.

Thematic data analysis (TDA) was used for qualitative research data. For quantitative data analysis, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. The researcher employed Kantar Millward Brown to help with the surveys. Coding and analysis were done using NVivo 12 and SPSS software.

### ***1.10.2 Research Limitations/Implications***

It is always more important for the researcher to recognise the limitations of a study than for someone else to point them out, resulting in the study being downgraded. Creswell (2012) and Chigada (2021) state that the limitations of a study allow for the possibility of making recommendations for future research. Furthermore, researchers report limitations to demonstrate that they have thought critically about the research problem, comprehended the relevant literature, and evaluated the methods chosen to study the problem.

*Budget Constraints:* The entire research was financed by the researcher, who is based in Johannesburg. Budget constraints influenced the number of respondents interviewed. Partnering with Kantar Millward Brown was also explored, and the only setback was that the company required payment for their services and advice.

*Cultural and language constraints:* The researcher does not speak all 11 official languages and does not speak Afrikaans fluently. The researcher used translators and interpreters in the process of studying the Xhosa language.

*Advertising bias:* In the event that respondents and participants for the study are exposed to the advertisement before participating in a study, their responses are likely to contain some bias because of the perceptions developed when they interacted previously with the advertisements. The researcher used dubbing to enable comparisons between English advertisements and the same advertisements dubbed into Xhosa. Use of dubbing without changing characters could have influenced the results positively or negatively.

*Methodological limitations:* No previous study had focused on the use of the English language as a medium of instruction in television advertisements in the selected townships. Therefore,

there was no directly relevant South African data available for the researcher to cite in the literature review to lay a foundation for understanding the research problem under investigation.

## **1.11 Structure of the Thesis**

The thesis is divided into four parts, which follow a logical flow to discuss the different components of the research study. Figure 1.2 is a graphic presentation of the thesis.

### **Part I**

#### ***Chapter 1: Introduction and Background***

Part I of the thesis provides the introduction and contextual setting of the problem and an overview of what the whole study is about. Chapter 1 presents the research questions and overview of the theories that guided the study, as well as the research design, contributions, scope and limitations of the study.

### **Part II: Literature Review, Theories and Research Design**

#### ***Chapter 2: Literature Review***

This chapter presents all concepts relating to consumer behaviour, English-language television advertising, and how consumers decipher advertisements. The work of various scholars is reviewed to synthesise ideas, as well as contrast findings from different authors and researchers. As there are no past studies in South Africa similar to the current study, empirical studies from other countries are consulted to understand how the issue has been dealt with.

#### ***Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework***

The guiding theories are discussed in Chapter 3. The researcher describes what data were measured and what statistical relationships were considered to understand the problem at hand.

#### ***Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology***

This chapter outlines the research methods (research plan) that were used to collect, analyse and interpret data for the study. A research plan is an essential component of any research

project because it guides the researcher through the processes from inception to completion of the project.

## **Part III: Presentation and Discussion of Research Findings**

### ***Chapter 5: Presentation and Discussion of Quantitative Research Findings***

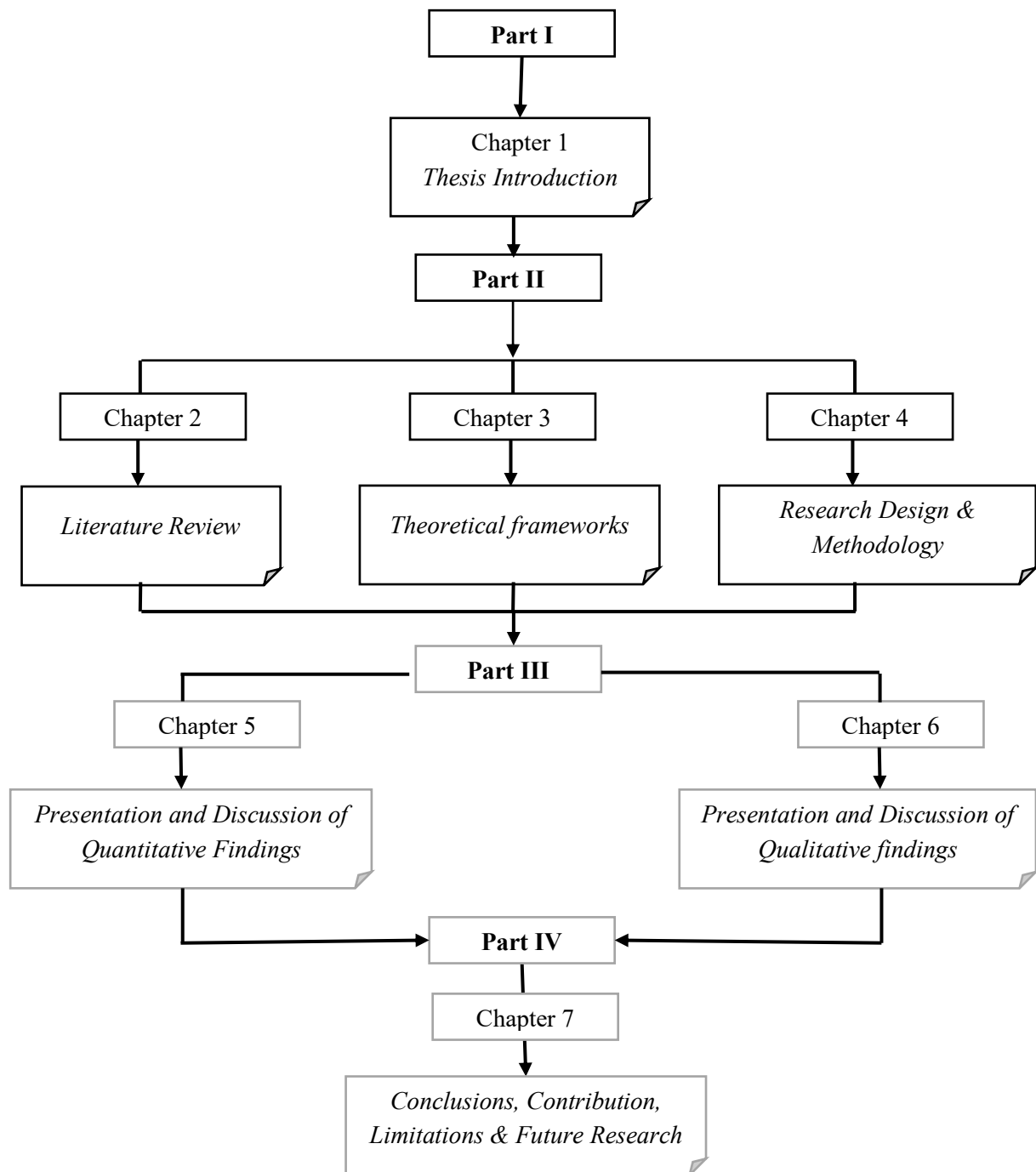
This chapter presents and discusses the quantitative research findings. All quantitative data were analysed using SPSS to establish the relationships between dependent and independent variables. Multivariate analyses were performed on all quantitative data, resulting in mathematical results that are presented in figures and tables.

### ***Chapter 6: Presentation and Discussion of Qualitative Research Findings***

Chapter 6 presents and discusses how the data from the expert and focus-group interviews were coded, cleaned and analysed into meaningful facts for informed decision-making. Thematic data analysis was performed on all transcriptions using NVivo 12, a qualitative data analysis program.

## **Part IV: Presentation of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations**

The last part of the thesis presents the summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and implications of the study.



**Figure 1.2: Structure of Thesis** (Chigada, 2021)

## 1.12 Chapter Summary

Language is more than just a means of communication; it also reflects a society's attitudes, values, and practices. Language not only expresses ideas and concepts, it also shapes thought, social identity, and linguistic creativity, and freedom is essential for social identity formation.

The nexus of this chapter was to articulate the research problem, discuss its contextual setting and develop the research questions that guided the study. The major contributions were divided into originality, theoretical/methodological and practical. An overview was given of the TPB, advertising effectiveness and the Stern Model of Communication that guided the study. In addition, the research design and methodology were presented, showing what philosophical stance informed the researcher. The last section of the chapter outlined the structure of the thesis with the aid of a diagram.

Part II of the study is presented next, starting off with the literature review chapter.

# **PART II:**

## **LITERATURE REVIEW, THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS AND RESEARCH DESIGN**

### **CHAPTER 2**

#### **LANGUAGE AND ADVERTISING LITERATURE**

*“Literature adds to reality, it does not simply describe it. It enriches the necessary competencies that daily life requires and provides; and it irrigates the deserts that our lives have already become” (Holmer, 1976:28).*

#### **2.1 Introduction**

In this second chapter of the research study, the focus is on reviewing the literature to see what other scholars have said, argued or established in their studies. The key issues that constitute this chapter are a discussion of the role of a literature review, followed by a discussion of languages, the television advertising landscape, and the impact of the English language on television advertising to non-English-speaking consumers in the Western and Eastern Cape townships. Further discussions in this chapter interrogate the extent to which the use of the English language affects behavioural intentions to purchase, brand recall, liking and message recall. The chapter also discusses how non-English speakers or illiterate consumers decode English television advertising messages. It eventually juxtaposes the theories discussed in the previous chapter and their relevance to this study, specifically focusing on individuals’ buying behaviour. The chapter provides an overview of marketing communication and the language used in marketing communication. This is an important discussion because the nexus of the study is the use of English-language advertising for non-English speakers. The chapter provides a conclusion and chapter summary.

#### **2.2 Marketing Communication**

Marketing communication entails all the techniques used by a firm or business to convey

promotional messages about their services and products. Marketing communication experts design different types of communication to send out to their target audience (Kotler & Armstrong, 2017). These communication types include advertising, promotions, sales, branding, campaigning and online promotions. In addition, marketing communication experts use different models, such as attention, interest, desire and action (AIDA), heightened appreciation, advertising exposure, Lavidge and Steiner models and the Joyee model.

*The AIDA model* has been in use since the 19th century, describing the steps a customer goes through in purchasing a product (Helsen & Kotabe, 2015). The objective of the AIDA model is to attract a customer's attention and have the company's offerings noticed. Customers can spend a considerable amount of time evaluating the options and, in that process, with more marketing messages, an interest to purchase the product/service is generated. The customer takes decisive action to buy a firm's offerings after weighing alternatives.

*The heightened appreciation model* helps the marketer to arrive at an advertising strategy by identifying the important attributes of products or services to create a link between the brand and a particular attribute (Kotler & Armstrong, 2017). The consumer must be persuaded of the importance of the attribute and the benefits it provides. Advertising campaigns based on the heightened appreciation model are considered successful if they result in increased usage and a positive brand image.

Kotler and Keller (2013) defined *advertising exposure* as the presentation of an advertisement to the consumer with the intention of motivating the consumer to buy or use a product/service. When the advertisement is exposed to the consumers, marketers believe that consumers will change their thinking about the brand and build excitement. Buyers who are loyal to brands respond strongly and quickly; thus, advertising exposure influences the quantity purchased rather than the brands chosen (Bridson et al., 2013). The nucleus of this study is premised on television advertising to an audience that speaks English as its second or third language.

The next section discusses television advertising as a component of marketing promotions.

## **2.3 Television Advertising**

Kotler and Keller (2013) defined advertising as the activity of communicating with the users of a product or service. In order to communicate, advertisers generate messages that are paid for and are intended to inform or influence the people who receive them (Advertising Association

of the United Kingdom, 2016). Advertising is designed to attract new customers or influence existing customers to purchase a product or service while defining and reaching out to the target market with an effective advertisement campaign.

Kotler and Keller (2013) pointed out that advertising is a marketing communication channel that involves the non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods and or services by an identified sponsor via print media (newspapers and magazines), broadcast media (radio and television), network media (telephone, satellite, and wireless), electronic media (audiotape, videotape or videodisc) and display media (billboards and posters). As one of the marketing communications channels, advertising activities contribute to brand equity and drive sales in many ways: creating brand awareness, forging the brand image in consumers' memories, eliciting positive brand feelings, and strengthening consumer loyalty (Kotler & Keller, 2013). The literature argues that advertising reaches geographically dispersed buyers while building a long-term image for the product, such as Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC) or Nandos. Furthermore, advertising can trigger quick sales. However, television advertising can require a large budget, whereas other forms of advertising, such as newspapers, do not. When consumers are exposed to a heavily advertised product or service, they might feel that the brand offers 'good value'.

Helsen and Kotabe (2015) stated that advertising permits the seller to repeat messages many times; thus, the message recipient has ample time to compare and contrast the messages of other competitors. Firms spending large amounts on advertising send a message to the market about their size, power and success. A good example is Coca-Cola, which spends a great deal of money on advertising. It is also believed that advertising provides opportunities for dramatising the company and its brands through the artful use of print, sound and colour (Kotler & Keller, 2013). Concerning the South African advertising landscape, advertisers choose the aspects of the brand and product on which to focus communications. Hence, it is presented in this study that the English language is used in television advertising to audiences that are either non-English-speaking or speak English as a second or third language.

## 2.4 Language in Marketing Communication

### 2.4.1 *Language and Multilingualism*

Languages differ fundamentally at every level of description (sound, grammar, lexicon and meaning) and it is very difficult to find any single structural property they share. Evans and Levison (2009) argued that linguistic universals have given cognitive scientists the impression that languages are all built to a common pattern. Languages have far more structural diversity than cognitive scientists generally acknowledge.

Cognitive scientists commonly assume that all languages are similar to English but have different sound systems and vocabularies (Evans & Levison, 2009). Cognitive scientists are oblivious to the true extent of linguistic diversity (Pinker & Bloom, 1990). As a result, an understanding of language diversity is a critical factor in understanding the role of language in human cognition. For example, some languages have less than a dozen sounds, and may or may not have derivational morphology (to make words from other words) or inflectional morphology for an obligatory set of syntactically consequential choices (Evans & Levison, 2009). The diversity of language points to the general importance of cultural and technological adaptation in humankind: language is a biocultural hybrid, a product of intensive gene-culture co-evolution over the last 200,000 to 400,000 years (Boyd & Richerson, 1985). Language diversity should be of interest to cognitive scientists for several reasons. For starters, a proper appreciation of the diversity completely alters the psycholinguistic picture. Second, how do children learn languages with such a wide range of structures?

The diversity of languages described in the above extracts demonstrates how South Africans identify languages with their culture. Having discussed the language landscape and its importance to humankind, the discourse focuses on the other pertinent issue of this study: advertising. This is because it is imperative to unpack the impact on purchase behavioural intentions of using the English language in advertisements that target non-English-speakers.

It is necessary to elucidate *customer satisfaction* before delving into purchase intentions. White and Yu (2005) pointed out that a significant amount of scholarly attention has been devoted to customer satisfaction. Customer satisfaction overlaps with numerous variables, such as perceived service quality (Spreng & Mackoy, 1996). Customer satisfaction is a result of a comparison between a consumer's expectations of the service/product and their actual

experience (Oliver, 1980). Customers' response components can be cognitive or affective when consuming a product or service. Researchers should therefore explore the role of emotions in the satisfaction-behavioural intention relationship to determine whether the impact of satisfaction on behavioural intentions is significant or not.

Hundreds of emotions confront consumers, but the question is what types of emotions should be considered. Machleit et al., (2000) established three different emotion typologies developed by psychologists for understanding human emotions in general. The study revealed common emotions as joy, sadness, surprise, disgust, anger and fear (Machleit et al., 2000). Emotions can be either positive or negative. However, Yu and Dean (2001) argued that, when the alpha coefficient of both negative and positive emotions drops by only 0.1 (when anger is removed), a third emotion dimension permeates. Dube and Menon (1998) identified different emotions, including jittery and excited (arousal) emotions as well as more negative emotions. The views raised by different authors confirm that, one way or another, every consumer has emotions that trigger actions (Lee & Cunningham, 2001).

Babin and Babin (2001) stated that positive emotions tend to be associated with positive outcomes and negative emotions are associated with negative outcomes. For instance, consumers excited by television visuals, movements and product packaging, together with patronage intention and hedonic shopping value, tended to have positive behavioural intentions. These positive emotions are not evoked by understanding the English-language advertisement. Fattah et al. (2014) conducted a study that established the influence of the language of advertising on customer patronage intention towards health insurance products in Malaysia. The study revealed that, to arouse customers' interests, various strategies and skills relating to English as an advertising language should be employed, and these include four psychological factors: motivation, perception, learning and memory (Fattah et al., 2014).

The language used in an advertisement can function as both an attribute and a medium of experience. As a result, it influences customers' affective responses or intentions, as well as their thoughts (Fattah et al., 2014). An individual's emotional response to an advertisement can also influence a customer's perception of the advertisement itself. As a result, one's attitude towards an advertisement influences one's behavioural intentions. Fattah et al. (2014) suggested that firms or advertisers must think about the language they use in their advertising campaigns. Fattah et al. (2014) claimed that developing an advertising campaign for a multilingual society or societies is difficult because people's reactions to different languages vary. The literature

shows that choosing local languages is beneficial (Xhosa and Zulu, in this instance) in an advertising campaign when customers' purchase intentions or products/services from a service provider are very important.

Fattah et al. (2014) demonstrated that behavioural intentions are evoked by patronage emotions, which agrees with the assertions by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) that behavioural intention comes as a result of a belief that performing the behaviour will lead to a specific outcome. Behavioural intentions are determined by attitudes to behaviours and subjective norms. From the perspective of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the literature argues that social norms surrounding an action contribute to whether the person will actually perform the behaviour. The intention to perform a certain behaviour precedes the actual behaviour, resulting in the term *behavioural intention*. Stronger intentions lead to increased effort to perform the behaviour and also increase the likelihood that the behaviour will be performed (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

Due to the impact of moderating factors such as L2-L3 English and advertising effectiveness (metrics) on intention and behaviour, it is clear that the use of the English language in television advertising has an impact on behavioural intentions. The literature does not, however, tell us in South Africa and the rest of Africa how English-illiterate consumers or consumers whose English is L2 (second language) or L3 (third language) impact intention and behaviour and also what is the impact of key advertising effectiveness metrics: brand recall, message recall, main-message understanding, advertising noting (awareness), emotion, consideration on intention and behaviour.

#### ***2.4.2 Language in South African Townships***

The Household Survey by StatsSA (2018) stated that South Africa has Africa's most developed economy, is on the southernmost tip of the African continent, is marked by distinct ecosystems, and has a population of 56.72 million people. The World Bank (2016) pointed out that their life expectancy is 62.77 years. The official languages are English, Afrikaans, Zulu, Xhosa, Southern Sotho, Tswana, Venda, Northern Sotho, Tsonga, Swati and Ndebele (StatsSA, 2018). The languages most commonly spoken as first languages by South Africans are Zulu (23%), Xhosa (16%) and Afrikaans (14%). The English language stands at the fourth position, with 9.6% of the people speaking it as a first language. However, English is understood in most urban areas and it is the official business language of the media and government (StatsSA, 2018).

Table 2.1 below illustrates the most-spoken languages and corroborates the report by StatsSA (2018). At that time, Zulu was the most widely spoken language, with 11.6 million speakers, followed by Xhosa, with 8.15 million speakers. Although English was a distant fourth, the researcher acknowledges that it has become the international business language and is also used in a variety of disciplines, such as science and medicine. BusinessTech (2018) stated that globally the English language is the world’s biggest language.

**Table 2.1: Eleven South African Official Languages**

<b>Number</b>	<b>Language</b>	<b>Native speakers</b>
1	IsiZulu	11.58 million
2	IsiXhosa	8.15 million
3	Afrikaans	6.85 million
4	English	4.89 million
5	Sepedi	4.62 million
6	Setswana	4.07 million
7	Sesotho	3.85 million
8	Xitsonga	2.28 million
9	SiSwati	1.30 million
10	Tshivenda	1.21 million
11	isiNdebele	1.09 million

Source: BusinessTech (2018)

Brown (2011) stated that language represents a means of interaction/communication between two or more people and is a key determinant of culture. Being one of the world’s most multilingual and culturally diverse nations, South Africa lives up to its claim of being a ‘rainbow nation’. Today, many members of the younger generation from diverse cultures have migrated to cities lead Westernised lifestyles, and speak either English or Afrikaans. This Westernised lifestyle is contributing to the demise of indigenous South African languages.

Though some younger people still live in ‘townships’, where local languages are spoken, it is highly likely that local languages are diluted by fusion with other languages.

In Table 2.2 below, the percentage of languages spoken per household demonstrates the racial groups: Black Africans, Coloureds, Indians/Asians, Whites and others. According to the General Household Survey by Stats SA (2018), the languages spoken inside and outside South African households were predominantly Zulu, Xhosa and Afrikaans. The data revealed that, in 2018, over 25% of individuals spoke Zulu at home, over 14.8% spoke Xhosa at home and 12.2% spoke Afrikaans. English was spoken at home by only 8.1% of individuals. This made English only the sixth most common language spoken inside the home in South Africa (StatsSA, 2018). The Western Cape had the largest population of Coloured individuals and the majority, over 77.4%, spoke only Afrikaans at home, and less than 20% used English at home. The data clearly showed that English was not always the most dominant language spoken in South African households and by individuals both inside and outside the home. Even though English was the second most commonly spoken language outside the home, less than 17% of South African households spoke it. Also, among White South Africans, more than three-fifths (61.2%) spoke Afrikaans, and only 36.3% spoke English (BusinessTech, 2018). South Africa had an estimated household population of over 16.4 million and over 57 million people (StatsSA, 2018).

Table 2.2 sheds more light on the diverse language landscape of the population groups. The Indian/Asian population group was the most monolingual, with 92.1% who spoke English at home in 2018. More than three-quarters (77.4%) of Coloured individuals spoke Afrikaans at home, while 20.1% used English. More than three-fifths (61.2%) of White South Africans spoke Afrikaans, and only 36% spoke English. Black South Africans spoke a much larger variety of languages. Besides the two most commonly spoken languages, isiZulu (31.1%) and isiXhosa (18.2%), notable sub-groups of Black African individuals spoke Sepedi (12.4%), Setswana (11.1%) and Sesotho (9.7%) (StatsSA, 2018).

**Table 2.2: Percentage of Languages Spoken by Household Members Inside and Outside the Household by Population Group**

Language	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		South Africa	
	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside
Afrikaans	0.9	1.0	77.4	68.8	1.3	1.5	61.2	37.2	12.2	9.7
English	1.6	8.6	20.1	28.3	92.1	95.8	36.3	61.0	8.1	16.6
isiNdebele	1.9	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.1	1.6	1.3
isiXhosa	18.2	15.6	1.1	1.3	0.4	0.0	0.1	0.1	14.8	12.8
isiZulu	31.1	30.8	0.3	0.3	0.9	1.0	0.5	0.5	25.3	25.1
Khoi, San	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
Sepedi	12.4	12.0	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.3	10.1	9.7
Sesotho	9.7	9.6	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.1	7.9	7.8
Setswana	11.1	11.5	0.7	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	9.1	9.4
Sign	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
SiSwati	3.5	3.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.8	2.6
Tshivenda	3.1	2.7	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	2.2
Xitsonga	4.4	2.9	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	3.6	2.4
Other	2.1	0.5	0.1	0.0	4.0	0.7	1.1	0.5	1.9	0.5
<b>Total %</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Total (th)</b>	<b>46,307</b>	<b>46,135</b>	<b>4,961</b>	<b>4,930</b>	<b>1,430</b>	<b>1,426</b>	<b>4,442</b>	<b>4,420</b>	<b>57,143</b>	<b>56,914</b>

Source: General Household Survey (StatsSA, 2018)

In the discussions above and in Tables 2.1 and 2.2, the researcher highlights the language landscape in South Africa. That contextual background is imperative for this study because it demonstrates that television advertising managers might be using the English language as an official business language while ignoring the audiences that might be the biggest consumers of their products. However, many of the younger Black South Africans in the lower- to upper middle-class are adopting a Westernised lifestyle and switching to English and Afrikaans, so this cohort of consumers might be the biggest influencers in the decision-making process. Although the cohort might not be financially stable, its exposure to social-media networking and other forms of technology wields great influence. It is probable that non-English-speaking people make purchase decisions by being influenced by this cohort (StatsSA, 2018). When such

purchase decisions are made, the concept of translation from one language to another is encountered (Cartford, 1978).

Brock-Utne and Garbo (2009) stated that the question of which language to use in households, media, courtrooms or even in Parliament is a question of power, politics and priorities. Changing the language of instruction in Africa from an exogenous language, which most children do not master, to a familiar African language means redistributing power from the small elites and their children to the great majority of African children. The achievement of justice is very often determined by the language conducted by the actors in the judicial theatre (Brock-Utne, 2002). In the High Court of justice in Switzerland, cases are prosecuted and defended in three languages: Italian, French and German. Laws are also written in these languages; so are verdicts. In South Africa, there is still a near monopoly of English and Afrikaans in the law and legal system, leading to the alienation of the legal system from the bulk of South African society.

While the use of indigenous African languages was permitted in the Black homelands of South Africa, Africans who had legal matters to settle within so-called White South Africa had to endure the conduct of their proceedings in either English or Afrikaans. If they were unable to communicate in either language, translation services were made available to them. A magistrate is required by the Magistrate's Court Act, Act 32 of 1994, to call a competent interpreter if he believes that the accused is not adequately able to converse in the language in which evidence is presented. According to Ailola and Montsi (1999, p. 135), there is no doubt that the exclusive use of indigenous languages in enacting laws and conducting legal proceedings creates enormous barriers for native speakers of those languages.

Interpretations do not always work well. Ailola and Montsi (1999) demonstrated that in Brock-Utne, (2003) where even when translation services are available, fatal errors can occur because certain expressions are, at best, incapable of exact interpretation. Others simply cannot be translated. For example, while most Bantu languages have a word for 'killing', there is no word for 'murder':

*Thus, according to a story which was told them by a Zambian legal practitioner, a client of his nearly incriminated himself in a crime of murder on account of an improper translation of the term. In the preceding extracts above, the author indicated that translation could be problematic because the original meaning can be distorted during translation. In that case the accused had been asked in the Tonga vernacular whether he admitted to killing the deceased. He replied in the affirmative.*

*Thereupon the translator turned to the bench and reported: "My lord, he says he murdered him." Had it not been for the defence lawyer's knowledge of the local language and alertness in spotting the difference between 'murder' and 'killing', the matter would have ended there, and then a conviction would have ensued. The accused could possibly have been hanged for the offence. (from Brock-Utne, 2003:71)*

In reality, the accused meant to say that he killed the deceased, but there were extenuating circumstances. Killing without unlawful intent or malice aforethought is not considered murder (Ailola & Montsi, 1999). Sometimes it is not even unlawful. Killing in self-defence or in defence of one's family or property is often lawful. Similarly, there is no criminal offence attached to a killing committed during a time of war, civil strife, or the lawful suppression of a crime. So, when the rest of the court does not understand the accused's language, the interpreter takes on a semi-autonomous role. Cartford (1978) indicated that the phonology of translation from one language to another has created problems for many people. The arguments presented by the Linguistic Theory of Translation indicate there is a high probability that English television advertisements will be mistranslated, and that people will make wrong buying decisions.

Some newspapers in most African countries are still published in the languages of the country's former colonial master; for example, in South Africa, newspapers are published in English and Afrikaans. In Rwanda, French, and lately also English, is used. While some Kinyarwanda periodicals and newspapers are available, radio and television are the primary means of communication with the masses who speak only the vernacular (Halvorsen, 2010). A recent study of billboards and signs revealed that Kinyarwanda was used less frequently than both English and French (Rosendal, 2009). French is used more frequently than English or Kinyarwanda in the linguistic landscape of billboard advertising and shop signs. In Zambia and Zimbabwe, English is used more frequently on billboards and in advertising than any of the local languages. This is not the case in Tanzania, where Kiswahili dominates billboards and

advertising. In South Africa, the English language is predominantly used for billboard advertising. The researcher notes that most billboard advertisements are in the English language.

Areas of commerce that integrate indigenous languages include Google search, which has isiZulu, Sesotho, isiXhosa, Setswana and Northern Sotho, together with Afrikaans and English. Commercial banks have followed suit by including local languages in the choices at automated teller machines. Clients can choose a language they are comfortable with to conduct banking transactions. This leads us to the discussion relating to language in the advertising section.

### **2.4.3 Language in Advertising**

Currently, in South Africa and the rest of the continent, television advertising rhymes with English dominance and English monolingualism. Rarely is television advertising in SA multilingual, lagging far behind the most watched and liked soapies, dramas and reality shows, such as *Ngubani uThatakho*, *Khumbhule'khaya* (South African Broadcasting Corporation [SABC]), *Jola 99* by Jub-Jub (Mzansi Magic Digital Satellite TV), *Our Wedding* (Mzansi Magic DSTV), *Generations* (SABC), *Isidingo* (SABC), and *Muvhango* (SABC).

Nederstigt and Hilberink-Schulpen (2017) stated that the English language, in particular, is very popular in non-English-speaking countries and communities. The authors suggested that, in other countries, native languages are used in which the product/service advertised is congruent with the language or the community/society in which the language is spoken. For example, an advertisement for perfume that uses French as a foreign language in an advertisement has a congruent relationship between the product and the foreign language used. If the same advertisement used Russian as a foreign language, the relation between the foreign language and the product is incongruent because Russia is not usually associated with perfume. However, the scenario in South Africa is different from that in other countries.

Griffin (1997) established that 88% of the advertisements in various Polish magazines contained English words, while Gerritsen et al. (2000) showed that 33% of television commercials shown in one week by Dutch national television stations contained English. However, Piller (2001) found that 70% of German television commercials were multilingual. With the advent of globalisation, the above figures are likely to increase because the dictates of the global economy are compelling advertisers to use a universal business language. The literature appears to agree that the primary reason for using foreign languages in advertising is

to capture the attention of consumers (Gerritsen et al., 2000; Hornikx & Starren, 2008; Piller, 2001). However, Domzal and Kernan (1995) argued that the use of foreign languages is to act as an ‘attention-getting device’ because the foreign language deviates from the norm and is unexpected, making the advertisement stand out.

The researcher disagrees with the assertions by Domzal and Kernan (1995) in that, when English is frequently used in communities and/or societies where it is a second or third language, the attention-getting function decreases because habituation can occur. The researcher’s assertions are informed by his background, personal life experiences and exposure to the communities identified as research sites for the study.

Advertisers frequently use English because it is assumed to be a language spoken or at least understood by consumers in large parts of the world. Hornikx et al. (2010) stated that studies have shown the frequent use of English in advertising, but little is known about people’s preference for English versus local languages. In their investigation of the difficulty of learning the English language as a possible determinant of people’s preference for English or a local language, Hornikx et al. (2010) showed that easy-to-understand English slogans were appreciated better than difficult-to-understand English slogans. The study also revealed that the degree of comprehension of the English slogans affected participants’ preference for English. Therefore, the study concluded that empirical support for the role of comprehension in the preference for and appreciation of English in advertising was high. The researcher believes that such findings motivate advertisers to use the English language frequently in advertising.

Ajudhiya and Botha (2018, p. 6), using facial recognition technology and facial coding, showed that LSM B South Africans, who are predominantly Black, “are highly expressive when watching advertising and are sensitive to the type of content they are shown”. Therefore, the authors concluded that there are a number of cultural nuances to consider when creating a piece of communication whose intention is to persuade the user to cooperate with the brand being advertised. One of the major variables to consider is language. However, if “across all languages the average time it takes to respond to a question is only 200 milliseconds, less time than it takes to decide to speak” (Enfield, 2018), how many milliseconds does it take for a non-English-first-language speaker to respond to or understand an English advertisement? Is it possible for a listener and consumer of advertising to easily understand the advertising message and see themselves clearly in it when English is only a second or third language?

Enfield (2018, p. 1) argued that “Language is more than just sharing information, it is about cooperation, grounded in a human form of social cognition, held together by a moral code of conduct and high speed-cognitive processing”. The role of advertising is to nudge, persuade and sometimes manipulate potential users to cooperate with the brand, to vote democratically with their wallets in the marketplace, and to have a relationship with the brand. Advertising messages are mainly delivered in auditory-verbal form (sounds, language, words, music and jingles), visuals, non-verbal form (body language, facial gestures, and hand language) and text. Language in most advertisements plays a significant role in helping the user understand the message; in around 90% of advertisements, language dominates the advertisement narrative.

From 2015-2019, the university students at Witwatersrand (Wits) and the University of Cape Town (UCT; Rhodes Must Fall) went on a protest demanding the decolonisation of universities, resulting in UCT changing Jameson Hall to Sarah Baartman Hall and removing the Cecil John Rhodes statue. At the heart of that protest was language. At that time, English and Afrikaans were the dominant mediums of instruction and the students, mainly Black, were asking for a “pluriversity, a university that is open to epistemic diversity” (Mbembe, 2019, p. 6). Will such a protest extend itself to all forms of communication and education tools and, since advertising is a communication tool that educates, inspires and informs consumers, will the people called *consumers* one day start to demand plural advertising, where advertising reflects the country’s demographic diversity, or the users of that product’s culture, values and norms and becomes far more inclusive?

Zou and Chen (2005) posited that, due to global market expansion, businesses advertise their products/services and brands to communicate with global consumers. The challenge that confronts global firms is standardising their advertisements. The debate centres on the question of whether the same advertisement can be used in different countries or whether it should be adapted to each different country where it is used. White and Yu (2000) suggested that standardisation is beneficial to the firms. For starters, standardised advertisements are likely to result in economies of scale. Second, standardisation gives companies more control over their cross-border activities and allows them to fully exploit highly creative ideas in different countries. Third, businesses can develop a global corporate image with comparable positioning in international markets. Therefore, it is logical to use English to address international stakeholders in a similar manner (Piller, 2001).

Standardisation versus adaptation in advertising is not limited to value appeals; the language in the advertisement may also be considered as a tool to standardise or to adapt the advertisement. If language is taken as a basis for standardisation or adaptation, the question is whether advertisements with English (standardised) are more persuasive than advertisements with the local language (adapted). There have been only a few empirical studies that compared English with local languages in advertising (Shoham, 1996). Widyahening (2015) stated that language is a significant means that humans use to communicate with others. People create and arrange reality through language. Language rises to the surface, bringing hidden things to light. Language can also be used to describe someone's experience. An event, processes, people, objects, abstractions, quality, situation, and social relations are all discussed in the context of experience. We do not just talk about the symbol system in human culture in the form of written language and/or oral language when we talk about language.

Language is also used to explain how to form or present goods or objects, as well as to describe an object's taste. Language can also be used to recount events that have occurred to others. As a result, language must be used in its proper context and situation: As Firth (in Syamsuddin, 1992, p. 2) stated, "language is only meaningful in its context of situation."

Language is also important in the world of advertising. Language is regarded as a tool for mediation in the advertisement–production process. As Tarigan (1993, p. 23) said, there are four reasons why people use language: for expressing oneself, exposition, art, and persuasion. In human culture, language is a symbol system. Levi-Strauss (in Kasiyan, 2008, p. 133) stated that language included not only the meaning of written or spoken language but also all the social phenomena of a society's broader culture, such as clothing, food menus and rituals. In this case, advertisement discourse in the mass media is regarded as a linguistic phenomenon. Therefore, when one looks at the TPB, it does not consider language as a key factor in the predictability of consumers' behaviour. Rather, the texts or graphical marks and images presented on television are triggers for emotions and intention to act (Stern, 1994). Language is a common factor in any society's cultural practices.

Balwin, in Kasiyan (2008, p. 144), said, in advertisements, "language plays a role in reflecting the naturalness of use-value towards the advertised product, commodity, or service". The researcher believes that language is also used to spread a capitalist consumerism ideology throughout society as the power of language, which has brought the colonisation of human

culture symbolic in advertisements, is proof that the friction of language represents one potency that can poison the existence of civilisation at present and in the future.

The use of the English language as a medium of communication to consumers or viewers who do not understand English or are English-language illiterate in television advertisements is an infringement of consumers' rights. In addition, consumers do not have control over the situation. For example, advertisements on regulations or legislation that are flighted in English leave consumers/viewers with no option but to adhere without objection.

It was therefore imperative for the study to adopt and implement the Theory of Planned Behaviour because of its flexibility and adaptability. The inclusion of two moderating variables (English language and advertising) helps to prove that the use of the English language influences consumers' behavioural intentions re a product or service. Evidence presented in this section demonstrates that past studies have concluded that using English as a foreign language in television advertising has both positive and negative impacts on consumers' purchase intentions. Therefore, the literature suggests an infusion of local languages into television advertising. It is also important to look at what other studies established about using the English language in television advertising.

## **2.5 Content and Advertising Dubbing**

One of the evolving disciplines in helping increase the ease and relatability of understanding content has been the use of audiovisual translation, commonly known as *dubbing* and subtitles in content creation or storytelling across television, film, and advertising (Chaume, 2013). Advertising- or content dubbing, or rerecording, is a post-production process used in content production where the entire English or foreign advertisement is dubbed into that country's dominant vernacular, or additional and supplementary recordings are lip-synced and mixed with original production vocals to create a piece of content that will be easily understood by its intended content consumers (Abend-David, 2014). In South Africa, from the 1970s till the early 2000s, many television programmes, like soaps, and cartoons such as Spiderman (*Rabubi*) and Superman, were dubbed into South African English, Xhosa, Zulu and Afrikaans. Recently, some of the popular telenovelas from Latin America and Bollywood soaps from India have been dubbed into South African English (Theunissen et al., 1996). The positive case for dubbing is manifold and dominant arguments centre around production cost savings and a cost-efficient, fast turnaround time to market; its attraction for a wide range of viewers; globalisation of

content using the same characters globally, just changing language and voice; increased relatability and ease of understanding, and assistance with the re-creation of identities (Merskin, 2020a; 2020b; Minutella, 2021).

## **2.6 Empirical Studies on English-language Television Advertising**

To augment the arguments presented in this literature review chapter, various studies were reviewed to establish the trends and challenges encountered in the advertising space. Roy-Campbell (2006) acknowledged the significance of African languages in the current era of globalisation. African languages are being taught in the United States of America, Europe and Japan, a clear demonstration that African languages play an important role in the global village. Globalisation is manifested by a wealth of information and interest in African languages. There is no evidence that television advertising in the USA, Europe or Japan is done in any African language than in English (or the local language). One could ask, “Why not use a foreign language in the USA, Europe or Japan, if these economies can impose their languages in African countries?” Birgit Brock-Utne (2000), on the other hand, pointed to the invalidation of African languages as a handicap rather than a resource. Although African languages are widely spoken across the African continent, their credibility as carriers of important, high-status information remains in doubt. This is because the former colonial language is still used as the primary language of formal education in most African countries (Brock-Utne, 2000).

In most African countries, education may take place in the mother tongue for the first few years of primary school, but then the switch is made to the European language. Tanzania is one of the most notable exceptions to this, having used Kiswahili as the medium of instruction throughout primary school since 1969. In fact, until recently, there were very few primary schools in Tanzania that used English as the medium of instruction, and these English-medium schools primarily served the children of expatriates. Tanzania, which was a beacon of light in Africa’s language question in the 1970s, has faltered in this realm. This is indicated by the fact that, many years later, not only is English still the language of post-primary school education, but English-medium primary schools have proliferated, and there has even been talk of returning to the English medium in all primary schools. Rubagumya (2003) documented the recent mushrooming of English-medium schools in Tanzania, describing it as a response to globalisation.

Post-apartheid South Africa acknowledged the language issue by establishing 11 official languages, with nine African languages as well as English and Afrikaans. In May 2022, the government of South Africa acknowledged sign language as the twelfth official language (eNews24.com). The government enshrined these languages in the new Constitution by granting them 'equal use' in all sectors of society, and the government is still investigating the feasibility of extending mother-tongue education beyond Grade 3 to Grade 12. Despite this, education is still primarily provided in English and Afrikaans many years later. This is especially intriguing because, under apartheid South Africa's Bantu Education Policy, African languages were used as mediums of instruction (Roy-Campbell, 2006). Ironically, the use of African languages in Bantu education may be why the policy has yet to take root in South Africa. The policy of racial separation sought to condemn Africans to a mediocre education by limiting the development of their languages, thereby providing only the knowledge that the apartheid regime desired them to have access to through those languages. This may have contributed to some South Africans' opposition to the use of their home languages as a medium of instruction because they associated mother-tongue instruction with an effort to confine them in a linguistic prison (Roy-Campbell, 2006).

According to Roy-Campbell (2006), one consequence of the devaluation of African languages in education and the knowledge embodied in these languages is the positioning of Africa as a receiver rather than a contributor. African countries receive knowledge, know-how, technology, books, and so on from other countries, particularly the Western world, but are not seen as contributing anything of 'recognized value' to the global knowledge pool. Their natural resources contribute to the world, but only through coercion and biopiracy, as they are taken as raw materials to the West to be developed, then returned to African countries as manufactured goods or development aid. In fact, the most valuable resource the African continent has given the West is the over 70 million human beings who were ripped from their homes, shipped to the Western world, and sold as a source of free labour.

Sta-Maria et al., (2012) conducted a study that compared Nivea advertising campaigns in English and Spanish. The objective of the study was to analyse the translation process as well as examining the differences between the source (English) and target (Spanish) versions of a Nivea television advertisement campaign. The variables that were tested included images and the jungle music in the background. The study revealed that it was possible to change images, texts and other elements of the advertisement, but translating from the English language was

difficult. Some English texts in the voice-over were readily available for translation, while some were deleted. This exercise confirmed that "advertisement ... constitutes an important pedagogical instrument in preparatory translation training" (Belcher, 1994, p. 86). It allows the learner to delve more profoundly into what the advertisement is trying to communicate and to compare the English and Spanish versions, instead of merely viewing them as disinterested bystanders who are anxious to see the continuation of the programme they are watching. The researcher supports Sta-Maria et al. (2012) that translation can distort the meaning of a message; therefore, it is ideal for advertisers to use a local language in their television advertisement campaigns.

Faber et al. (2010) investigated the simultaneous recording of electric and metabolic brain activity. The authors used neuromarketing tools to test the brain activities of 49 participants by means of EEG and NIRS during different physiological and psychological states. The EEG results showed that attention is inversely proportional to alpha activities; that is, the higher the level of attention shown, the lower the output of the alpha band. The alpha invariably declines with eyes open and mental effort. NIRS measurement in psychological tests showed a symmetrical bifrontal oxyhaemoglobin level increase, especially during pre-test instruction. Oddly, oxidation was sometimes seen dropping in the tests. The decline appeared to be caused by extra-voluntary breath-holding while the participants were concentrating their attention on the task (Faber et al., 2010).

Vashishta and Balaji (2012) determined the relationship between social cognitive neuroscience, marketing persuasion and customer relations. They stated that the functioning of the brain has been the central focus of psychology and neuroscience researchers and the latter, combined with marketing, has helped the discipline of neuromarketing evolve with precision and reliability (Vashishta & Balaji, 2012). Customers understand messages better and are more easily persuaded when a certain level of abstraction corresponds to their goals, according to Vashishta and Balaji. Marketing researchers can use neuroscience to gain a better understanding of the extent of such abstractions held in customers' minds, as well as the role of emotions in decision-making, and to develop more effective methods of eliciting those emotions.

Wilson et al. (2008) examined the impact of neuroscience discoveries and methods on marketing practices. The study focused on ethical questions involving consumers' awareness, consent and understanding of what they viewed. Their findings buttress the argument for avoiding the use of a neuroscience route, as it would create bottlenecks in the ethical approval

process. Neuromarketing tools and technologies were used in this study after Wilson et al. (2008) realised that advertisers use foreign languages in their television advertisement campaigns. Using fMRI, the study revealed that marketing researchers are able to image the neural activity associated with vision, as well as with the cognitive and affective responses to print advertisements. fMRI is able to locate active systems by comparing images taken of a brain when the subject is performing a specific function to those of the brain when not performing that function. In an active neural system, signals travel from one neuron to another by transmitting chemical compounds, called *neurotransmitters*, across synapses to receptors on the receiving cell (Wilson et al., 2008).

The above study on neuroscience demonstrates that marketing researchers have been using new technologies to gain a better understanding of customers' needs. The emergence of scientific techniques like neuro-imaging technologies enables marketers to play with the underlying consciousness of customers. Thus, it is evident that marketers are moving towards complex technologies and tools to better explain and understand consumer behaviour in the context of disruptive technologies.

Roy-Campbell (2006) presented a keynote speech on the state of African languages and the global language, "Politics: Empowering African Languages in the Era of Globalisation". The speech reflected that African languages were taught in the USA and European and Japanese universities as a response to globalisation. However, despite the teaching of African languages, the USA, European countries and Japan do not use these foreign languages in television advertisement campaigns; yet, back in Africa, English is a foreign language that is forced on people. The colonial legacy has rendered African languages impotent in many African countries. While African languages are spoken more widely in African countries than European languages, their credibility as transmitters of important, high-status knowledge is called into question. This is most evident in the fact that the former colonial language is still used as the primary language of formal education in the majority of African countries (Roy-Campbell, 2006). The author concurs with Roy-Campbell, in that advertisers' use of the English language instead of local languages is a deliberate ploy to marginalise and oppress consumers.

Fattah et al. (2014) conducted a study to establish the influence of the language of advertising on customer patronage intention, specifically using race as a moderating effect. The study was conducted in the Malaysian health insurance industry, where a sample of 160 customers from different health insurance service providers was involved. The researcher agrees that Malaysia

is a diverse or multiracial and multilingual society, with a character that is similar to South Africa. Malaysians speak two or more languages. Bahasa Malaysia is the national and official language of the country and the medium of instruction in primary and secondary schools and public universities (Fattah et al., 2014). Mandarin and Tamil are taught in vernacular-speaking schools. The study revealed that many local and international firms employed the local Bahasa Malaysia language, as well as including elements of cultural norms in building their brand identity in a particular region (Fattah et al., 2014). It was also established that perceived usability increased when words used in a television advertisement campaign were conceived in the native language of consumers. The findings from the study also demonstrated that the use of indecent language positively affected advertisement attitude, brand attitude and purchase intentions. Fattah et al. (2014) discovered that strategically incorporating a native language in marketing communications that target the emotions of customers activated individuals' emotion-regulation proclivities.

Language can be used as an attribute and a medium of experience, influencing customers' affective responses and thoughts. Customers' attitudes towards advertisements can be influenced by an individual's emotional outburst in response to a television advertisement campaign. The attitude towards a television commercial can change behavioural intentions; therefore, it is critical for businesses to consider the language used in their advertising campaigns (Fattah et al., 2014).

The researcher agrees that the preparation of an advertising campaign for a multilingual society is challenging because people's reactions to a particular language vary considerably from one person to another. It might be important that advertisers identify the relationship between the selection of local languages in an advertising campaign with customers' purchase intentions, especially for the diversity of township communities in the Western Cape. The empirical reviews presented in this study demonstrate that the marketing disciplines (consumer behaviour and advertising) are evolving, and marketing researchers are keeping abreast of changing global trends in neuromarketing.

## **2.7 Gaps in the Literature**

This study is the first attempt from a South African perspective to examine the effects of English-language television advertising on illiterate or non-English consumers in the Western and Eastern Cape townships. The exploratory nature of the problem investigated required the

researcher to consult past studies for a better understanding of the issue at hand. The first gap in the literature is the absence of past studies that examined the effects of English-language television advertising. Kotler and Armstrong (2017) extensively discussed different types of communications–advertising but the authors failed to examine the effects of the English language in television advertising. The researcher acknowledges that the area of consumer behaviour within the marketing discipline has been researched very widely, but is concerned about issues relating to consumers; for example, the medium and language of communication.

Evans and Levison (2009) stated that language is fundamental to communication. However, the authors fall short on how the use of the English language in television advertising has ramifications for non-English-speaking communities. This applies to developed economies that do not speak English as a first language. The language used in an advertisement can serve as an attribute and medium of experience; thus, it influences customers' affective response or intention, and their thoughts (Fattah et al., 2014). The literature has failed to recognise the languages that are spoken in South African townships, thus, alienating would-be consumers of television advertisements. Currently, in South Africa and the rest of the continent, television advertising is dominated by English, French, Portuguese and English monolingualism. television advertising in South Africa is rarely multilingual, lagging far behind the most watched and liked soapies or movies.

The literature has failed to demonstrate initiatives or interventions being undertaken to use multilingualism in television advertising. The use of the English language as a medium of communication in television advertisements directed at consumers or viewers who do not understand English or who are illiterate in English might be viewed as an infringement of consumers' rights.

## **2.8 Chapter Summary**

The researcher reviewed literature pertaining to the selection and use of language in television advertisements. It was highlighted that the importance of a literature review is to gain a better understanding of a phenomenon from what others have said in similar or closely related studies. In addition, insights were gained by looking at the various sources of information that were discussed in this chapter. The languages landscape in South Africa was discussed in detail, showing the diversity of cultures and the relevance of languages in shaping the country's cultures. The most widely spoken languages are isiZulu and isiXhosa, with Afrikaans and

English occupying the third and fourth positions, respectively. Despite the popularity of isiZulu and isiXhosa, television advertisement campaigns are presented in the English language and thus pose a large impediment for L2 and L3 speakers. The area of neuromarketing was discussed, showing how L2 or L3 consumers use brain activity to respond and act when shown a television advertisement campaign. Combining neuroscience and marketing is helping marketing researchers to better understand consumers' emotions and behavioural intentions.

There is a significant negative impact from using English-language television advertisements on L2 and L3 consumers in communities that have been disadvantaged by the legacy of apartheid. Globally, researchers have also concluded that infusing foreign languages with native languages was effective (in Malaysia, for example). It was revealed that Tanzania pioneered the use of Kiswahili over foreign languages. A different scenario prevails in South Africa, where English and Afrikaans are used in many facets of the country's activities. The notion that many African countries are still bound by the languages of their colonial masters has been demonstrated in this chapter. Empirical research from other countries illustrated that most African languages are only taught and spoken in schools and at home, but the English language is de facto the medium of communication. The increased use of the English language in illiterate or non-English-speaking communities has been regarded as infringing on the cultural rights of societies. Sooner rather than later, African languages will vanish from the younger generations.

In the next chapter, the research plan employed in this study is discussed in detail.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

*“He who loves practice without theory is like a sailor who boards ship without a rudder and compass and never knows where he may cast” (Da Vinci, in Da Vinci & Richter, 1883).*

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the various theoretical works that underpin this study. Comprehension of new-venture initiation and the generation of new knowledge requires research using theory-driven models that adequately reflect the complex perception-based processes underlying intentional, planned behaviours. One such model widely used in social psychology and commerce, which demonstrates its applicability to the marketing domain, is the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). Key tenets of this chapter are premised on the role of theoretical frameworks in research, followed by a discussion of the Theory of Reasoned Action and a detailed discussion of the TPB and its application to the current study. In addition, the Stern Model of Communication is discussed, demonstrating its support of the TPB.

#### **3.2 The Role of Theoretical Frameworks**

Bryman and Bell (2017) defined a theoretical framework as the structure that holds a theory of a research study by introducing and describing the theory that explains why the research problem under investigation exists. Ngulube et al. (2014) stated that theories are formulated to explain, predict and understand phenomena and, in most cases, to challenge and extend existing knowledge within the limits of critical bounding assumptions. Creswell (2013) explained that theoretical frameworks consist of concepts and, together with their definitions, refer to relevant scholarly literature. Therefore, theoretical frameworks situate the study in specific scholarly discourse, linking the study to a broader body of literature. The other role of theoretical frameworks is to demonstrate an understanding of theories and concepts that are relevant to the research topic under investigation and that relate to the broader areas of knowledge being considered (Creswell, 2013). Creswell’s views are supported by Chigada (2014), who stated that the theoretical framework provides the researcher with a holistic approach to the subject area under investigation.

In this study, the use of the English language in television advertising might appear normal because no studies have interrogated it. However, the findings of the current study will help readers, marketing practitioners, the advertising industry and other stakeholders to introspect on certain practices that have been practised for a long time.

Bryman and Bell (2017) stated that theoretical frameworks are not readily found in the literature; therefore, the discussion of this concept in this chapter demonstrates that a literature review is distinct from theoretical frameworks. Researchers are encouraged to read pertinent studies for theories and analytic models relevant to the research problem under investigation. Their reading enhances their understanding and application of theories in order to address a research problem. The selection of a theory depends on its appropriateness, ease of application and explanatory power. However, reading about theoretical frameworks shows that most researchers do not understand the distinction between conceptual and theoretical frameworks. Concepts are variables or constructs found in a theoretical framework; therefore, a combination of interrelated concepts makes a theoretical framework (Chigada, 2014). De Vos and Strydom (2011) stated that ignorance and a lack of understanding of the two concepts cause many research projects to lack theoretical frameworks. Leshem and Trafford (2007) similarly asserted that many researchers are not well-versed in the roles of conceptual and theoretical frameworks in research, resulting in many research studies that lack theoretical and/or conceptual frameworks.

Creswell (2014) argued that theoretical frameworks are important because a researcher requires a research plan that guides the whole study from conception to conclusion. That is, a theoretical framework is a detailed guideline, from defining the research topic through to drawing the final conclusion in the last chapter of the study. Theoretical frameworks provide the structure within which the problem under investigation is understood (Bryman & Bell, 2017). Romm and Ngulube (2014) stated that complex research problems might be difficult to understand, but the researcher will better understand the problem under investigation with the use of theories. Mavodza (2011) suggested that the formulation of research questions, interpretation of findings and generalisations to other contexts are processes guided by theoretical frameworks.

The underpinnings of a discipline serve as the foundation for the discipline's research and development in order to generate ideas (Bawden, 2008; Denford & Chan, 2011). This research set out to understand the foundations and existing theories of marketing, specifically focusing on consumer behaviour, and to simultaneously investigate the applicability of indigenous

languages as a medium for television advertising for communities in Western and Eastern Cape townships.

Theoretical knowledge is based on the fact that theory is objective knowledge, a map defined as a set of interconnected ideas that condenses and organises knowledge about the social world (Mearns, 2008). Theory is a framework for thinking about a problem and may evolve into a statement of relationships among theoretical propositions (Wilson, 1997). A theory helps people visualise the complexity in the world and explains why things happen (Neuman, 2006). In addition, theories give researchers different perspectives through which to look at complex aspects and social issues, focusing their attention on different aspects of the data and providing a framework within which to conduct their analysis (Sveiby, 2001).

### **3.3 Theories Guiding the Current Thesis**

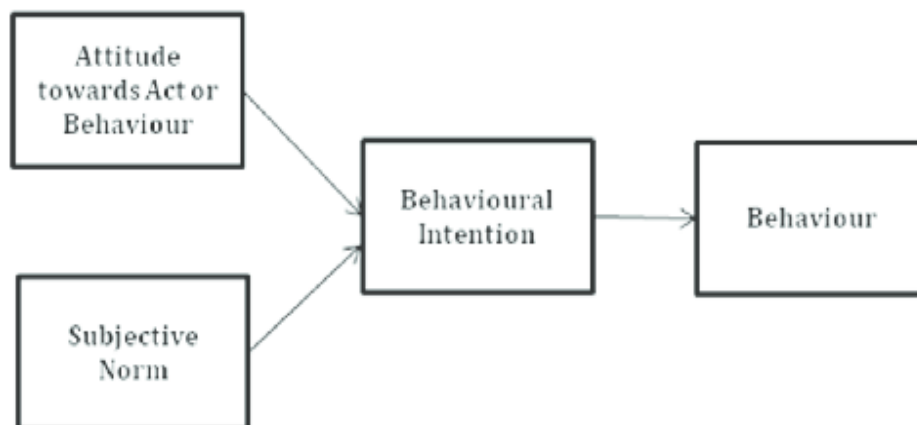
#### ***3.3.1 Theory of Planned Behaviour***

The TPB model has been widely used in both quantitative and qualitative studies in various disciplines, marketing being one of them. In order to have a better understanding and description of the TPB, it is of the utmost importance to explain its origins and why it has become one of the most widely used models. Researchers such as Taylor and Todd (1995) have used TRA and TPB in their research in Western cultures. However, there is uncertainty about whether the models are appropriate for use in various cultures, such as third-world African cultures (Solomon et al., 2006). South African culture is diverse, with numerous ethnic groups and traditions.

##### **3.3.1.1 The Origins of the TPB**

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) was developed by Fishbein and Ajzen in 1967 from previous research in psychology, persuasion models and attitude theories (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975a). The TRA suggested a relationship between attitude and behaviours (A-B relationship). The primary purpose of TRA is to understand an individual's voluntary behaviour by examining the underlying basic motivation to perform an action. The illustration in Figure 3.1 (TRA) below depicts attitude towards an action or behaviour and subjective norms as independent variables that lead to the behavioural intentions that eventually determine the individual's behaviour.

For example, advertisements seen on television trigger cognitive responses that cause people to buy certain products they see advertised on television. Both the TRA and the TPB are concerned about an individual's behaviour. Therefore, it is important to discuss behaviour as a separate construct.



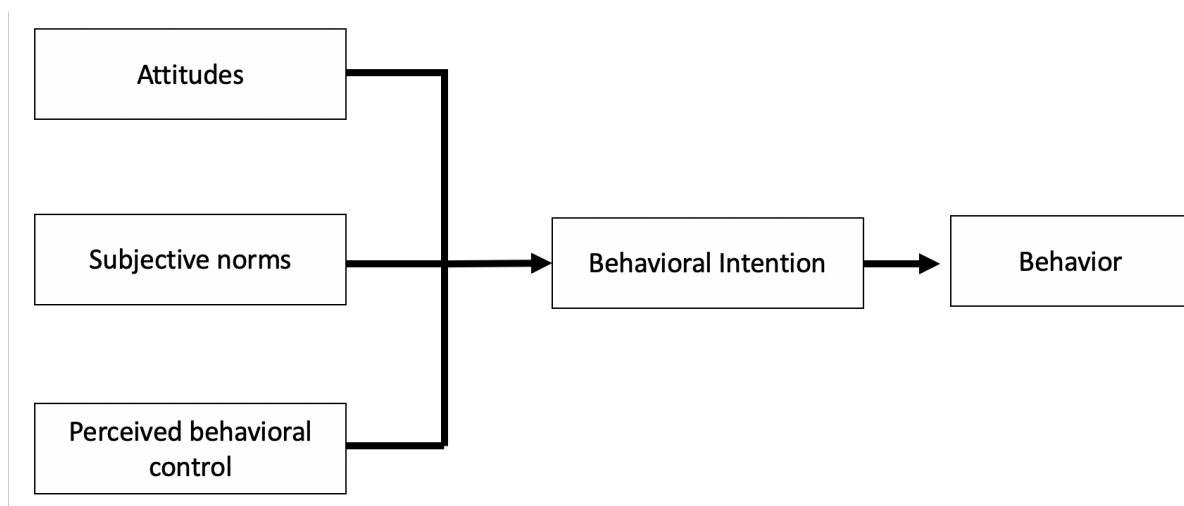
**Figure 3.1: Theory of Reasoned Action** (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975a)

Taylor and Todd (1995) support the view of this study that other factors influence intention beyond subjective norms and attitude, and this is discussed later in the study. Critics of the TRA argued that attitude theories have not proven to be good indicators of human behaviour. This led to the development or expansion of the TRA by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) to overcome discrepancies in the A-B relationship.

The TRA lacked the idea of behavioural control. This brought about the conceptualisation of the TPB (Ajzen, 1991) to include non-volitional control behaviours, resulting in the inclusion of perceived behavioural control. The inclusion of perceived behavioural control is known as the perceived ease or difficulty in performing the behaviour, which is assumed to reflect experience as well as obstacles. Ajzen (1991) stated that perceived behavioural control is a function of control beliefs in the same way as subjective norms are a function of normative beliefs. For desirable behaviours, greater perceived behavioural control leads to stronger intentions. The content of television advertisements communicated in the English language might trigger a person's behavioural intentions to purchase a product. This is usually influenced by the motion pictures, people demonstrating the use of a product, and other factors that

motivate one's intention. It is not the language or medium of instruction that influences a person's behavioural intentions. A person with higher perceived behavioural control is likely to try harder and to persevere longer than an individual who has lower perceived control. In addition, people may have the right perceptions of the amount of actual control they have over their behaviour. Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) acknowledged that the TRA receives attention in the field of consumer behaviour because it provides a simple tool to identify the possibilities for changing customers' behaviour when using an innovation.

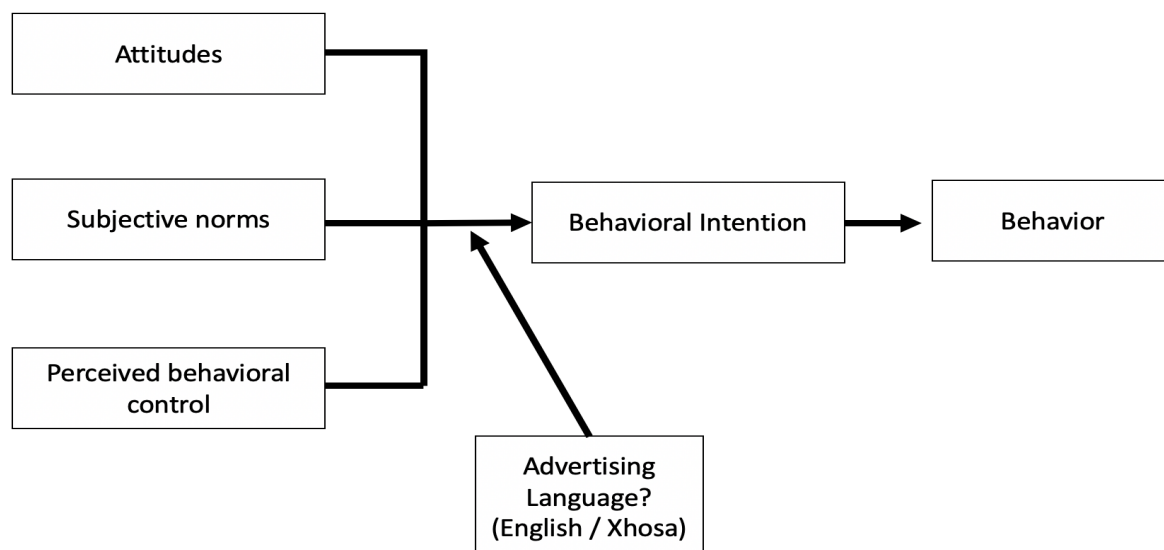
It has been observed that the TRA has limitations in explaining how an innovation is actually used and the role of a person's behavioural intent. Because attitudes can be reframed as norms and vice versa, there is a major risk of confusing attitudes and norms (Ajzen, 1985b). The assumption that, when someone forms an intention to act, they will be free to act without limitation is unfounded. The other challenge posed by the TRA is that, in practice, constraints such as limited ability, time, environmental or organisational limits and unconscious habits usually limit the freedom of individuals to act. The TRA focuses on human behaviours where people can exert self-control (Boston University School of Public Health, 2016). However, this is not always possible because some factors may inhibit the fulfilment of an intention. The TPB was formed to take such variables into consideration. With several critics, it became clear that longer theories were required to better describe the mechanisms that actually explain the use of an innovation and the role of individuals' behavioural intent. Figure 3.2 depicts the TPB as explained in conjunction with the TRA.



**Figure 3.2: Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1985a)**

### 3.3.1.2 Moderators and Antecedents of the TPB

The reason for using the TPB is that it is adaptable and supports the addition of new variables (Ajzen, 1985a). Two moderating factors were used to modify the TPB. The first moderating factor was *language*: consumers who are English-illiterate or for whom English is a second or third language. The second moderating variable was *advertising effectiveness metrics*, such as advertising noting, brand recall (branded cut-through), campaign recall or message understanding, main-message recall, campaign cut-through (percentage campaign recall X% brand recall), relevance and liking (Sharp, 2017). Figure 3.3 is an adapted TPB model that illustrates the English language as the moderating factor.



**Figure 3.3: Adapted TPB model with a Moderating Factor** (Author, 2022)

Though the TPB has been widely used in studies that explain behaviour, its drawback is that it has not been applied in this context. This presents various knowledge gaps that contribute to the research problem. The gap in the TPB (Figure. 3.3) is the impact of moderating factors such as L2-L3 English and advertising effectiveness (metrics) on intention and behaviour. What the literature does not tell about people in South Africa and the rest of Africa is how the fact that English is consumers' L2 (second language) or L3 (third language) or they do not even understand English (they are English-illiterate) impacts intention and behaviour and also what

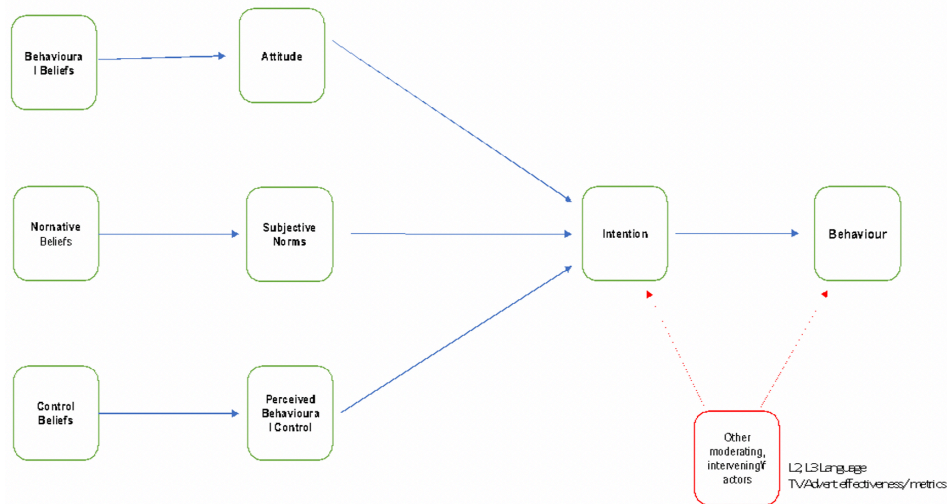
the impact is of key advertising effectiveness metrics: brand recall, message recall, main-message understanding, advertising noting (awareness), emotion, consideration on intention and behaviour.

While the TPB model is useful for explaining consumer behaviour, there is a scarcity of research in the context where the TPB has been modified through antecedents to ensure more accurate predictability. Cunningham (2019) stated that the constructs in the TPB tend to be confined to research findings; thus, additional antecedents may influence the independent variables in the model. The TPB was used in this study to determine how behaviour is fully met based on an individual's intention and other variables. The illustration in Figure 3.3 demonstrates how language L2/L3 is integrated as moderating variables. Ajzen (2002) stated that the inclusion of antecedents into the TPB is context-specific, with the intention of getting more accurate predictability of the behavioural intention being measured.

Conner and Armitage (1998) found that the TPB model has shortcomings. The theory is restrictive and only includes certain variables, excluding other factors that could affect (lead to change) intention and behaviour (Conner & Armitage, 1998).

Jain et al. (2017) asserted that the inclusion of antecedents in the original TPB allows the researcher to explain behaviour better. The intention is a function of attitude to the behaviour (ATT), subjective norms (SNs) and perceived behavioural control (PBC) (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen (1991: p.199) stated that "the Theory of Planned Behaviour is, in principle, open to the inclusion of additional predictors if it can be shown that they capture a significant proportion of the variance in intention or behaviour after the theories current variables have been taken into account".

Another criticism is that the model assumes the consumer to be highly rational and neglects the importance of emotion and 'affect referral' (Hale et al., 2002; Solomon, 2006). The critics argue that it is important to continually add multiple factors or moderating variables so as to enhance, alter and affirm TPB. Therefore, the researcher proposed to explore language, in particular, L2 and L3 English speakers in Western and Eastern Cape townships, plus the role and impact of effective advertising as measured using the variables suggested above. This study adds variables while sustaining the original structure and purpose of the TPB model (see Figure 3.4).



**Figure 3.4: TPB with ‘Other Moderating Factors’** (Author, 2020; Ajzen, 2002)

The TPB helped researchers gain a cognitive understanding of the consideration process in relation to the problem under investigation. Attitudes and subjective norms based on beliefs, information, and normative data influence intention, which influences behaviour fulfilment (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975b). There are factors that can influence intention, and it was of interest to this study to see how L2, L3, and television advertising influence the intention to act. With reference to its wider use to predict behaviour across industries, such as the medical field, TPB has been widely applied in the marketing discipline to predict consumer behaviour (Mbumbwa, 2018). The researcher took note of the deficiency of the TPB in that it does not fully comprehend the influence of language, an important aspect for the response patterns and behavioural intention created by English-language television advertisements (Jain et al., 2017).

The next section discusses the shortcomings of the TPB that were considered in this study, resulting in the use of other models as complements.

### 3.3.1.3 Limitations of the TPB Model

The conventional TPB has some limitations, which have been acknowledged in relation to the adapted model discussed earlier in this chapter. For this study, it was posited that L2, L3 and television advertisements’ effectiveness/metrics have an influence on intention and consumer behaviour. As shown in Figure 3.4, these factors maintain the original model with the addition of moderating intervening factors. Attitude is self-representative, social values are subjective

norms variables, country of origin effect and consumer ethnocentrism are perceived variable-control factors.

A cognitive approach ignores emotional reactions, habitual behaviour, and spontaneity (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Behaviour may result from an emotive, habitual response (Solomon et al., 2006). This limitation is significant in television advertising because effective and hedonic impulses have been thought to influence purchases (Bray, 2008). Such responses were expected in the current study in relation to COO and CE factors. The study uncovered key challenges that confront advertisers, marketers or consumers in the Western Cape townships where English is a second or third language or is not even understood. The conventional TPB model is scalable or expandable, allowing researchers to add new variables, resulting in a modified theoretical model to help unpack challenges that might not have been uncovered had the conventional TPB been used.

The BSAMs can be said to have both African and Western cultures. The TPB asserts that the consumer can attain the necessary resources and it considers normative influences, yet neither environmental nor economic factors (Boston University School of Public Health, 2016). The accuracy of the model's predictive ability is questionable, as the consumer's intention can continuously change with the availability of information (Sutton, 1998). Inhibiting factors are often not catered for in the model but, in the current study, factors such as CE and COO were expected to be inhibiting factors. To mitigate the deficiencies of the TPB, the current study also adopted the Advertising Effectiveness Model and the Stern Model of Communication.

### ***3.3.2 Advertising Effectiveness Theory***

*“Advertising troubles both sociologists and financial directors: the former because they think it works, the latter because they think it does not” (Bullmore, 1999:276)*

The first question one would ask is, Why advertise? Firms and individuals continue to advertise because they need to ‘refresh consumers' memory structures’, so as to stay top of mind, be noticed and be high on users’ buying consideration lists (Sharp, 2017). Marketers and advertisers also continue to advertise because they believe that advertising shapes and influences attitudes and beliefs, as supported by Vakratsas and Ambler (1999). Admittedly, advertising takes a huge chunk of a company's budget; yet firms continue to advertise. Lahiri and Kedia (2011) stated that many executives believe that advertising makes a difference, but

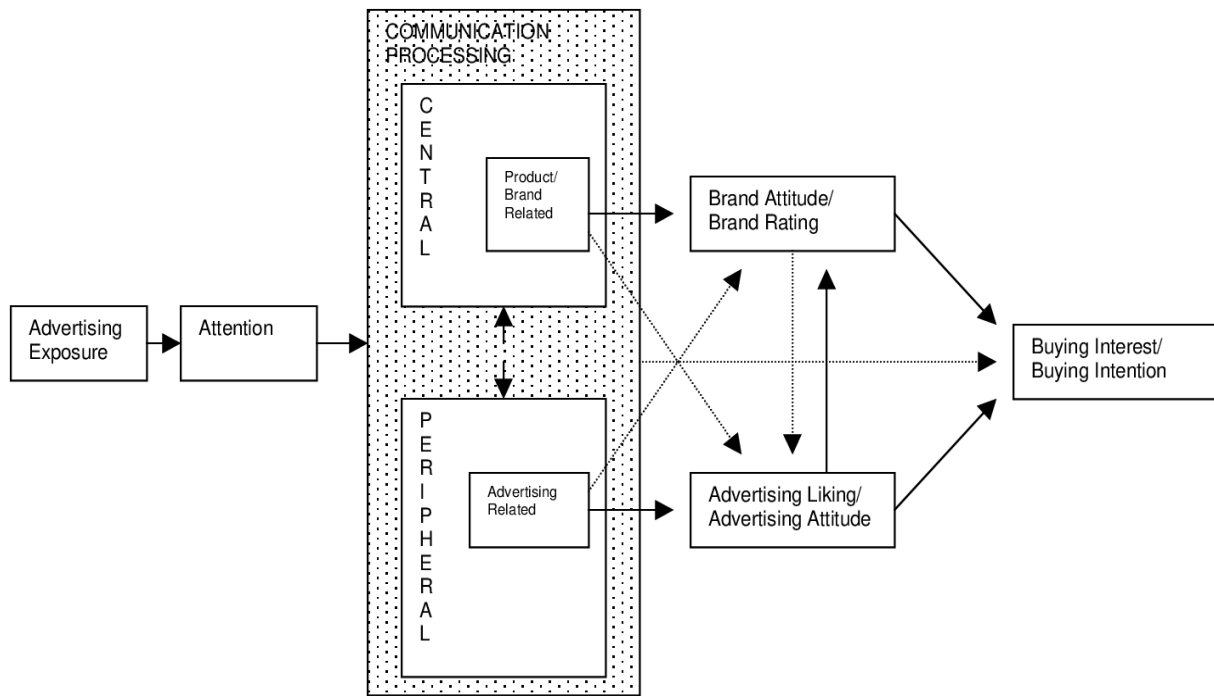
they are sceptical about how much difference it makes, primarily because they cannot find absolute measures of effectiveness. The search for measures of effectiveness has been going on for years. Measuring advertising effectiveness entails quantifying the effect of the complex communication process involving message, media, target market and language. In this study, it was relevant to look at the whole communication process, specifically in the target-market townships in the Western and Eastern Cape provinces, and at using the English language.

A detailed discussion of advertising effectiveness is presented in the next subsection.

### **3.3.2.1 Advertising Effectiveness Measures**

The American Marketing Association (2018) defined advertising effectiveness as an evaluation of the extent to which a specific advertisement or advertising campaign meets the objectives specified for the target market. Firms use advertising effectiveness to determine whether their advertisements are hitting the right mark with their audience and whether they are getting the best possible returns (Hall, 2002). Haley and Baldinger (1991) stated that the effectiveness of advertising is a complex issue that has long been debated. Researchers have not agreed on how to assess the full communication value of a commercial or advertisement and how to interpret information yielded by multiple measures.

A good technique that has helped many researchers and firms is Advertising Response Modelling (ARM), shown in Figure 3.5, which was conceptualised by Haley and Baldinger (1991).



**Figure 3.5: Advertising Response Modelling** (Haley & Baldinger, 1991)

Several measures are integrated into the ARM and these measures are in use today. The ARM gives advertising experts and marketers a better understanding of how advertising performs. For example, the current study used Domestos or toilet cleaners to obtain insights and a fuller understanding of the advertising process. Evaluating advertising effectiveness through the lens of the ARM is a widely accepted norm in the contemporary business environment because multiple measures are involved (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, 1986). Researchers evaluate advertising performance, including memory-based intrusiveness levels of brand recall, brand rating, advertising liking, buying interest or intention, as well as diagnostics related to the product/service and advertising execution (Haley & Baldinger, 1991). There is no agreement among researchers about which measures are more appropriate under certain conditions or how they relate to one another. However, advertising effectiveness measures have been widely applied in quantitative research. The measures used in the current study are brand recall, liking, persuasion, involvement and impact, as discussed below.

### 3.3.2.2 Brand Awareness (Recall)

Brand awareness (recall) is defined as unaided recall, where the consumers have the ability to generate a brand from memory when prompted by a product category (Armstrong, 2016).

Advertisers use brand recall to get customers to stick to a brand for the long term; thus, the firm can target its audience and remember their names when addressing a particular problem. Because they use the Domestos toilet cleaner, most households in Western Cape townships are familiar with the brand and can easily identify it. When television videos and audios were shared with the focus groups (participants), there were instant recollections of the toilet cleaner (brand). (Bridson et al. (2013) stated that brand recalls are qualitative measures of the consumer's ability to remember the name of a brand. The following research question was proposed:

*RQ1: To what extent does the use of an English or a Xhosa advertisement impact brand awareness?*

### **3.3.2.3 Advertisement Liking (Enjoyment)**

Jain et al. (2017) stated that advertisement liking (enjoyment) is a subconscious and spontaneous emotional reaction to the brand. Since customers display reactions when they are exposed to a brand they are familiar with, advertisement liking (enjoyment) is an important step to preference, which creates an opportunity for the brand to be noticed and considered. When consumers are exposed to Domestos television advertisements, it is easier to identify the brand by the colour and shape of the Domestos toilet cleaner. Haley and Baldinger (1991) stated that brand familiarity is a key component that enhances the perceptual identification of a brand. Customers would ordinarily identify a brand that they are familiar with. Purchase behaviour is motivated as soon as a customer generates a positive feeling towards the brand they are familiar with. The following research question was proposed:

*RQ2: To what extent is advertisement liking (enjoyment) impacted by using an English or a Xhosa television advertisement?*

### **3.3.2.4 Persuasion (Buying Interest)**

A consumer's interest in purchasing a product or service is evoked by the memory, familiarity with and recognition of the product. Advertisers use the AIDA approach to attract *Attention*, generate *Interest* and stimulate *Desire* in consumers before a purchase *Action* is concluded. With the support of empirical evidence, research has shown that attitude has an influence on behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991; Bruner II & Kumar, 2005). Advertising exposure would have an impact on research participants' perceptions of the toilet cleaner. The beliefs an

individual holds regarding a particular behaviour determine how the behaviour is evaluated, which influences and establishes the strength of the behaviour (Manning, 2009). The following research question was proposed:

*RQ<sub>3</sub>: To what extent is Persuasion (Buying Interest) impacted by using English or Xhosa in a television advertisement?*

#### ***i Involvement***

Involvement measures the extent to which the viewer engages with the advertising, which is crucial to advertising success. The consumer must devote some System 1 and System 2 mental effort to the advertisement for the advertisement to be able to affect the brand representation and association. People tend to engage with content that is relevant to them: entertaining, educational, or informative. The following research question was proposed:

*RQ<sub>4</sub>: To what extent is Involvement impacted by using English or Xhosa in a television advertisement?*

#### ***ii Buying/Sales Impact (Short-Term and Long-Term Sales Impact)***

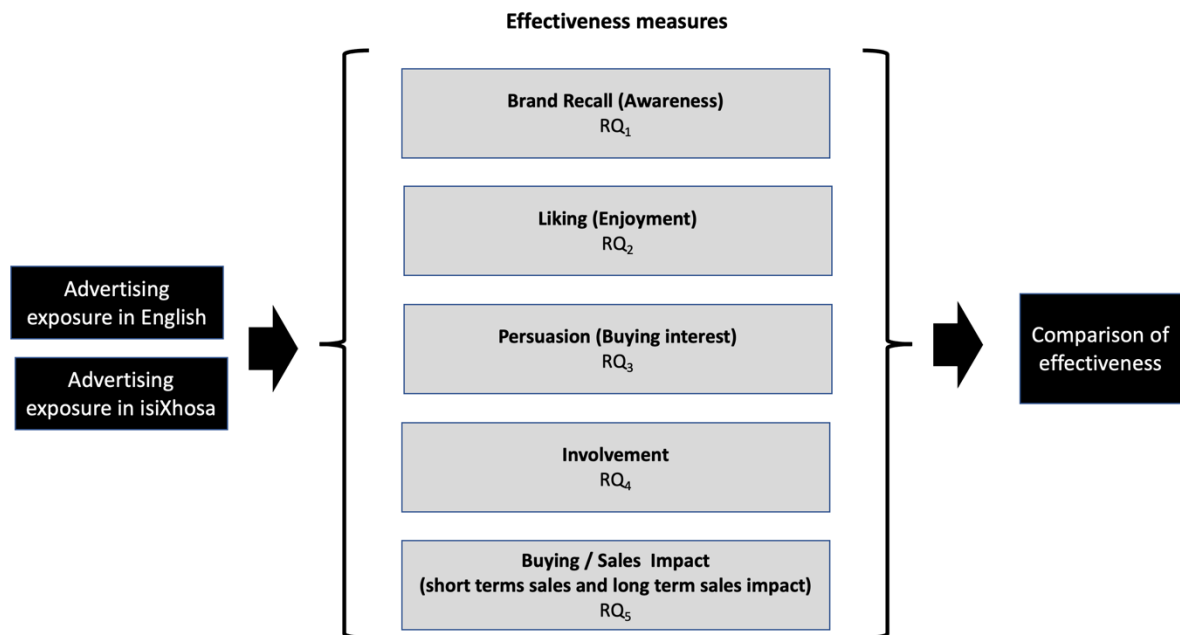
Dobre et al. (2016) defined the idea of communication impact as the process of disseminating a message that inspires the target audience into real behavioural or perceptual change. Therefore, advertisers have to get the right messages across using the right media for the right audience for the message. With reference to the Stern Model of Communication, the idea of communication entails the transfer of information from the source through the channels to the consumers and then obtaining feedback, as shown in Figure 3.5. Helsen and Kotabe (2015) said that communication should be a two-way exchange of information so that the meaning is conveyed and understood. However, with television advertising, communication is one-way because the advertiser does not have a feedback mechanism to ascertain whether the advertisement is effective or not. The only way to assess the effectiveness is through the sales volume of the brand. The following research question was proposed:

*RQ<sub>5</sub>: To what extent are sales (STSL and LTE) impacted using an English or a Xhosa television advertisement?*

#### **3.3.2.5 Summary of Measures**

With reference to the discussion and application of ARM presented earlier in this section, it is

evident that marketers do not rely on a single measure but combine different measures to gain a better understanding of advertising effectiveness. Figure 3.6 depicts the Advertising Effectiveness Theory used in this study. Although there are some similarities, this is not a version of the ARM model.



**Figure 3.6: Effectiveness Measurement Constructs to Compare the Effectiveness of English or Xhosa Advertising Exposure (Source: Author)**

The challenge is that advertisers do not know which measure(s) are most effective; therefore, time and monetary resources have to be spent trying to ascertain the best combinations of measures that yield the most desired results (Haley & Baldinger, 1991).

### 3.3.2.6 Effectiveness and Language

Ahn et al. (2017) stated that many markets are experiencing exponential growth of two or more languages in an advertisement. This is attributable to the fact that more than half of the world’s population is bilingual, and the number is expected to grow (Grosjean, 2010). This is evidenced by the 11 official languages spoken in South Africa.

Many Black South African people are bi/multilingual because they live in communities with more than one prevalent language. In addition, many South African schools teach two or more languages. Zhang (2010) stated that immigration, tourism and study abroad are exposing consumers to different cultures through the media, resulting in the emergence of bicultural consumers. Khan (2014) averred that advertisers are increasingly using foreign languages in advertising. Code-switching (use of a mixed-language approach) is now a preferred approach to targeting consumers with a knowledge of two languages. Grosjean (2015) defined code-switching as the process of inserting the linguistic elements of one language into another language. The Western and Eastern Cape provinces are known to be Afrikaans- and Xhosa-speaking regions; however, advertisers have a belief that the use of the English language in advertising will be easily integrated into the communities.

Television advertising can become effective if the language includes descriptions that create tangible images that can be easily visualised by the reader. The use of vague and obscure language does not evoke specific visual images, so consumers might find it difficult to engage with the advertisement (Zhang, 2010). The effectiveness of a language also indicates whether the language is concise. Advertisers should express the desired message in as few words as possible; that is, the messages should be straight to the point.

In the current study, the researcher used audio and television advertisements of products that consumers were familiar with. In addition, the language used was familiar to the consumers. Familiar language should be the one readers easily recognise and understand because they use it regularly. Using a Xhosa television advertisement as part of the research process could have triggered emotions among consumers because they are familiar with the language or it is a language spoken daily in their communities.

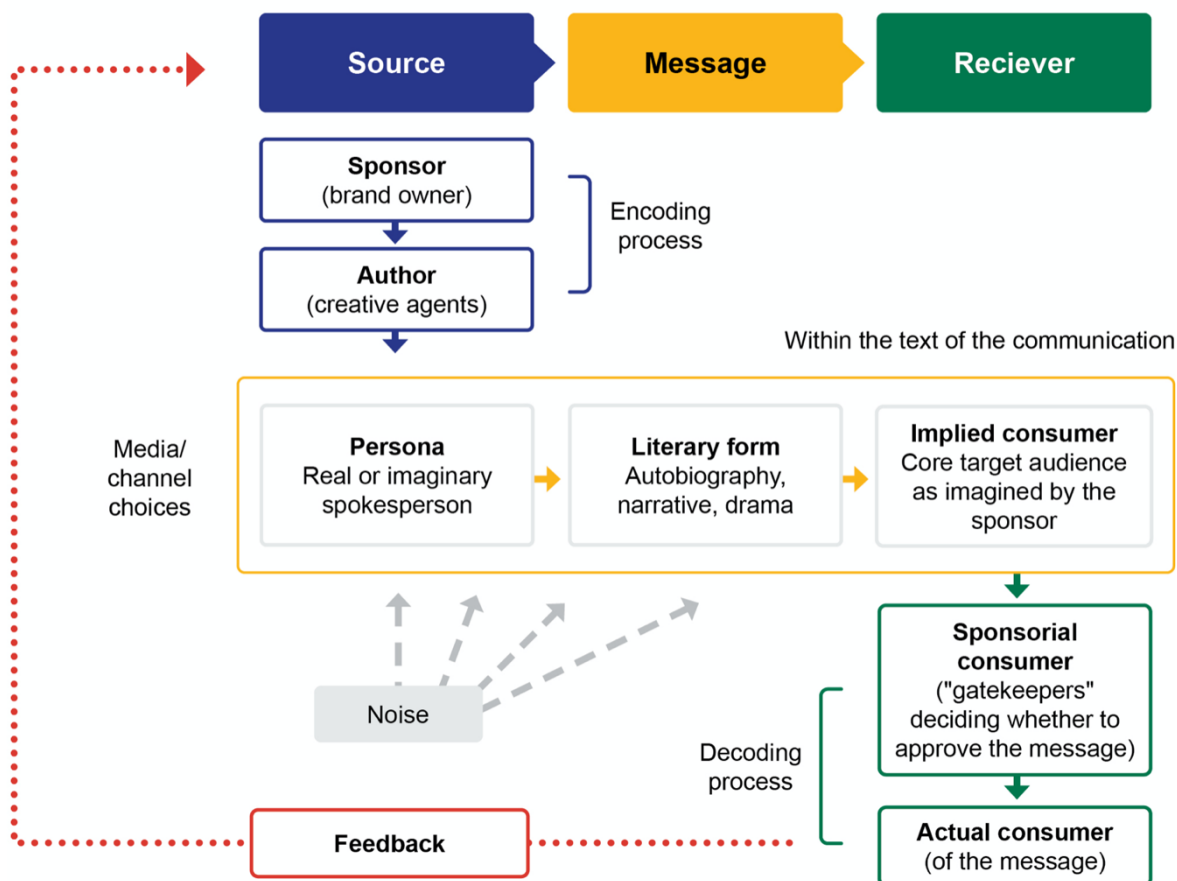
The discussions relating to the Advertising Effectiveness Theory have shown that consumers' intentions to act to purchase a service or product are driven by their understanding of the television advertisement, the language used and how familiar they are with the brand. Advertisers are using various measures through the lens of the ARM to ascertain the effectiveness of advertisements. The ARM is a technique relevant to the current study because it augments behaviour intention towards a product/service offering. This model has been widely used in quantitative research, where each measure is defined in a numerical or mathematical format.

### 3.3.3 *The Stern Model of Communication*

The Stern Model of Communication was conceptualised in 1994 as a result of the weaknesses of the traditional communication model (Lasswell, 1948), which described the message, source and recipient engaged in speech. The traditional model failed to describe the interactive network of advertisers, promotional text and consumers as co-creators of communication (see Figure 3.6). Traditional communication involved the source message and receivers. The revised model integrates traditional communication processes but with additional variables: sponsor of the advertisement, author of the messages, persona, implied consumers, sponsorial consumers and actual consumers. Stern (1994) asserted that the Stern Model of Communication allows the parties to a communication process to better capture interactivity, based on a recategorisation of advertising.

The Stern Model of Communication is premised on the fact that advertising belongs to the category of text broadly defined as *writing* (Johnson and Johnson, 1990). Television advertisers use graphical marks on media artefacts, scripted television programmes, flyers and posters, to name but a few. The Stern Model of Communication illustrates the use of texts and graphical marks on media artefacts that are not visible in the TPB model; hence, it was imperative to include the Stern Model of Communication in the current study. Consumers' intentions to act or purchase products advertised on television are triggered by the graphical marks or messages they see on television, when advertising is viewed as impersonal mass communication in contrast to word-of-mouth conversations (Stern, 1994). Advertising inscribes the source and the recipient in the bounded world of written communication, where the entities are separated by physical, temporal, and geographical space.

The Stern Model of Communication relates to the source of advertising authorship in that it divides authorial responsibilities between the sponsoring institution and the actual author. The sponsor is the source of the advertisement by bearing financial and legal responsibility for the message. Consumers are expected to respond to the advertisements by engaging in consumption based on their message choices (Stern, 1994). The relationship between the Stern Model of Communication and Advertising Effectiveness Modelling lies in that both theories discuss the promotion aspect of marketing. However, consumers require inspiration and motivation to act towards a purchase intention. The three theories (TPB, ARM, and SMC) are premised on creating an intention to act (behavioural intention) to purchase a product.



**Figure 3.7: Stern Model of Communication** (Source: Stern, 1994; adapted by Lappeman et al., 2021)

### Testing the Stern Model of Communication

The South African language landscape was a topical issue for some time before and after the country attained democracy in 1994 (Phakeng, 2020). The use of the English language in schools has been viewed as eroding indigenous/native languages. The language debates have been complicated by the dictates of the global village, where the English language is widely used in business, commerce, medicine, media and education. Therefore, it might be difficult for expert educators or advertisers to convert from English to a native language. For example, the names of subjects like Economics, Mathematics and Physics do not have immediate equivalents in native languages. With reference to the Stern Model of Communication, the translation process would have to be conceptualised by the sponsor or originator of the message right through the communication channel to the consumers and back to the sender. The researcher believes that certain communications can be translated from the English language to a native

language to accommodate non-English-speaking communities.

The objective of using the Stern Model of Communication in this study was to demonstrate the communication process and its relevance in advertising. However, the language issues in South Africa remain complex, and the Stern Model of Communication might not be a panacea for addressing the communication challenges. Television advertising is a one-way communication approach. When consumers are exposed to television advertisements, they cannot interact with the advertiser; their only reactions are through buying or not buying the advertised product. The Stern Model of Communication advocates a feedback loop from the sender to consumers and back to the sender. To create a perspective on the Stern Model of Communication that accounts for a country like South Africa, where the language issue exists, the model was examined for weaknesses and inadequacies. Based on the Stern Model of Communication, the following research questions were devised to further explore the primary research question:

*RQ<sub>6</sub>: How do non-English (L2, L3 or illiterate) speakers decode English television advertising messages?*

*RQ<sub>7</sub>: Why do advertising professionals believe that such a high proportion of television advertising to non-English L1 speakers is done in English?*

*RQ<sub>8</sub>: What interventions are suggested to use native languages for television advertising for non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships?*

### **3.3.4 Gaps in Theoretical Frameworks**

In the discussion of the benefits and drawbacks of the various theories guiding this study, a number of weaknesses were identified. The TRA was developed to understand an individual's voluntary behaviour through the lens of motivation to perform an action, that is, attitude to an action or behaviour. However, the TRA did not explain the actual use of an innovation. In addition, the orientation of the TRA failed to predict the behaviour of an individual and lacked perceived behavioural control. This led to the development of the TPB. The core component of the TPB is the behavioural intention influenced by attitude and subjective norms (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975b). The TPB was not applied to the current study; that is, no past studies were modified, and no antecedents and moderating factors were added to the original TPB model.

The TPB relies on cognitive approaches while neglecting emotional reactions (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Solomon et al. (2006) stated that behaviour may result from effective response, which, in this instance, is significant in television advertising because hedonic impulses are believed to influence purchases. In addition, the TPB does not comprehend the influence of language, which is important for response patterns and behavioural intention (Jain et al., 2017).

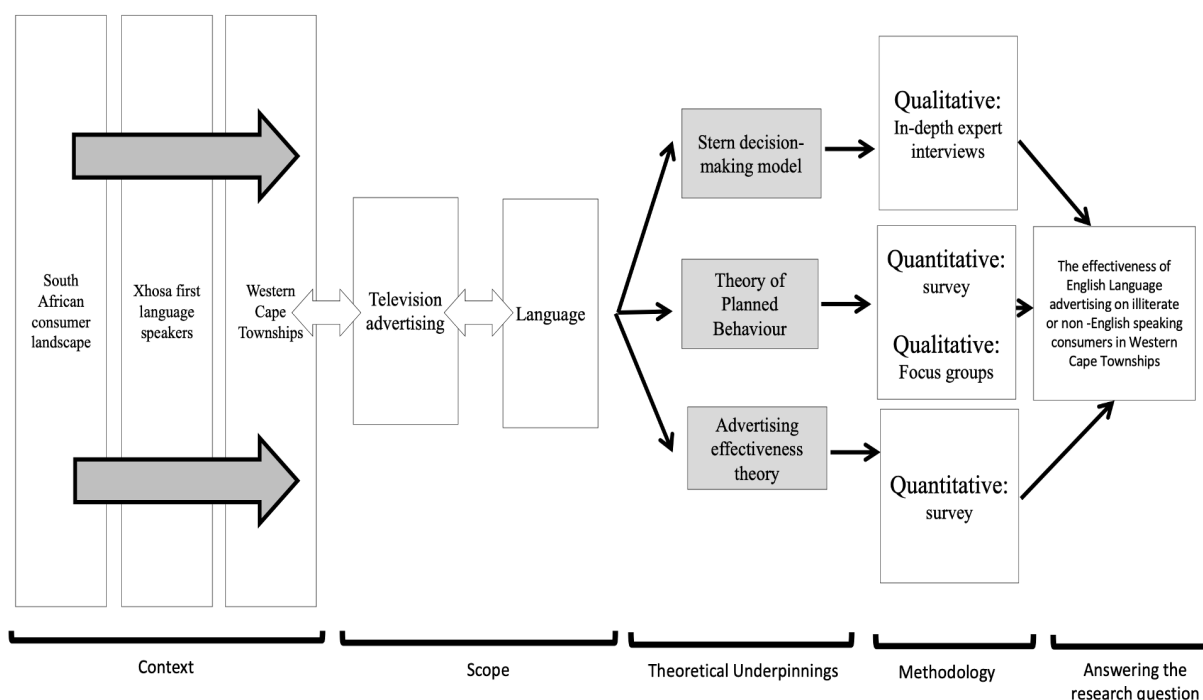
The Advertising Effectiveness Theory has been widely used to measure advertising effectiveness, but past studies have not been able to use the theory to answer the 'why advertise' type of question. In addition, the theory has not been used to measure English-language television advertising in communities that are not English-speaking. As expounded by Zhang (2010), the use of vague and obscure language creates challenges for consumers to engage with the advertisement. The Stern Model of Communication was developed to address the interactive network of advertisers, promotional text and consumers as co-creators of communication. However, the model does not cover inspiration and motivation for consumers to purchase. The other drawback of the model is its inability to translate from the English language to a native language. The translation process would have to be conceptualised by the sponsor or originator of the message right through the communication channel to the consumers and back to the sender. A summary of the gaps in the literature is given in Table 3.1 below.

**Table 3.1: Gaps in Theoretical Frameworks**

<b>Theory</b>	<b>Orientation/actual use</b>	<b>Accuracy of predictability</b>	<b>Advertising effectiveness</b>	<b>Interactive network of advertisers</b>	<b>Scalability/adaptability</b>	<b>Restrictive/excludes other factors</b>	<b>Neglecting emotional reactions</b>
Theory of Reasoned Action	X				X		X
Theory of Planned Behaviour		X	X			X	X
Advertising Effectiveness Theory			X		X		
Stern Model of Communication			X	X		X	

### ***3.3.5 Integrative Theoretical Framework***

To address the gaps identified in the literature and theoretical frameworks, the study developed an integrative theoretical framework, synthesising three models as illustrated in Figure 3.8. When integrated, these theoretical frameworks helped the researcher to understand and explain the effects of English-language television advertising on communities that are non-English-speaking or who use English as a second or third language. The integrative theoretical framework is a major contribution of the current study. The researcher provides a perspective of the South African consumer landscape, specifically focusing on Western and Eastern Cape townships that speak predominantly Xhosa. The discussion focuses on television advertising using the English language and how this impacts viewers and listeners. Thereafter, the discussion of the three models and how they complement each other is presented.



**Figure 3.8: Synthesis of Theoretical Frameworks** (Author, 2020)

Moving from the extreme left-hand side of Figure 3.8 is the South African consumer landscape, in this instance, Western and Eastern Cape townships. These consumers are mainly Xhosa- and Afrikaans-speaking, and English is a second or third language. When exposed to English-language television advertising, consumers are either attracted to or uninterested in the advertisements, depending on the level of their understanding of the message communicated. When combined, the Stern Model of Communication, TPB and advertising effectiveness theories give advertisers and originators of television advertisements an opportunity to reflect on whether or not their advertisements will receive the desired attention.

### 3.4 Conceptual Model and Hypotheses Development

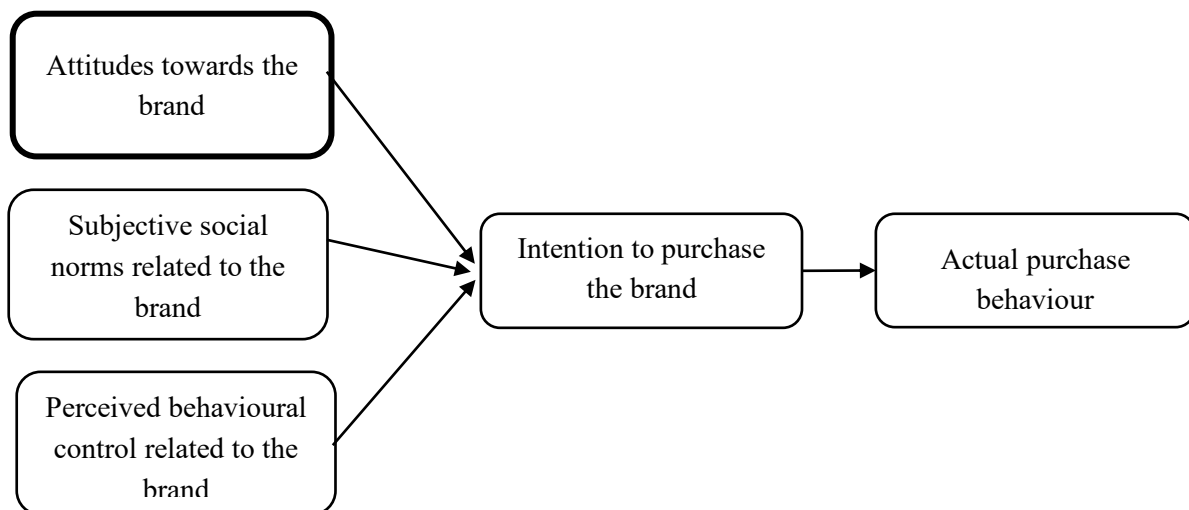
The goal of this section is to study the proposed relationships in the conceptual model in depth. Analysis was done of the information other researchers have found on the relationship and its context (i.e., what previous work has been done on the relationship between the variables) and on what the proposed relationship implies for this study.

### ***3.4.1 Conceptual Model***

A conceptual model describes the relationship between variables investigated in a study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2011). In addition, a conceptual model describes the relationship between variables examined in the study (Maziriri, Mapuranga & Madinga, 2019). Bakti et al. (2014) concurred that a conceptual model describes the cause–effect relationship (causal orientation) between variables to explain a problem. Maziriri, Mapuranga and Madinga (2019) agreed with Sekaran and Bougie (2016) that a schematic diagram of the conceptual model helps the reader to visualise the theorised relationships between the variables in the model, and thus to obtain a quick idea about how the researcher(s) thinks the management problem can be solved.

In this study, the conceptual model suggests that attitudes, subjective norms and perceived credibility are the independent or predictor variables. The term *predictor* refers to a variable that can predict another variable, that is, the magnitude of the predictor (independent variable) can predict the magnitude of another variable (dependent variable), as outlined by Maziriri, Mapuranga and Madinga (2019) and Flannelly et al (2014). Kleinbaum et al (2013) agreed that an independent or predictor variable refers to a variable that determines the values of dependent variables. Figure 3.9 presents the conceptual model for the study, which contains five predictor variables.

Moreover, the dependent or outcome variables for the current study model are intention and actual behaviour, as shown in Figure 3.9. A dependent or outcome variable is the variable under investigation and is depicted by the letter  $\gamma$ , as described by Maziriri, Mapuranga and Madinga (2019). An outcome variable is continuously the predicted or the estimated variable, as outlined by Maziriri, Mapuranga and Madinga (2019). The conceptual model in Figure 3.9 is grounded in theories such as the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behaviour. Based on these theories, Figure 3.9 illustrates the conceptual framework reflecting the distinct paths and connections between the constructs under investigation.



**Figure 3.9: Conceptual Model**

The subsequent sections explain the formulation of the hypotheses for the present research.

### ***3.4.2 Hypothesis Development***

A hypothesis is an imaginative preconception of a factual relationship, according to Smith et al. (2016). Shukla (2018) explained it as an assumption that is still not proved but shows the probable solution of the problem or predicts the relationship between two or more variables. Matthews and Kostelis (2011) expanded on how a researcher can develop a hypothesis about what will happen, based on past research. A research hypothesis is, therefore, the statement created by researchers when they speculate upon the outcome of research or an experiment (Mourougan & Sethuraman, 2017). Hypothesis testing remains an important activity of evidence-based research. The hypothesised relationships between the research variables in the current study are discussed hereafter.

#### **3.4.2.1 Attitude Towards Behaviour**

Attitudes are complex and multidimensional (Bagozzi & Bunkrant, 1979). Attitude is concerned with the consumer's favourable or unfavourable perception of carrying out the behaviour and the consequences of doing so, based on the evaluation (Boston University School of Public Health, 2016). Research has found empirical evidence that attitude has an impact on behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991; Bruner II & Kumar, 2005). This researcher believed it

would be fascinating to understand how Western Cape township consumers' attitudes have been influenced by English-language television advertising.

Consumers purchase goods for hedonic and utilitarian reasons (Batra & Ahtola, 1991). The beliefs an individual holds regarding a particular behaviour determine how the behaviour is evaluated, which influences and establishes the strength of the behaviour (Manning, 2009). According to Mbumbwa (2018), attitudes can be changed, particularly in an era when information is readily available through media such as the internet or television. Television advertising contains voluminous quantities of information, which can be difficult to follow or understand because the time slots are short and, if a consumer misses one piece of information, their attitude might be affected. The researcher was determined to understand how the target population formed their attitudes to English-language television advertising, and whether the original TPB model was supported in the context of this study. The following hypothesis was formulated:

*H<sub>1</sub>: Consumers' attitudes to the brand have a positive and significant impact on intention to purchase Domestos.*

#### **3.4.2.2 Subjective Norms**

Because humans are social creatures, normative pressures influence our decisions on things like how we vote, what we buy, and even what we watch on television, among other things (Manning, 2009). Much research has shown that people conform to the judgements of other people (Cialdini et al., 1990). This means that, in populated societies such as the ones under investigation in this study, it is easier for neighbours to influence their peers about what to watch. Good examples are soaps (Isidingo: The Need; Generations: The Legacy; *Imbewu*: The Seed), and advertisements for Chicken Licken, Nandos or Kentucky Fried Chicken.

Reference to one's society is relevant in Africa when making purchase decisions. Recently, South Africa held presidential and parliamentary elections that ushered in a new political leadership by the ruling African National Congress (ANC). Through political campaigns, people voted for political parties and leaders whom they believed would deliver on their expectations. Subjective norms are taken into account in the TRA (Figure 3.1) because they relate to beliefs about whether most people would approve or disapprove of a behaviour (such as watching television programmes or advertisements; Boston University School of Public Health, 2016). Subjective norms incorporate reference groups, as well as whether the

individual's beliefs about whether what important people think about engaging in the behaviour is being considered (Spencer-Oatey, 2012).

These social standards are the beliefs that an individual perceives people close to him or her to have about behaviour, as well as motivation to conform to the expected norms of these relevant individuals (Manning, 2009). Subjective norms are represented by social values (opinion leadership and status). Key subjective norms are:

- inscriptive norms – social pressures to engage in behaviour based on one's perceptions of what others want.
- descriptive norms – the social pressures that one feels as a result of observing or inferring the behaviour of others (Manning, 2009).

The following hypothesis was formulated:

*Consumers' attitudes to the brand have a positive and significant impact on intention to purchase Domestos.*

### **3.4.2.3 Behavioural Intention**

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) stated that a person's intention to perform a behaviour is the main predictor of whether or not they actually perform that behaviour. Social norms surrounding the action contribute to whether the person will actually perform the behaviour. The TRA states that the intention to perform a certain behaviour precedes the actual behaviour, resulting in the term *behavioural intention*. Behavioural intention comes as the result of a belief that performing the behaviour will lead to a specific outcome. It is determined by attitudes to behaviours and subjective norms. Stronger intentions lead to increased effort to perform the behaviour, which also increases the likelihood that the behaviour will be performed (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

The TRA suggests that intention is the key determining factor or predicting variable of perceived behaviour control (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975a). Intention is also a function of attitude and subjective norms (Ajzen, 2002). Attitude and subjective norms are, in turn, influenced by beliefs (behavioural, normative and control; Ajzen, 1991; 2002). According to Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990), Terry et al. (1999) and Sharp (2017, p. 117), intention metrics are a measure of consumer plans and the likelihood of purchasing a product, and can also be an appropriate measure of the effectiveness of persuasive communication. The following hypothesis was proposed:

*H<sub>3</sub>: Intention to purchase has a positive and significant impact on attitudes towards the brand.*

The TPB is, therefore, relevant in this study because the behaviour of an individual can be predicted from the use of the TPB model using quantitative and qualitative approaches. It must be noted that this happens for specific occurrences and not habitual behaviours. The model was suitable for this study because the basis of the study was the potential adoption and use of L2 and L3 in television advertisements as specific occurrences that do not happen habitually. This would not have been possible if the TRA had been used in the study.

The TPB's main component is behavioural intention, which is influenced by attitude and subjective norms. Intentions guide and determine an individual's behaviour (Ajzen, 1985b; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975a). As shown in Figure 3.2, behavioural intentions are a function of the attitude to the behaviour and of subjective norms in regard to the behaviour and the ease with which one can perform the behaviour (perceived behavioural control). The TPB accounts for situations where an individual does not have control over the situation (Ajzen, 1985a). For example, the use of the English language as a medium of communication with consumers or viewers who do not understand it well or at all in television advertisements is an infringement of the consumers' rights, but the consumers have no control over the situation.

The motivation for including L2/L3 elements in the TPB is that consumers from the designated Western and Eastern Cape townships exhibit behaviour deemed acceptable by those societies (Yun & Park, 2010). In addition, language is a key component of culture in all societies globally; including the English language would help the societies infer social acceptance, a key consideration for the research sites for the study (Dobre et al., 2016). The researcher measured the impact of using English on consumers' behaviour. It was suggested that it be used as a moderator in the TPB to improve its predictability (Lee et al., 2006). Thus, it would allow the researcher to observe the effect of the English language on relationships and would provide a deeper understanding of how it affects consumers' behaviour. This understanding was explored during expert interviews and focus-group meetings because real-world, contextual settings would emerge during those discussions. Therefore, the expanded TPB model used qualitative data collection techniques to engage participants and gain a better understanding of events as they occurred in a natural setting.

From a quantitative perspective, the TPB model has been used to analyse the relationships between behaviour and intention. Sheeran (2002) identified that several meta-analyses on the relationship between intention and behaviour scored an overall  $R^2=0.28$ , which shows that intention accounted for 28% of the decision to perform an action. It cannot be denied that there is a gap between intention and behaviour, but the relationship is still present and noteworthy. For a person to perform an action or behave in a particular way, there must be an initial instruction to self for such an action (Taylor & Todd, 1995).

Though it is argued that the TRA focuses on the relationship between attitude and behaviours, many behaviours cannot simply be performed at will; they require skills, opportunities, resources or cooperation for their successful execution (Ajzen, 1991). This assertion points to another important construct, behavioural control, which is discussed in the next subsection.

#### **3.4.2.4 Behavioural Control**

This concept refers to an individual's perception of how easy or difficult it is to perform the behaviour under consideration (Boston University School of Public Health, 2016). Perceived power to execute a difficult behaviour influences perceived behavioural control. Spencer-Oatey (2012) stated that the perceived presence of variables that have the ability to facilitate or impede the performance of the behaviour in question is referred to as perceived power. The perceived power contributes to perceived behavioural control (PBC) through the control an individual has over these variables (Boston University School of Public Health, 2016). PBC is a function of perceived factors that will influence the ability to fulfil a behaviour and the perception as to whether or not these factors will be present (Manning, 2009). The following hypothesis was formulated:

*H<sub>4</sub>: Perceived behavioural control related to the brand has a positive and significant impact on consumers' intention to purchase Domestos.*

### **3.5 Chapter Summary**

This chapter discussed various theoretical works that were pertinent to this study. The chapter introduced the concept of theoretical frameworks and their roles in research studies. It was revealed that theoretical frameworks played crucial roles in shaping the structure and approach to the current research project while helping the researcher to understand the problem under investigation. Theoretical frameworks situate the study in specific scholarly discourse, thus

linking the study to a broader body of literature. It was stated that theoretical frameworks help to demonstrate an understanding of the theories and concepts that are relevant to the research topic under investigation and that relate to the broader areas of knowledge being considered.

After reviewing a number of theoretical works, the researcher winnowed out the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behaviour and implemented a modified Theory of Planned Behaviour. The Theory of Planned Behaviour was adopted and applied to this study because of the shortcomings of the Theory of Reasoned Action, such as its failure to provide good indicators of human behaviour. The modified theory had two moderating factors: advertising metrics, and the language of consumers who are English illiterate or who use English as a second or third language. The constructs of the Theory of Planned Behaviour were discussed, showing their relevance and applicability to the current study. After identifying gaps in both literature reviewed and theories, the researcher developed an integrative theoretical framework that combines the TPB, AET and SMC, which is a major contribution of the study. When used in combination, it is hoped that originators of advertisements are likely to create an effective television advertisement that captivates non-English-speaking consumers. The research design of the study is described in Chapter 4.

# CHAPTER 4

## RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

*“We can define concepts as logical, mental construction of one or more relationships. It is purely mental, logical and can be described; it has been reasoned through sufficiently and presented with clarity. As such, a concept is inherently abstract (takes some things as given or assumed)” (Ethridge, 2017).*

### 4.1 Introduction

Marketing research is defined as the systematic process of gathering, recording and analysing information in order to examine an issue that requires a solution (Malhotra, 2010, p. 39). As such, the purpose of this study was to propose and empirically test a model of values that influence English-language television advertising to non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships. The delineation of the conceptual model of this study and the theoretical frameworks that guided this study, including Advertising Effectiveness Theory and the Theory of Planned Behaviour, were established in Chapters 1 and 2, in agreement with the primary objective. The focus of Chapter 3 was on the literature pertaining to the discussion of the language in a marketing communication, concentrating on the English language in television advertising to non-English-speaking consumers in South Africa.

The purpose of Chapter 4 is to delineate the research design and methodology that were used to gather, analyse and interpret data for the study. A research design outlines the process or action plan that is used for the data collection and data analysis procedures and relates to the decisions made regarding the chosen techniques and procedures (Kuhn, 1970; Saunders et al., 2019, p. 108). Research studies with a carefully executed research design are thus able to successfully achieve the desired outcomes of arriving at the research findings (Creswell, 2012; Saunders et al., 2019). The rationale for selecting the research design is hence presented in this chapter, followed by a discussion of the research approach and its suitability for this study. In view of this, the philosophical arguments for mono-method approaches are examined to allow the researcher to present the research outline from the perspectives of epistemology, ontology and the methodological positions of the study. Other key concepts discussed in this research methodology chapter pertain to the target population, sampling strategies, the sampling frame,

data collection, data analysis and point of integration. The following section describes the research philosophy that framed the methodology of this research study. Figure 4.1 depicts the structure of the discussions in this chapter.

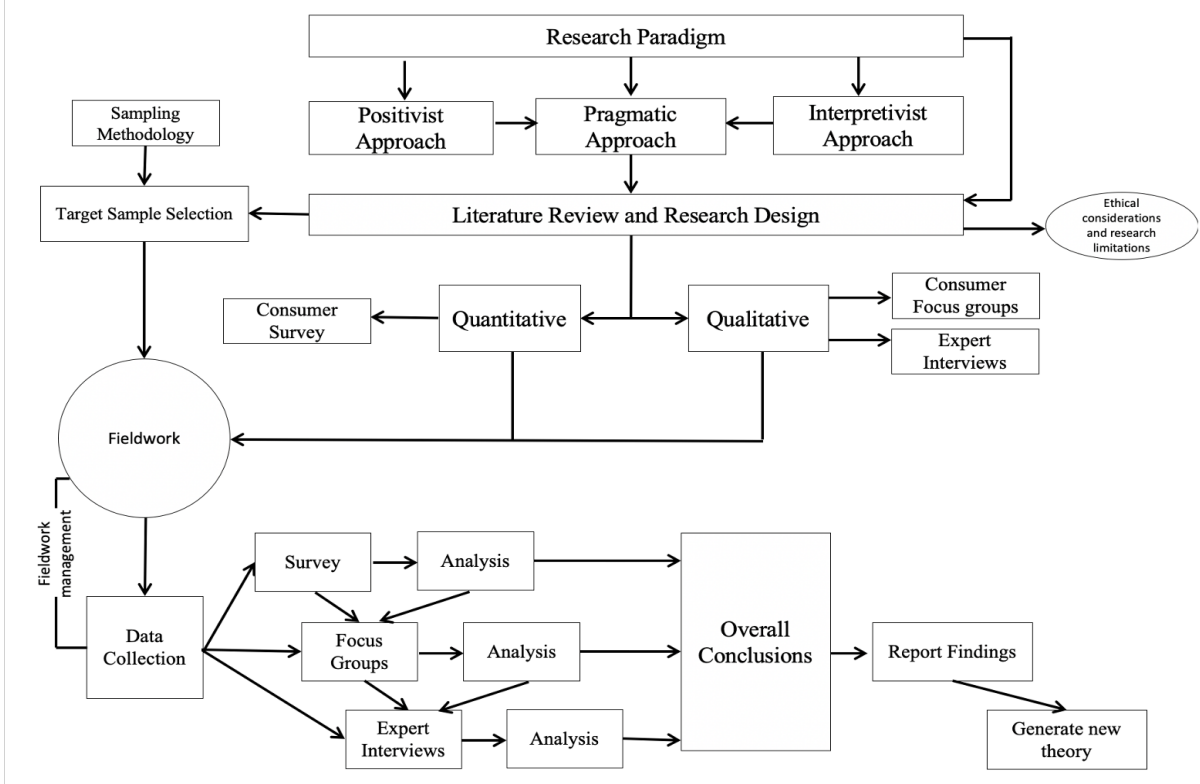


Figure 4.1: Research Roadmap (Author, 2020)

### 4.2 Research Philosophy

Rationalising philosophical issues, such as the relationships between data and theoretical concepts, allows researchers to avert any negative effect on the quality of a research study (Kuhn, 1970, p. 28). Accordingly, a research paradigm was used as the first point of reference for organising scientific observation, because a research paradigm is a belief system or worldview from the researcher’s perspective on the method of data collection for and data analysis of the phenomenon being examined (Babbie, 2011, p. 27; Miles & Huberman, 1994). This implies that an evaluation of the research paradigm was necessary to facilitate the appropriate selection of methodology to accomplish the research objectives of this study, due

to its explication of thinking systems, including making basic assumptions, to answer the main research question, and to choose the correct research techniques (Babbie, 2011).

The paradigm was largely influenced by the researcher's own perspectives, formed from being a marketing practitioner in advertising and consumer insights for over 20 years. In addition, the researcher grew up in the Western and Eastern Cape townships (Basuthwini, Gugulethu, Khayelitsha, Kwazakhele, Magxaki, Mdantsane and Valhalla Park), speaks Xhosa fluently and understands the Afrikaans spoken in the townships. The richness and credibility of the findings were enhanced by the complementarity posed by the fusion of multiple methods in the study (Creswell, 2015; Ngulube & Ngulube, 2015).

Although there are four research philosophies, namely pragmatism, interpretivism, positivism, and critical realism, this study developed its methodology around pragmatism (Bryman & Bell, 2017). *Pragmatism* refers to a combination of positivist and interpretivist paradigms in a single study (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The use of two paradigms facilitates the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data in a research study. Because the purpose of this study was to determine the impact of language on the effectiveness of advertisements, the researcher was required to view the research knowledge pragmatically, as a basis for studying problems using a variety of research methodologies (Creswell et al., 1996). The subject matter of this study necessitated the researcher to “reconcile both objectivism and subjectivism, facts and values, accurate and rigorous knowledge and different contextualised experiences” (Saunders et al., 2016, p. 143). Hence, the ontological, epistemological and methodological perspectives of pragmatism are discussed in the following sections.

#### ***4.2.1 Ontological Perspective of the Study***

Saunders et al. (2016) defined *ontology* as the study or science of being because ontology relates to the nature of reality, which reflects an individual's system of beliefs. A *paradigm* is described as “opposing worldviews that reflect and guide the researcher's decisions made during a research project” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). The ontological belief of pragmatism offers much to the analysis, organisation and management of data (Fleetwood, 2004). Easton (2010) argued that pragmatism focuses on transcendental realist ontology, a heterogeneous realist or interpretivist epistemology, and a generally emancipatory axiology. According to Sayer (2000, p. 11), “the real is whatever exists, and that indeed includes knowledge, whether it exists as a potential or as actualised and expressed in an analysis”.

In this study, pragmatism provided a viable ontology that allowed for the abandoning of positivism and its empirical realist ontology, without accepting a social constructionist ontology. A pragmatic paradigm was adopted for the purpose of social and management research endeavours because the philosophy was congruent with the mixed-method research taken within the predisposition of this study. The literature also points out that ontological assumptions and commitments are closely related; therefore, the researcher was able to formulate appropriate research questions that described how the research project was carried out (Bryman & Bell, 2017).

#### ***4.2.2 Epistemological Perspective of the Study***

Guba and Lincoln (1988) defined epistemology as a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know. Therefore, the objective of epistemology is to address the relationship between the researcher and the researched. As pointed out in Section 4.2.1 above, pragmatism was adopted in this study, resulting in the researcher being immersed with research participants on the one hand, and distant from participants on the other hand (Henning et al., 2004). A set of open-ended questions were developed and used during face-to-face interviews, allowing the researcher to interact and meet with research participants personally. Relationships were created with participants to ensure rapport existed and to mitigate any suspicions regarding the motive of the research study. Subjective facts are gathered through face-to-face interactions because researchers might not know what they are looking for before commencing data collection (Creswell, 2018). In face-to-face interviews, the researcher becomes the main data collection instrument (Ngulube, 2014). For the current study, additional data were gathered through a questionnaire.

#### ***4.2.3 Methodological Assumption of the Study***

The ontological and epistemological assumptions of this study demonstrate an application of pragmatism. Mixed-method research (MMR) is a combination of quantitative and qualitative research approaches in a single study (Creswell, 2018). Combining quantitative and qualitative research approaches is a strategy supported by many researchers to improve the reliability and validity of findings (Saunders et al., 2019). When MMR is used, the researcher collects data using multiple collection techniques, resulting in triangulation during data collection, analysis and interpretation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). In this study, the methodological assumption of a pragmatic research study was designed to understand the process of research (Guba & Lincoln,

1989). Peter and Park (2018) stated that, when applying a mixed-method research approach, the starting point is to follow an interdisciplinary approach in the scientific work, which transcends mono-methods. Reality exists both objectively and subjectively; therefore, it was imperative to combine two approaches into a single study in an attempt to address the research questions. A detailed discussion of mixed-method research is presented under the methodology sections in this chapter.

### **4.3 Research Design**

Bryman and Bell (2017) defined a research design as methods and procedures that allow the researcher to collect and analyse measures of variables in a research problem. Bryman and Bell (2017) stated that a programme is required to guide the researcher on who and what is involved and the contextual setting of the study. The literature discusses research designs as plans that hold different research concepts together in a single unit to address research questions (Saunders et al., 2019). Researchers use research designs to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of gathering, analysing and interpreting research data (Romm & Ngulube, 2014). Grove et al. (2013) stated that the design of a study is the result of a series of decisions made by the researcher regarding how the study will be implemented. Therefore, a research design is an overall plan that relates the conceptual research problem to relevant and practical research (Grove et al., 2013).

Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) stated that researchers can use parallel mixed designs in a study, with the ultimate objective of integrating the results into meta-inferences after conducting separate quantitative and qualitative data analyses. In sequential mixed designs, data is gathered in chronological phases, and the analysis from the later strand emerges from or is built on the results of the previous strand (Grove et al., 2013). Van Wyk (2012) stated that causal-comparative research designs are applied to determine the cause and effects of independent variables in controlled experiments. Leedy and Omrod (2010) defined controlled experiments as scientific tests conducted to test one independent variable at a time under controlled conditions. When determining the link between two events happening at the same or different times, correlational research designs produce more accurate results (Van Wyk, 2012). The literature states that the links between the two or more events might be coincidental rather than causal. Ngulube (2015) weighed in to state that correlational designs are conflated with causation, yet the two research designs are not the same. Saunders et al. (2019) stated that conclusive research designs incorporate descriptive and causal research. Under the auspices of

descriptive research, a researcher can opt for either cross-sectional or longitudinal research, depending on the objectives of the study.

Van Wyk (2012) stated that a descriptive research design can combine different data collection techniques, such as observation, case studies or surveys. It is imperative to use a descriptive research design as a precursor to quantitative research projects. According to the literature, descriptive research designs are structured (Van Wyk, 2012), and Bryman and Bell (2017) clarified that researchers prefer more structured research designs, such as descriptive or explanatory, because the processes are easier to follow. Explanatory research designs help researchers identify links between variables (Ngulube, 2014) and are synonymous with quantitative research. An exploratory research design is ideal when the problem under investigation is not well-understood or has uncertainties (Chigada, 2014).

For this study, both exploratory and conclusive research designs were used. The exploratory research design was helpful to understand the problem at hand because little or nothing was known about it. Creswell (2018) stated that researchers use exploratory research designs to understand the uncertainties of a phenomenon. In this study, the impact of using the English language in television advertising had not been investigated in the Western Cape townships. The conclusive research design helped to verify and quantify the findings of the exploratory studies (expert interviews and focus-group discussions). Data were collected through surveys with the objective of reaching conclusions.

The research method for the study is discussed in the next section.

## **4.4 Research Methods**

Ngulube (2010) defined a research method as the techniques and tools by which a researcher undertakes a subject. Traditionally, studies use mono-methods, which are either qualitative or quantitative in nature. Ngulube (2014) stated that research projects can be qualitative, quantitative or mixed-method. It is the responsibility of the researcher to place the research within a specific paradigm. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005, p. 376) argued that, for “purists, distinctions exist between quantitative and qualitative researchers with respect to ontology, epistemology, axiology, rhetoric, logic, generalizations and causal linkages.” Purists maintain that quantitative and qualitative methods stem from different ontological, epistemological and axiological assumptions about the nature of research (Bryman, 1984). Smith and Heshusius

(1986) contended that quantitative and qualitative approaches cannot and should not be mixed. As such, they advocate mono-method studies.

Situationists maintain the mono-method (paradigmatic) stance held by purists but also admit that both methods have value. However, some scholars argue that mono-method research is the biggest threat to the advancement of the social sciences (Babbie, 2010; Creswell, 2015). To understand the justification for applying mixed-method research, it is important to discuss each of the mono-methods. The quantitative research methodology is discussed first, followed by the qualitative and then the justification for adopting mixed-method research.

#### ***4.4.1 Quantitative Research Method***

The quantitative research method is widely used in studies that require a numerical or mathematical and statistical representation of findings (Ngulube, 2010). For the quantitative research method to be used, the researcher's worldview would have been influenced by the positivist paradigm. That is, quantitative research is situated in positivism, with terms like *empiricist*, *realist*, *rationalist* and *foundational* linked to it. Epistemologically and ontologically, the quantitative–qualitative distinction has its roots in the positivist–interpretivist split (Le Grange, 2018). Positivists ontologically assume that there is a single reality, which can be measured reliably and validly, while interpretivists argue ontologically against the positivist ontological view, stating that there are multiple-constructed realities with valid multiple interpretations from different researchers (Mouton, 2010). The impact of the English language as a medium of communication in television advertising has multiple interpretations from the perspectives of participants and respondents. These interpretations could only be satisfied by gathering both quantitative and qualitative data sets.

The axiological position of positivists suggests that the enquiry should be value-free, while the interpretivist position suggests that the enquiry is value-bound (Malterud et al., 2015). There are many opposing arguments by purists, varying from reasoning, sampling, data collection methods, analysis and findings to validity and reliability, that support the contrarian views of the purists. However, the principle that undergirds an adequate sample size is related to the level of the theoretical background of the study (Malterud et al., 2015). Scholars such as Bryman and Bell (2017), Creswell (2015) and Mouton (2010) argue that empirical studies with very small numbers can make a difference if they address and elucidate something crucial to theory. New knowledge is also generated from a small sample because theory contributes to

synthesising existing knowledge, as it extends the sources of knowledge beyond the empirical interview data (Leedy & Omrod, 2010). A less extensive sample is needed if participants have characteristics that are highly specific to the study's aim than if participants have sparse specificity (Malterud et al., 2015).

#### **4.4.2 Qualitative Research Method**

The qualitative research method stems from interpretive dogma and is linked to expressions like *anti-foundational*, *constructivist*, *idealist*, *naturalist*, *relativist* and *hermeneutical*. Hermeneutics offers a more historical and cultural understanding of how knowledge is formed (Walby, 2017). In qualitative research belonging to the interpretative paradigm, the logic of exploration is more emphasised than the logic of justification, and other assumptions for sampling are usually more than adequate for what can possibly be predicted or calculated. In quantitative studies, power calculations determine which sample size  $N$  is necessary to demonstrate the effects of a certain magnitude from an intervention (Malterud et al., 2015).

The qualitative research approach uses words for analysis, while a quantitative approach uses mathematics and statistics. In the current study, the qualitative research approach is used. Saunders et al. (2019) stated that a subjective epistemology influences the adoption of a qualitative research approach. When used in a research project, the objective of a qualitative approach is to build a theory, while quantitative approaches are used to test or disprove a theory or what is already known.

In the current study, the focus was to build theory and generate new ideas and information; therefore, a qualitative research approach was considered appropriate for the study (Leedy & Omrod, 2010). Data were collected through face-to-face and focus-group interviews, observation, field notes and document analysis, which is in line with the views of Saunders et al. (2016), who stated that the main data collection techniques in qualitative studies are face-to-face interviews, field notes, observation and document analysis.

The researcher discusses and provides the justification for using mixed-method research in the next section.

### **4.4.3 *Mixed-method Research***

With reference to the discussions of quantitative and qualitative research methods presented above, the researcher was convinced that the use of mono-methods would not yield the desired results. Therefore, in accordance with the pragmatic research paradigm that informed the study, a mixed-method research approach was used. Pragmatists advocate the integration of methods within a single study. The use of mixed methods suggests epistemological ecumenism by the researcher (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). A mixed-method approach was preferred since the model already exists and has been extensively tested. Other reasons for choosing a mixed method were that the impact of language on advertising is complex and affects both rational and irrational thoughts. Since language is an embodiment of a people's culture, it is important to dig deeper and understand the why behind the data (Weitjers, Puntoni & Baumgartner, 2017, p. 1).

“The intrinsic appeal of MMR [mixed-method research] lies in the opportunity to leverage the strengths and attenuate the limitations of single method approaches (mono-methods), thus, reconciling the ardent disputes between nomothetic and idiographic perspectives and challenging the ‘incompatibility thesis’ between quantitative and qualitative methods” (Mele & Belardinelli, 2018, p. 334) and “to expand and strengthen a study's conclusions” (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017, p. 110).

The incompatibility thesis, which suggests that quantitative and qualitative research paradigms and methodologies cannot and must not be mixed (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005, p. 4), could not be considered. In fact, research paradigms and methodologies have similarities from which researchers should draw in order to plan data collection, analysis and presentation of findings. The core premise of triangulation as a design strategy is that all methods have inherent biases and limitations, so the use of only one method to assess a given phenomenon will inevitably yield biased and limited results (Greene et al., 1989). Triangulation is done primarily to improve the validity of research findings. The advocates of the incompatibility thesis argue that problems arise, not so much at the level of practice but at the level of epistemological paradigms (Howe, 1988). By successfully conducting an equal-status study, the pragmatist researcher shows that paradigms can be mixed or combined and that the incompatibility thesis does not always apply to research practice (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017, p. 113).

The two research subcultures have emerged from the two dominant research paradigms (i.e., qualitative and quantitative), “one professing the superiority of ‘deep, rich observational data’ and the other [the] virtues of ‘hard, generalisable’ survey data” (Sieber, 1973, p. 1335), whereas both are equally important and yield composite data and results when used in a single study. This study draws from the relevant strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods in its undertakings. Thus, it bridges the schism between quantitative and qualitative research and addresses the fact that epistemological purity no longer reflects best practices. The use of both approaches addressed the same study. The logic of justification does not dictate what specific data collection and data-analytical methods should be used by researchers. According to Creswell (1995), pragmatists advocate integrating methods within a single study. One of the reasons that this study used mixed methods was, as argued by Sieber (1973), that both qualitative and quantitative approaches have inherent strengths and weaknesses. This argument encourages the use of both approaches to capitalise on their strengths for a better understanding of the phenomenon under study.

In order to approach the research questions for this study, three sub-studies were conducted. Each study was different in methodology and sample design. The first study was quantitative, and the other two studies were qualitative. The methodology for each of these studies is described in the next subsections.

## **4.5 Methodology of Study 1**

A descriptive research design was used in Study 1 because it allows for the provision of an overall representation of the situation, person, or event, as well as how each construct relates to others in the natural course of events (Blumberg et al., 2005; Sousa et al., 2007). As the determining of the degree of association between language effects on advertisement effectiveness and the influence of consumer behaviour as a result, Study 1 was conclusive because it assessed the correlation between the constructs by testing the hypotheses of this study (Malhotra, 2010, p. 106). A simple random probability sampling technique was employed in Study 1, as per the quantitative method, and an appropriate sampling frame and size were defined to outline the target population.

### ***4.5.1 Target Population for Study 1***

Target population refers to the group of participants who possess the specific common attributes of interest, can provide the information desired by the researcher, and have relevance for the study (Asiamah et al., 2017; Zikmund & Babin, 2013, p. 97). Malhotra (2015, p. 134) referred to the target population as the population of interest that the researcher wants to examine and gather information from. Therefore, this study's target population was South African individuals between the ages of 18 and 40, whose home language was isiXhosa, who identified their ethnic group as Black, and who lived in Eastern and Western Cape townships. This population group includes two generation groups: Millennials (born between 1981 and 1996) and Generation Z (born after 1997, ages 25 to 40 in 2021; Dimock, 2018). The StatsSA (2018) community survey estimated that Western Cape, Black, Xhosa-speaking township residents numbered over 500,000 and made up less than 50% of 18+ (180,000) and over 80% of the 18+ target, English L2 or L3 (StatsSA, 2013; Broadcast Research Council of South Africa, 2017). The target population of this study was therefore estimated to have 150,000 individuals within the specifications of this study. As a result, the study's sample could provide accurate generalised results for this South African population.

### ***4.5.2 Sampling Strategy***

A sampling strategy refers to the approach chosen by a researcher to select participants for a study while following a specified research design (Welman et al., 2005, p. 53). Sampling allows the researcher to obtain information about the characteristics of only a subset of the population (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002, p. 283). The selection of the sample is thus guided by the sample design procedure because the sample characteristics assist the researcher to make inferences about the population parameter and draw conclusions about the population based on observation of a representative portion of the population (Wenzlaff & Wegner, 2000; Zikmund & Babin, 2013). The process of developing a sampling strategy includes the identification of the population and defining the target population of the study, identifying the sample frame and selecting the sampling technique to determine the sample size, establishing the measurement instrument used to measure the variables, and delineating the data collection and analysis process (Zikmund & Babin, 2013, p. 340). Hence, these elements of the sampling procedure are described in the following sections.

The choice of sampling method is largely determined by various elements, including the nature

of the research question, research objectives and constraints, such as budget and time (McDaniel & Gates, 2008). Accordingly, the sampling method is defined as the way that sample units are selected (Zeeman, 2013, p. 48). Sampling methods are broadly classified into two categories: probability and non-probability sampling (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Saunders et al. (2019) defined non-probability sampling as the process by which the probability of each sampling unit being selected is unknown. On the other hand, probability sampling is a technique of drawing a sample so that the probability of each item in the population being included in the sample is equal (Wilson, 2010, p. 194).

In quantitative research studies, due to the large population size, it is considered impractical and uneconomical to involve all members of the population (Welman et al., 2005). Accordingly, this study utilised a probability sampling technique because it statistically allows the researcher to demonstrate the representativeness of a sample through explicit identification of how much variation was introduced and other possible biases in the model (Rea & Parker, 2014). One of the types of probability sampling, a simple random probability sampling technique, was employed in this study. As simple random sampling lists all members of the population and selects the subjects from the list randomly (Cohen et al., 2007), each and every element of the population has an equal chance of being selected in the sample (Alvi, 2016). Because it has a low possibility of sampling bias and the sample has a high possibility of acting as a good representative of the entire population, this sampling method was considered appropriate for this survey-based study.

### ***4.5.3 Sampling Frame***

A sampling frame involves differentiating the sample from the total population (Zikmund & Babin, 2013, p. 109). It relates to constructing a database for acquiring elements of the target population (Malhotra, 2010, p. 373). Because the sampling frame is a tangible list from which the sample can be drawn, a good sample frame accurately represents the views of the target population on the subject under study (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002, p. 284; Muposhi, 2015). However, no unitary list of the entire population of the non-English-speaking South African population that lives in the Western and Eastern Cape township environments was available.

The researcher therefore employed Kantar Millward Brown, a world-leading data, insights and advertising research agency with offices in South Africa and the rest of Africa, which had access to over two billion data profiles, 90 markets, and over a hundred million respondents, with

strong offline and online (mobile and desktop) research tools (Kantar.com, 2021). Fieldwork for this research coincided with Covid-19 and its multiple lockdown regulations and levels. It was, therefore, important to have a research agency with access to online research tools so that we could maintain social distance to help reduce viral infections. Kantar Millward Brown was able to provide mobile and online tools and a sample frame of respondents willing to participate virtually in the research study. Kantar Millward Brown only allowed invited individuals who qualified to participate in the online survey (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014, p. 2). Their database was considered admissible for use as the sampling frame for this study due to the accuracy of its substantive and comprehensive profile of each potential participant.

#### **4.5.4 Sample Size**

Sample size refers to the specified number of sample elements to be included in a study (Malhotra, 2010, p. 374). In order to determine the sample size, several qualitative and quantitative studies had to be compared because the threshold for the sample size should be large enough to develop patterns for the variables of the study and gain correct statistical findings (Clow & James, 2014, p. 231; Hair et al., 2010a, p. 701).

According to Choto et al. (2014), a sample size larger than 30 and less than 500 is appropriate for most research studies. Hair et al. (2010a) suggested that sample sizes should be 100 or greater and Comrey and Lee (2013) categorised 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 500 as very good, and 1000 or more as excellent. The final sample size of this study was 620, which was classified as a very good sample size by Comrey and Lee (2013), because the larger sample size is associated with improved goodness-of-fit indices of all the variables in the study, as advocated by Hair et al. (2010b). Researchers, according to Sekaran and Bougie (2009), also universally agree that larger samples provide much more stable parameter estimates. The sample size was generated by using the formula below, developed by Tejada and Punzalan (2012):

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

Where  $N$  = population size and  $e$  = margin of error.

The sample size of 620 was thus calculated to be adequately large for this study. To corroborate the appropriateness of this sample size for this study, the complexity of the model for statistical

analysis techniques was considered. Because this research study investigated both the Advertising Effectiveness Theory and the Theory of Planned Behaviour by observing consumers' responses to four given advertisements, the study compared the sample sizes used by previous researchers in similar studies. To examine whether the sample size of this study would be large enough to appropriately measure the variables that contribute to the Advertising Effectiveness Theory, advertising research studies that determined the language effects on the processing of advertisements by consumers were considered. This was because the main objective of this study was to determine the impact of English television advertisements on consumers who were non-native English speakers. Table 4.1 below compares the characteristics of these studies that tested language as the key stimuli of advertising.

**Table 4.1: Language in Advertising Effectiveness**

<b>Theory</b>	<b>Advertisement Language</b>	<b>Geographical Location</b>	<b>Sample Size</b>	<b>Authors</b>
Advertising Effectiveness Theory	Korean English	Seoul, Republic of Korea	<i>n</i> = 130	(Ahn et al., 2017)
	Hindi English	New Delhi, India	<i>n</i> = 198	(Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008)
	Italian English	Australia	<i>n</i> = 103	(Santello, 2015)
			<i>n</i> = 93	(Luna & Peracchio, 2001)
	Spanish English	United States	<i>n</i> = 82	(Noriega & Blair, 2008)
			<i>n</i> = 501	(Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997)

Ahn et al. (2017) examined the relationship between language and advertising effectiveness in the Korean marketplace using a sample size of 130. Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008) investigated the role of language choice in advertising in the Indian markets using a sample of 198, while Santello (2015) employed a sample size of 103 in the Australian context. Studies in the United States that similarly explored the differences in consumers' responses to English and Spanish advertisements utilised smaller sample sizes of 93 (Luna & Peracchio, 2001) and 82 (Noriega & Blair, 2008), while an older study was applied to 501 subjects (Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997). As the studies mentioned above evaluated the variables that assessed advertising effectiveness,

including advertisement content recall and product attributes, by manipulating the language used in the given advertisements (i.e., one in a local or native language and the other in English), this research study's sample size of 155 per advertisement (i.e.,  $n = 620$ ) is regarded as reasonable.

Because establishing the empirical precedence of similar studies is significant when determining the correct sample size, this study additionally observed research studies that employed the Theory of Planned Behaviour as the basis to determine the consumer attitude to advertisements for various products. Table 4.2 below summarises the details of such studies.

**Table 4.2: TPB and Mobile Advertising**

<b>Theory</b>	<b>Geographical Location</b>	<b>Sample Size</b>	<b>Authors</b>
Theory of Planned Behaviour	Malaysia	$n = 150$	(Hashim et al., 2018)
	USA	$n = 171$	(Muk & Babin, 2006)
	Jordan	$n = 220$	(Khasawneh & Shuhaiber, 2013)
	China	$n = 262$	(Zhang & Mao, 2008)
	China	$n = 480$	(Cheung & To, 2017)
	South Africa	$n = 480$	(Radder et al., 2010)

This study utilised the variables of the Theory of Planned Behaviour devised by Ajzen (1991), such as attitudes towards behaviours and subjective norms, in order to measure consumers' attitudes to advertisements in different language formats. Because the target population of this study was mobile phone users in South Africa, considering the sample size of studies that examined a similar mobile advertising context assisted the researcher to establish a suitable sample size for this study.

Hashim et al. (2018) conducted a survey of 150 respondents to establish the relationship between Malaysian consumers' attitudes to advertising that is done via mobile phone and their intention to purchase the advertised products. Muk and Babin (2006) similarly utilised a sample size of 171 in the United States, while Khasawneh and Shuhaiber (2013) tested the antecedents

of mobile users' attitudes towards advertisements with a sample size of 220 in the context of Jordan. Studies were done in China with a comparable sample size of 262 (Zhang & Mao, 2008). However, researchers such as Cheung and To (2017) and Radder et al. (2010) employed a larger sample size of 480. Television advertising, including television home shopping advertising testing consumer attitudes and intention to behaviour, had sample sizes ranging from 159 respondents to 327 (Jeong-Soo, 2015).

#### ***4.5.5 Measurement Instrument***

The current research study's measurement instrument was adapted from previous studies that investigated the relationship between television advertising language and consumers' behavioural intention to purchase advertised Domestos. In addition, the researcher used the services of Kantar Millward Brown, a leading data, insights and advertising agency that had conducted similar studies using Domestos. The company's existing research instrument, data and other insights were invaluable to this study. The research agency had access to online research tools and a sample frame of respondents willing to participate in the study. Table 4.3 summarises the measurement scale for each variable modified by various authors.

**Table 4.3: Measurement Scale**

Theory	Variable	No. of Items	Type of Scale	Source
Advertising Effectiveness Theory	Awareness (Recall)	1	4-item Nominal Scale	(Bruner & Kumar, 2000; Hill & Mazis, 2021; Kennedy et al., 2000; McQuarrie & Mick, 2003)
	Behavioural Intention	4	4-item Nominal Scale	(Mehta, 1994)
	Perceived Understanding	1	4-item Nominal Scale	(Hornikx & Le Pair, 2017; Richardson & Smith, 2007)
	Source Credibility	1	5-point Likert Scale	(Lee & Turban, 2001; Ohanian, 1990)
	Brand Difference	1	5-point Likert Scale	(Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Davtyan et al., 2020; Steenkamp et al., 2003)
	Ad Liking	5	10-point Visual Analogue/Slider Scale	(McDuff, 2014; Newell & Goldsmith, 2001)
Theory of Planned Behaviour	Consumer Behaviour	2	5-point Likert Scale	(Gopi & Ramayah, 2007)
	Consumer Attitude	4	5-point Likert Scale	(Cheung & To, 2017; Friman, 2010; Gopi & Ramayah, 2007; Mehta, 2000; Sallam, 2012)
	Subjective Norms	3	5-point Likert Scale	(Cheung & To, 2017; Ham et al., 2015; Izquierdo-Yusta et al., 2015; Koury & Yang, 2010)
	Perceived Behavioural Control	3	5-point Likert Scale	(Ajzen, 1991; Cheung & To, 2017; Gopi & Ramayah, 2007)
	Purchase Intention	3	5-point Likert Scale	(Ansari & Joloudar, 2011; Baker & Churchill, 1977; Cheung & To, 2017; Friman, 2010; Sallam, 2012)
Language	Literacy	2	5-point Rating Scale	(Horwitz, 1985; Riley, 2006)

#### 4.5.5.1 Reliability and Validity of Measurement Instrument

Mangal and Mangal (2013) defined reliability as the accuracy of a study, such that the results can be verified by repeating the same study on similar populations and getting the same outcome. The validity of a study refers to the degree to which the research findings are true.

Validity can either be external or internal. External validity involves looking at whether the outcome of the research is representative of the target population, while internal validity determines the degree to which the research design accurately identifies underlying relationships (Beri, 2013). As a result, accurate measurement and scaling are required to ensure the validity and reliability of the research study's findings. The construct reliability of the research measures employed in the study was examined by computation of three different methods: Cronbach's alpha reliability test, the composite reliability (CR) test and the average value extracted (AVE) test. These research measures are discussed and described hereafter:

***i Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Test***

Cronbach's alpha values were assessed for each construct to measure the reliability of the measurement instruments in investigating the relationship among variables. Because the internal consistency allows for the determination of the reliability of the scale for each variable being measured in the study, Cronbach's alpha was verified to be over 0.7 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). In order to establish the validity of the variables, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted (Desphande, 1982).

***ii Composite Reliability (CR) Test***

Besides using the Cronbach alpha as a necessary measure to assess reliability, composite reliability was used as a sufficient measure of reliability. The CR coefficient is another measure of internal reliability and is reported in Sections 5.3.1.1 and 5.3.2.1

CR provides a robust measure of reliability by considering the contribution of each latent factor to each item and each item's error (Mkhatshwa, 2015; Starkweather, 2012). Interpreted the same as Cronbach alpha, Malhotra (2010) stated that the minimum accepted CR value should be 0.70. The CR estimates reported in Tables 5.3 and 5.7 were calculated using a formula whereby CR is calculated as the square of the summation of the factor loadings divided by the sum of the square of the summation of the factor loadings and the summation of error variances (Bewick et al., 2004). The formula is illustrated in the following manner:

$$CR_{\eta} = (\sum \lambda_{yi})^2 / [(\sum \lambda_{yi})^2 + (\sum \epsilon_i)]$$

Where:  $CR_{\eta}$  = Composite reliability

$(\sum \lambda_{yi})^2$  = Square of the sum of the factor loadings

$(\sum \epsilon_i)$  = Sum of error variances

### ***iii Validity***

Validity refers to how well a measurement instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Kapondoro et al., 2015). Uysal and Madenoğlu (2015) defined validity as the quality of research results that leads one to expect them to be true. In this study, the scale was tested for convergent and discriminant validity as follows:

#### **Convergent validity**

“Convergent validity is the extent to which items that are indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common” (Hair et al., 2010b, p. 710). Convergent validity is used as an indication that the instruments used for a particular construct are “at least moderately correlated among themselves”, whereby poor convergent validity may imply that there is a need for the model to utilise more constructs (Dean et al., 2008, p. 170). According to Sarstedt et al. (2014), convergent validity measures the degree to which a construct comes together in its indicators by explaining the items’ variance. In addition, Campell and Fiske (1959) said that convergent validity describes the extent to which each item in a construct variable correlates to the construct variable to affirm that it is measuring the same variable as other items in that variable. “This can be established by generating item-to-total correlations in SPSS to measure how each item is attributable to the construct variable, as well as by examining the factor loadings generated by the CFA model” (Pamacheche, 2015, p. 60).

#### **Discriminant validity**

According to Hair et al. (2017), discriminant validity refers to items’ measuring different concepts. Golafshani (2003, p. 598) explained that “discriminant validity determines whether a scale does or does not adequately differentiate itself between groups that should or should not differ based on theoretical reasons or previous research”. Cooper and Schindler (2014, p. 289) pointed out that “discriminant validity is also a subcategory of construct validity and it tests whether concepts or measurements that are supposed to be unrelated are in fact unrelated”. Discrimination is important for determining the degree to which the constructs are discriminant or distinguishable from one another and are not measuring the same variable (Lucas et al., 1996; Zait & Berteau, 2011). This is done by generating an inter-construct correlation matrix in SPSS and computing average variance extracted (AVE) estimates for each construct (Pamacheche, 2015).

#### *iv Average Variance Extracted (AVE) Test*

Malhotra (2010) defined AVE as the variance in the indicators or observed variables that are explained by the latent construct. A value of 0.40 or higher indicates a satisfactory measure (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). It is calculated as the summation of the squared factor loadings divided by the sum of the summation of the squared factor loadings and the summation of error variances (Bewick et al., 2004). The formula below was applied when examining AVE.

$$V_{\eta} = \frac{\sum \lambda_i^2}{(\sum \lambda_i^2 + \sum \epsilon_i)}$$

AVE = summation of the squared of factor loadings / {(summation of the squared of factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}

The research instruments used in this study were adopted from Kantar Millward Brown. Thus, the researcher used instruments that had been tested and proven worthy in past studies. For external validity, the study used existing insights and findings from studies conducted by Kantar Millward Brown in similar South African townships; therefore, the respondents of the study were a true representation of the population. As pointed out by Beri (2013), the adopted instruments accurately identified underlying relationships between the consumers and the television advertisements. In addition, Kantar Millward Brown was hired to conduct part of the data collection because of their reputation, capabilities and possession of the tools and instruments to collect data during the Covid-19 era, which was not feasible for the researcher, given the restrictive Covid-19 conditions.

#### **4.5.6 Data Collection**

Data collection describes a precise, systematic gathering of opinions and views that could have the potential of addressing the research question of a study (Murthy & Bhojanna, 2010, p. 241). For the data collection of this study, Kantar Millward Brown, a South African market research company, was approached to conduct the fieldwork (i.e., performing the pre-test and administering the surveys). As this study utilised a quantitative approach, the survey method for collecting data was ideal. When a researcher wants to learn about the study participants' opinions, attitudes, and behaviour, he or she will conduct a survey (McDaniel & Gates, 2008, p. 73). Due to the ease of overseeing, analysing, coding and interpreting the data collected through a survey, a survey method was employed to extract responses from a large pre-selected group of respondents (Baines et al., 2011, p. 134).

In the current study, the survey was administered through a short message service (SMS) population-based survey approach, which was a process of interviewing a representative sample of the population for research or evaluation purposes (Kantar Global Monitor, 2016). The overall number of mobile communications in South Africa is over 90 million, with approximately 24.5 million people in South Africa using a smartphone, which accounts for about one-third of the country's population (Statistica, 2021). As the SMS survey method works on any GSM mobile phone, the researcher was able to reach formerly inaccessible population groups, thus having the ability to collect information from a large, diversely spread population (Kantar Global Monitor, 2016). Further reasons for selecting an SMS, population-based survey as the manner of data collection were its ability to communicate with a higher proportion of young people who opt to SMS rather than call while being a relatively cheap means of data collection (Dal Grande et al., 2016). According to Kreutzer (2009), 96% of the low-income urban youth in Cape Town, South Africa, were found to use their mobile phones on a typical day, and 87% of the respondents made calls or sent SMSs on a typical day. Because the current research study's target population involved individuals between the ages of 18 and 40 living in the Western Cape townships, an SMS population-based survey was the most appropriate data collection method.

For the information accumulation, this research study utilised a structured questionnaire with a list of questions that respondents were requested to answer. The employment of the questionnaire during the survey was intended to produce essential data that were valuable for enhancing response rates during the survey (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The questionnaire and its components are therefore discussed in the following sections.

#### ***4.5.7 Questionnaire Design***

Questionnaire design induces the process of translating the broad objectives of the survey into questions that can obtain the required information (Morisky et al., 2008). A good questionnaire is able to meet the research objectives of the study, obtain reliable and valid data from respondents, and facilitate the subsequent data-processing by maintaining the attentiveness of the respondents (Webb, 2000). Because questionnaires allow all participants to respond to identical stimuli through standardised questions and response categories, the questionnaire also accelerates the data analysis process (Burns & Bush, 2006). The research instrument employed in this study was, therefore, a questionnaire, for the simplicity of its administration and its ability to alleviate the variability of the results (Malhotra & Birks, 2010).

Before administering the questionnaire, a letter of information was provided to ensure that the respondents understood the purpose of the study. The letter of information described the questionnaire's purpose as part of an academic research project and specified all of the conditions of participation in the study, such as respondents' input being voluntary. Respondents were also informed of the estimated completion time of 15 minutes and were assured of the confidentiality of their responses under data protection laws. A link was provided to Kantar Millward Brown's privacy policy.

Before they started processing the questionnaire, the respondents were given screening activities to confirm that their devices were adequately adjusted for the video stimulus they were exposed to in the later stages of the questionnaire.

A pre-test was conducted with a selected sample of respondents in the target population to avoid any problems that might occur for the respondents during the survey process. The questionnaire's three sections were based on the three theoretical frameworks that the study was based on, and the questions were revised to ensure easy interpretation by the respondents. The questionnaire also included four video-advertisement stimuli (English Domestos and Sunlight advertisements dubbed into Xhosa; Appendices E and F, respectively) that examined the effect of the advertisements' language on the consumers' responses to the advertisements, following the main objectives of this study as delineated in Chapter 1.

The selection of Domestos and Sunlight liquid was influenced by existing insights from Kantar Millward Brown who had previously done similar studies. It made sense to use existing research instruments, tools and approaches because the previous studies were similar to the current study.

A well-planned questionnaire with questions presented in a logical order directly affects the active participation and response rate of the participants (Wilson & MacLean, 2011, p. 264; Zikmund et al., 2012). The questionnaire layout for this study was therefore designed in such a way that the first question asked led to the next line of questions, which served to introduce the following set of questions on a different subject (Matthews & Ross, 2012, p. 212).

#### **4.5.7.1 Structure of the Questionnaire**

The questionnaire for this research study (Appendix A) had three sections. Each section of the questionnaire assessed each variable of the research study, and the three sections of the

questionnaire were: Section A was on the respondents' demographic information, Section B was on the variables that tested the Advertising Effectiveness Theory, and Section C was on the variables that examined the Theory of Planned Behaviour. The questionnaire structure and format of Study 1 are summarised in Table 4.4 below.

**Table 4.4: Questionnaire Structure and Format**

<b>Section</b>	<b>Theory</b>	<b>Variables</b>	<b>Structure</b>	<b>Format</b>	<b>Measurement Scale</b>
A	Demographic Information	Q1*: Age	Open-ended	N/A	Ratio
		Q2: Gender	Closed-ended	Multichotomous	Nominal
		Q3*: Ethnic Group	Closed-ended	Multichotomous	Nominal
		Q4*: Home Language	Closed-ended	Multichotomous	Nominal
		Q5: Second Language	Closed-ended	Multichotomous	Nominal
		Q6*: Geographical Location A (Province of South Africa)	Closed-ended	Multichotomous	Nominal
		Q7: Dwelling Type	Closed-ended	Multichotomous	Nominal
		Q8*: Geographical Location B (Townships)	Closed-ended	Multichotomous	Nominal
		Q9: General Attitude towards Television Advertisements	Closed-ended	Multi-item (Likert-type)	Interval
B	Advertising Effectiveness Theory	Awareness (Recall)	Closed-ended	Multichotomous	Nominal
		Behavioural Intention	Closed-ended	Multichotomous	Nominal
		Perceived Understanding	Closed-ended	Multichotomous	Nominal
		Source Credibility	Closed-ended	Multi-item (Likert-type)	Interval
		Brand Difference	Closed-ended	Multi-item (Likert-type)	Interval
		Ad Liking	Closed-ended	Multi-item (10-point slider)	Interval

<b>Section</b>	<b>Theory</b>	<b>Variables</b>	<b>Structure</b>	<b>Format</b>	<b>Measurement Scale</b>
C	Theory of Planned Behaviour	Consumer Behaviour	Closed-ended	Multi-item (Likert-type)	Interval
		Consumer Attitude	Closed-ended	Multi-item (Likert-type)	Interval
		Subjective Norms	Closed-ended	Multi-item (Likert-type)	Interval
		Perceived Behavioural Control	Closed-ended	Multi-item (Likert-type)	Interval
		Purchase Intention	Closed-ended	Multi-item (Likert-type)	Interval
Language	Literacy	Closed-ended	Multi-item	Interval	

(\* Starred Questions 1, 3, 4, 6, 8 = Filter Questions)

Section A of the questionnaire collected demographic information from respondents, that is, age, gender, ethnic group, home language, second language, province and township. This section therefore included filter questions to delineate the target population and ensure the respondents were within the selected sample frame. The significance of the background information therefore related to the research because the composition of the research's target population was the main determinant of whether the respondents accurately represented a generalisable sample of the target population (Salkind, 2010).

Before Section B and C measured the variables of each section, the respondents were exposed to four advertisements acquired from two different detergent brands, Domestos and Sunlight (Appendices E and F). Two advertisements were presented for both Domestos and Sunlight – one in English and one in isiXhosa. As this study aimed to examine the effect of the language on consumers, two of the Domestos advertisements were chosen from the same campaign by the same brand, Domestos, to provide an equivalent standard of the advertised message. Similarly, the two Sunlight advertisements were drawn from a single brand. Since there were existing advertisements, it made sense to use them instead of reinventing the wheel. In addition, Domestos and Sunlight liquid are widely used, accessible, relevant and affordable products for the low-income earners in the communities where the study was carried out.

Section B focused on the variables that measured advertising effectiveness, such as

advertisement awareness and liking, brand rating, buying interest in the advertised product, the idea communicated and product attributes. Therefore, the questions in this section were based on the Advertising Effectiveness Theory to determine the consumers' level of advertisement awareness, behavioural intention to purchase, perceived understanding of the advertisements, source credibility, brand rating and advertisement liking. The questions that examined the effect of advertising language on the respondents' responses were adapted from Byun and Jang (2015), who utilised similar questionnaires to evaluate consumers' views of advertisements through factors such as behavioural intention and the persuasiveness of the advertisements.

Section C consisted of questions that measured the variables from the Theory of Planned Behaviour, such as attitude towards advertisements, brand attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention, all of which affect consumer purchase behaviour. The items in this section were adapted from several studies, such as those of Holbrook and Batra (1987, p. 410) and Wu and Lo (2008), that assessed consumer responses to advertisements.

The final quantitative questionnaire presented in Appendix A was used as a structured data collection technique that consists of a series of questions designed to elicit specific information (Malhotra, 2010). The questionnaire was adopted from Kantar Millward Brown.

#### ***4.5.8 Survey Implementation for Study 1***

##### **4.5.8.1 Pre-testing**

A pilot study before distributing the questionnaire was conducted as a small-scale trial run of the data collection process (Memon et al., 2017). The pre-test assured the researcher that a full-fledged study would be executed as envisioned (Memon et al., 2017). The pre-test further ensured the outcomes of the research would be credible because it was a form of quality assurance to tease out any errors or sensitive information from the research instrument (Chigada, 2014; Creswell, 2014). Ten respondents were messaged via SMS (Kantar's Optimal Mode Mobile Survey) to fill out the questionnaire before the questionnaire was distributed to the rest of the target population, and this acted as a pre-test of the questionnaire to ensure the comprehensibility and lucidity of the questionnaire. The pre-test allowed the researcher to evaluate how the respondents interpreted the questions and to revise the questionnaire to ensure it accurately represented the constructs of interest to the research.

#### **4.5.8.2 Fieldwork**

The four prepared advertisements were shown to 155 people per advertisement ( $n = 620$ ), and then all the respondents were asked to fill out the Study 1 questionnaire. The members of the target population were invited to participate in the finalised questionnaire over a period of three months in 2020, from September to November.

#### **4.5.8.3 Data Preparation**

The first stage of the data analysis of completed questionnaires is referred to as data preparation (Cooper & Schindler, 2011, p. 490). This data preparation stage of the research process entails the editing, coding, capturing and cleaning of the gathered data (Malhotra, 2010, p. 452). The following sections explain those steps in the data preparation process.

##### ***i Data Editing***

Data editing entails reviewing completed questionnaires for omissions or incomplete or unusable responses, illegibility, and other inconsistencies in order to improve the accuracy and precision of the collected data (Malhotra, 2010; Zikmund & Babin, 2013, p. 369). The process of identifying unclear, incomplete, inconsistent or ambiguous responses imposes a minimum quality standard on the raw data, which in this study resulted in discarding questionnaires where more than 10% of the responses were missing.

##### ***ii Data Coding***

Data coding refers to the process of grouping by allocating numeric codes to each response of the questionnaire (McDaniel & Gates, 2005). Coding is thus a technical procedure in which raw data are converted into numeric symbols because coding involves categorising responses by assigning code numbers to the classes (Churchill & Brown, 2007). This step of the data preparation facilitates computer or hand tabulation as the data is entered into the computer using codes (Zikmund & Babin, 2010, p. 353). For this study, a codebook was, therefore, developed to assist the entering of the information from the questionnaire in a format that SPSS could recognise.

##### ***iii Data Capturing***

Data capturing is the process of entering coded information from a questionnaire or coding sheet directly into a computer (Malhotra, 2010, p. 459). In this study, data were entered from

the questionnaires into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The captured data were then imported into SPSS for data analysis purposes.

#### *iv Data Cleaning*

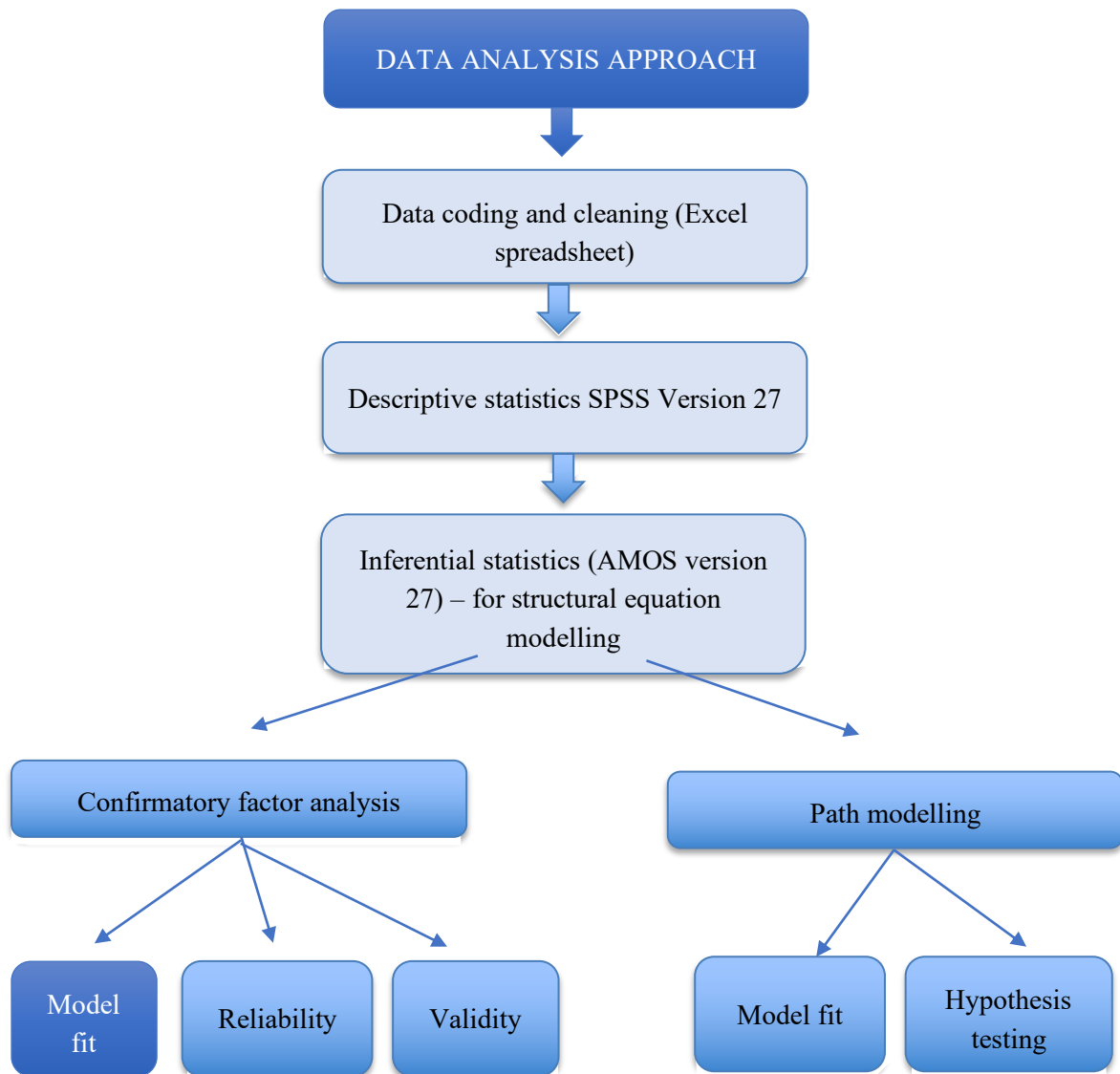
A data cleaning process involves dealing with values that are outside of the scale code by using wild code checks to detect codes that have not been determined for a specific variable (Fourie, 2015, p. 85). For instance, there was a variable that was out of the ordinary because a human error arose while entering data into the MS Excel spreadsheet, resulting in a six instead of a five on a Likert scale.

#### **4.5.9 Data Analysis**

Data analysis is an important step in the research process because it allows the researcher to add some meaning to raw facts and produce information that can be used for decision-making (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). Data analysis is a process of systematically applying statistical and/or logical techniques to condense, describe, evaluate, illustrate and recapitulate data (Jandagh & Matin, 2010, p. 64). Moreover, data analysis is about the application of reasoning to understand and construe the collected data (Zikmund et al., 2010). Different analytic techniques “provide a way of drawing inductive inferences from the data and distinguishing the signal (the phenomenon of interest) from the noise (statistical fluctuations) present in the data” (Shamoo & Resnik, 2003, p. 46).

Study 1 used both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyse the coded data through off-field analysis techniques. Descriptive statistics are presented using tables (for means, standard deviation, and percentages), and inferential statistics are also mainly presented in tabular format. Descriptive statistics were relevant mainly for demographic data and general information, while inferential statistics were utilised to draw conclusions about the variables of the study.

It is imperative to show how the collected data were coded and analysed and thereafter displayed as computed findings from which conclusions were drawn at a later stage. Figure 4.2 graphically expounds the methodology that was used in analysing the collected data.



**Figure 4.2: Data Analysis Procedure** Source: Authors' own compilation

Figure 4.2 above illustrates that raw data were initially coded in an Excel spreadsheet and then verified. Subsequently, raw data were exported from Excel into SPSS 27 statistical software for the calculation of descriptive statistics, reliability (Cronbach's alpha values) and correlation. To this end, SEM was used for inferential statistics and was provided by AMOS 27 statistical software. SEM is capable of simultaneously verifying the measurement and the structural models, that is, examining both CFA (measurement) and path (structural) models in one model. In addition, as SEM is a covariance-based approach – AMOS was favoured for the component-based approaches (for example, Smart PLS) owing to its precondition of accommodating a

fairly large sample size: in excess of 310 for the Domestos sample and 310 for the Sunlight sample.

Furthermore, this analytical software facilitates an effective computation of the overall fit of the conceptual model while instantaneously providing a valuation of the resulting path coefficients. CFA was performed first in order to validate the variables under study. This was done by calculating model fit, reliability and validity. Once the constructs were validated, path modelling was performed. Yet again, model fit was calculated, and results were checked against those found under CFA. Thereafter, the researcher tested the hypothesised relationships between the constructs and the estimates. Ultimately, the inter-relationships between these variables were provided.

## **4.6 Methodology of Study 2**

The second study was a qualitative focus group. Creswell (2018) defined a focus group as a market research method by which a small group of people are brought together in a room to provide feedback regarding a product, concept or service. In this study, focus groups were used to provide feedback on the use of English-language advertising. The researcher was interested in understanding the focus groups' perceptions of or opinions about advertisers' preference for using English to communicate messages to non-English speakers in Western and Eastern Cape townships. Focus-group participants were recruited based on their purchase history, demographics, psychographics and the fact that they did not know each other (Bridson et al., 2013). Focus-group discussions are forms of qualitative research methods and data collection techniques because the research participants are given topics to discuss (Creswell, 2018).

Focus groups were conducted to assess a deeper understanding of how people decode meaning, advertising and language preferences across multiple mediums, such as television, print, digital media and billboards, and their feelings about the use of English television advertising. In partnership with Kantar Millward Brown, two of the most liked advertisements published by Kantar Millward Brown were dubbed into Xhosa and tested using the agency's Link test design.

### ***4.6.1 Sampling Design***

An online or on-site focus-group discussion is a technique by which a researcher assembles a group of individuals to discuss a specific topic, aiming to draw from the complex personal experiences, beliefs, perceptions and attitudes of the participants through a moderate interaction

(Hayward et al., 2004). Due to Covid-19 restrictions and regulations, to protect respondent and moderator safety and health, online focus groups were conducted. Study 2 consisted of four online focus-group meetings on 4 and 5 November 2020 and employed the sample size of a minimum of 20 participants, undertaken in a division of four focus groups, each with seven individuals. The target population of the study was identical to Study 1 because the individuals recruited as the participants in the focus-group discussions were all between the ages of 18 and 40, spoke isiXhosa as their home language, identified their ethnic group as Black, and resided in Western or Eastern Cape townships.

#### **4.6.1.1 Discussion Guide**

Before the actual collection of data, the discussion guide sample was tested to ascertain its trustworthiness. The *trustworthiness* of qualitative research is the equivalent of reliability and validity from the perspectives of interpretivists (Shenton, 2004). To ensure the trustworthiness of the research instrument, the researcher developed a discussion guide to follow and allow efficient leading of the focus-group discussions. The discussion guide had three sections, with two topics for discussion: the introduction and warm-up, perceptions and attitudes to language in advertising, and advertising evaluation.

The first section of the discussion involved an explanation of the purpose of this study and other information that enhanced the participants' understanding of the study and their rights to participate, including the confidentiality of the collected data. Participants were further informed of the focus-group procedures, such as their exposure to video- and audio recordings, before they proceeded to answer the prepared questions. In order to ensure no interruptions, participants were asked to switch off their cell phones.

The second and third parts of the focus-group discussions assumed that participants would answer the questions after watching the prepared video and audio advertisement stimuli of this study. The second section involved asking about participants' perceptions of and attitudes to the language used in advertisements (i.e., the effectiveness of the advertisement language on consumers). These questions focused on the types of advertisement stimuli and the impact of the advertisement language on their behavioural intention in response to the advertisements. The advertisement stimuli were then replayed to the focus-group participants (twice, once in English and once in Xhosa). The objective of the last section was to elicit participants' responses and thoughts after seeing the advertisements. Following the discussion guide

prepared before the focus-group sessions enabled the researcher to ensure the relevance of the discussion topics to the current study.

#### **4.6.1.2 Data Collection**

The focus-group discussion required a team consisting of a skilled facilitator and an assistant (Burrows & Kendall, 1997). The facilitator focused on creating a relaxing, comfortable environment for the participants that would allow a free flow of interaction between the participants during the discussion process. The facilitator used both English and Xhosa to set the participants at ease, remove language barriers during the discussion sessions, and avoid any discomfort that could have arisen from any lack of understanding. The assistant observed the verbal interactions between the participants and the impact of the group dynamics on them. The assistant was further responsible for documenting the general content and topic changes of the discussion. The main methods of data collection in this study were audio- and tape-recording, note-taking and participant observation (Nyumba et al., 2017, p. 23).

The four focus-group discussions were conducted in the Eastern and Western Cape townships, each 30–45 minutes long, with seven participants per group. Participants of both focus-group sessions were given an introduction to the study, explaining the purpose of the study and the procedures of the focus-group discussions that would follow. The participants were further given consent forms to sign during this introduction phase. Each focus group was then exposed to one video and one audio recording as the advertisement stimuli of the study.

The first focus-group discussion was 40 minutes long, in which the participants were exposed to English television advertisements. This focus group was the control group of the study. The second group's discussion was 45 minutes long and was observed as the test group of the study. The participants of the second focus group were exposed to Xhosa-dubbed advertisements. The focus-group discussions were semi-structured and guided by a set of open-ended questions (discussion guide sample, Appendix B) devised by the researcher before the discussion sessions. The questions covered the topic of television advertising and the difference in efficacy level between English and Xhosa advertisements. In both sessions, the participants were asked to discuss their emotional responses to the advertisements and evaluate the technical aspects of the advertisements, depending on the type of advertisement stimuli. The facilitator employed a laddering technique during the discussions of thoughts and feelings about the advertisements to stimulate participation from the focus-group participants.

#### **4.6.1.3 Data Capture**

The voice recordings from both focus groups were transcribed (Focus Group 1 Transcript) using an online transcription programme. Because the focus-group sessions were conducted in a combination of English and Xhosa by the facilitator, the sections of the audio recordings that were in Xhosa were translated and transcribed into English. The interesting features of the session transcripts that had been transcribed were then systematically coded into data and the codes were collated with the appropriate extracts from the transcriptions. NVivo 12 software was employed to help the researcher organise these data. The codes and data were then classified into potential themes, which were categorised according to the variables of this study, such as advertisement liking and brand rating.

#### **4.6.2 Data Analysis for Study 2**

Data analysis is described as the process of adding meaning to raw facts so that appropriate decisions can be made (Braun & Clarke, 2014). The data analysed for this study comprised the transcribed focus-group data and these data were analysed using a thematic narrative analysis method. This type of data analysis was chosen to analyse the qualitative data because it allows the extraction of rich datasets (Braun & Clarke, 2014). Thematic analysis is a method of identifying, analysing, organising, describing and reporting themes found in a data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Nowell et al., 2017). The method was chosen to assess the different perspectives of the participants because thematic analysis provides a highly flexible approach that can be modified for the specific needs of the study while providing a rich and highly complex account of data (Braun & Clarke, 2006; King, 2004; Nowell et al., 2017). By highlighting similarities and differences, thematic narrative analysis emphasises the stories relayed by the participants to generate meaning and explain personal experiences by identifying and discussing the merging themes in relation to the research objectives (Nowell et al., 2017).

The raw data of this study were imported into NVivo 12 software for analysis and the framework approach was used to code the data. The effective procedure for conducting thematic analysis consisted of five stages: familiarisation, indexing, identifying, reviewing and defining the themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Familiarisation involves evaluating the transcripts to gain a clear understanding of the consistent concurring themes (Nowell et al., 2017). The researcher identified repetitive quotations for possible patterns shaped during this phase and became familiar with all aspects of their data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The qualitative

coding process that followed was a process of reflection and interaction with the data, as the researcher simplified and only focused on specific characteristics (Savage, 2000). Thus, the sections of the transcribed data that were relevant were identified and indexed with labels to relate to the themes of this study (King, 2004). In this study, hierarchical coding was employed to allow the researcher to analyse the data at varying levels of specificity (King, 2004). A codebook was therefore developed to assist with the interpretation. Using the NVivo 12 computer program, the researcher worked efficiently with complex coding schemes because it allowed a large amount of data to be sorted to facilitate deep and sophisticated analysis.

## **4.7 Methodology of Study 3**

The third data collection technique used in this study related to expert interviews. Creswell (2018) defined expert interviews as qualitative interview methods aimed at gaining information about or exploring a specific field; in this case, the use of the English language in television advertising. The study design used a triangulation method by synthesising the findings obtained from the expert interviews.

### ***4.7.1 In-depth Expert Interviews***

In-depth interviews were conducted with the top seven experts in the advertising field. The individuals interviewed held well-respected management positions as chief marketing officers (CMOs) and chief executive officers (CEOs) in South Africa's leading advertising companies. The companies involved were Coke, Kantar Millward Brown, MTN, Nedbank, Ogilvy SA, OUTsurance, Shoprite, Standard Bank, Unilever and Vodacom; and each interview session lasted one hour. Because all the interviewed individuals had been in the advertising field for a prolonged period of time, they were knowledgeable about the field and were, therefore, considered an appropriate sample for this study.

The rationale for using in-depth interviews was to elicit views and opinions from the participants (Creswell, 2012). In-depth understanding can be obtained by asking more probing questions in interviews than can be asked in questionnaires (Cohen et al., 2011). As Wiid and Diggins (2013) stated, qualitative research depends upon detailed descriptions by respondents to gain insights into the problem, to ensure a degree of systematisation in questioning and analysis. The research questions were formulated before the interview process and were employed to guide the in-depth interviews with the experts. The open-ended questions allowed

the respondents to express their opinions in their own words, creating opportunities for dialogue.

#### **4.7.2 Discussion Guide**

An interview guide is a collection of open-ended questions created by the researcher per the research objectives, topic, and questions. The interview protocol was divided into two sections: the first section sought demographic data from the target population, such as gender, position, level of education, literacy, and level of understanding of the English language; and the second section focused on the research questions. The research instrument thus comprised four sections: demographic variables, introduction and warm-up, perceptions and attitudes to language in advertising and, lastly, advertising evaluation. The interview guide was similar to the discussion guide used for focus groups, except that there was a demographics section in the interview guide. The demographic information on the target population of the advertisements was included to ensure that the advertisements the experts described and provided insights into were relevant to this study and the variables this study was testing.

#### **4.7.3 Pilot Study**

A pilot study was conducted before the interview protocol to mitigate any ambiguities, and any grammatical, spelling, or syntax errors, and to ensure the clarity and understandability of the research instrument (Chigada, 2014; Creswell, 2014). Due to the large time and resource consumption required for conducting face-to-face interviews, only two participants were asked to participate in an interview as a pre-test. The sample size of two participants was considered sufficient to provide feedback on a qualitative study using the interview method (Bryman & Bell, 2017). Although scholars suggest various sample sizes (from 4 to 15) for a pre-testing process, it has been argued that using 10% of your qualitative study's sample size is adequate (Connelly, 2008). Since this study employed seven as the sample size for the in-depth expert interview, two was a justifiable number.

#### **4.7.4 Data Analysis**

Data analysis is referred to as the application of reasoning to understand and interpret collected data (Zikmund, 2003, p. 73). Similar to the data analysis procedure followed in Study 2, this study transcribed the interviews and exported all qualitative transcripts into NVivo 12, a qualitative-data analysis program. The program coded all emerging themes for thematic data

analysis. Emerging themes were discussed in relation to the research objectives because the data were presented in words and expressions through the thematic data analysis. Because the nature of this study involved numerous sources of data and multiple data analysis methods were employed, the data were triangulated at different stages of the research process. For this reason, the next section discusses the triangulation processes.

## **4.8 Triangulation**

Triangulation is defined as the process of using multiple data sources or approaches to analyse data with the purpose of enhancing the credibility of a research study and to assist the researcher to understand a phenomenon better by approaching it from different perspectives related to the diverse gathering of sources (Babbie, 2010; Kelly, 2006). Denzin and Lincoln (1994, p. 236) described triangulation as a plan of action that helps researchers to avoid personal biases that could stem from the use of single methodologies, thus improving the accuracy of the data of this study (Stangor, 2011). Because this study utilised quantitative and qualitative methods that complemented each other, the methods could be triangulated to enhance the reliability and validity of the findings since triangulation allows divergent interpretations of the data (Hammersley, 2008, p. 22; Omrod, 2014). The triangulation of the results was employed during the interpretation and discussion stages of this study to identify key issues that may have arisen during the research process.

Although Studies 1, 2, and 3 were conducted with the same objective of obtaining data to address the main research problem of this study (i.e., examining the impact of English-language advertising for non-English speakers in Western and Eastern Cape townships), each used a different data collection approach. Study 1 applied a survey approach, while Study 2 was a focus-group study that entailed group discussions with the research participants. On the other hand, Study 3 implemented in-depth interviews of experts. Despite the utilisation of a discussion guide for the qualitative studies (Studies 2 and 3) to ensure the relevance of the consultations, triangulation was considered an imperative process in this study because it facilitated data validation by cross-verification of diverse sources (Mouton, 2001).

The following section describes the ethical issues of this study that were established during this triangulation process.

## 4.9 Ethical Considerations

The researcher approached the Research Committee on Ethics in the University of Cape Town's Commerce Faculty for a gatekeeper's letter and permission to conduct the study. Furthermore, the researcher complied with all ethical and confidentiality issues that were covered and encapsulated in all approvals. Above all, the researcher followed the laws of the country while conducting the study. The study posed no foreseeable risks because it did not address sensitive topics such as HIV/AIDS, physical disability, or minors. The participants were all adults who were not deemed vulnerable. Furthermore, there were no foreseeable risks that could harm or hinder the participants or jeopardise the reputations of individuals or institutions. Everyone was treated fairly and with respect.

This study was not prejudicial to participants and did not encroach on the rights of third parties. It did not target children, persons living with disabilities, vulnerable women, vulnerable elderly communities, vulnerable communities, persons who might have found it difficult to make independent and informed decisions for social, economic, cultural, political and medical reasons, nor did it target plants or animals or involve any environmentally related research. The researcher did not collect, use or disclose any information without the consent or assent of the individual or institution that possessed the required information. The study did not include any activities that might have placed the researcher or participants at risk.

***Ensuring participants have given formal consent:*** Informed consent refers to the right granted by one person to another person (Ngulube, 2010). In this study, the researcher politely asked participants to grant their consent in writing or verbally. Participants who were comfortable to do so signed consent forms.

***Ensuring no harm comes to participants:*** Cozby and Bates (2012) defined *harm* as any physical or emotional injury inflicted on an individual. When respondents are exposed to both emotional and physical harm, their participation in a study might not yield the desired results. A pilot study was conducted to tease out sensitive questions that could have harmed participants emotionally. In addition, interviews were conducted at the participants' homes or workplaces. These were places with which the participants were familiar and comfortable.

***Ensuring confidentiality and anonymity:*** Chigada (2014, p. 121) defined *personal information* as all information about a person that is not usually in the public domain. The researcher informed all participants that their personal information would not be disclosed or shared with

third parties. The research process was clearly outlined, showing how research data would be kept and disposed of.

## **4.10 Chapter Summary**

This chapter outlined the research plan that was applied in conducting the study. The researcher highlighted that the pragmatic research paradigm informed it, resulting in the application of mixed-method research. The presentation showed that applying a mixed-method research methodology enhanced the reliability, validity and trustworthiness of the research findings. A case study research design was adopted because the researcher was able to collect both qualitative and quantitative data in one single study. The case study method was chosen because it helped the researcher interrogate a phenomenon in detail in its real and factual context. The method allowed the researcher to answer How and Why research questions and, for this to be achieved, required that the research and story be clear and focused yet not permanently fixed and flexible enough to be changed. The target population were people over 18 years old, residing in Western and Eastern Cape townships who were English illiterate or for whom English was L2 or L3.

Three studies were conducted: a survey, focus-group discussions and expert interviews. Six hundred sample elements were selected for all three studies. Coding and analysis were done using the latest available software: NVivo12 and SPSS. Other key concepts of the research plan discussed in this chapter were the pre-testing of both research instruments to mitigate errors and act as quality assurance; the limitation of the study, in that only two Western and Eastern Cape townships were selected, excluding other townships in the province; the various mechanisms engaged to mitigate bias, which included the use of research assistants and probability simple random sampling. Finally, the chapter affirmed ethics in research as an invaluable process that should not be overlooked, which was why the researcher undertook all necessary steps to ensure ethical issues were adhered to. In the next chapter, the findings are analysed and presented.

# **PART III**

## **PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS**

### **CHAPTER 5**

#### **PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF QUANTITATIVE RESULTS**

##### **5.1 Introduction**

Chapter 4 delineated the research methodology used in this study. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research sample and results per the mixed-method research outlined in Chapter 4. The results from Study 1, which covers language influence on advertising effectiveness and consumer behaviour (TBP), are interpreted and discussed in this chapter.

The chapter first describes the final sample from the quantitative survey before discussing each component. The first discussion is of the TPB results: The TPB constructs for Domestos are analysed (English then Xhosa), and then the same is done for Sunlight (English and Xhosa). The TPB results for the two advertisements are then compared. Following this, the advertising effectiveness measures for both advertisements (English and Xhosa) are analysed: first Domestos and then Sunlight, before a synthesised analysis of both. Finally, the overall results of the TPB and effectiveness components are compared, followed by a chapter summary.

##### **5.2 Sample Description for Study 1**

Study 1 is a quantitative analysis divided into two parts. The first part is an analysis of the impact of language on intention to purchase using the Theory of Planned Behaviour. The second part is an analysis of language and advertising effectiveness. Each of these components is discussed separately and, as with Studies 2 and 3, they will be synthesised and discussed in the next chapter.

### 5.2.1 Overall Sample Description for Study 1

The total sample for the study was 620 participants who fell into the sampling criteria of being Black, aged 18+, first-language Xhosa speakers, who resided in a township in either the Western or the Eastern Cape Province. The 620 participants were distributed between the four sample cells: purchase behaviour, attitudes to the brand, social norms related to the brand, and intention to purchase. All respondents selected were Black, aged 18+, spoke Xhosa as their first language, and resided in a township in the Western Cape or the Eastern Cape; English was a second or third language and, for the majority, Zulu was their third language. Details of the sample demographics can be seen in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1: Final Sample Description**

<b>Sample characteristics</b>	<b>Cell 1 (English Domestos)</b>	<b>Cell 2 (Xhosa Domestos)</b>	<b>Cell 3 (English Sunlight)</b>	<b>Cell 4 (Xhosa Sunlight)</b>
Sample size	<i>n=155</i>	<i>n=155</i>	<i>n=155</i>	<i>n=155</i>
Gender split	<i>M=70 (45.2%) F=85 (54.8%)</i>	<i>M=70 (45.2%) F=85 (54.8%)</i>	<i>M=70 (45.2%) F=85 (54.8%)</i>	<i>M=70 (45.2%) F=85 (54.8%)</i>
Age split, Total sample	18–24 yrs (40) 25–34 yrs (40) 35–44 yrs (50) 45 yrs + (25)	18–24 yrs (40) 25–34 yrs (40) 35–44 yrs (50) 45 yrs + (25)	18–24 yrs (40) 25–34 yrs (40) 35–44 yrs (50) 45 yrs + (25)	18–24 yrs (40) 25–34 yrs (40) 35–44 yrs (50) 45 yrs + (25)
2nd language split	92 (59.4%)	92 (59.4%)	92 (59.4%)	92 (59.4%)
3rd language split	63 (40.6%)	63 (40.6%)	63 (40.6%)	63 (40.6%)
Eastern Cape	60 (38.7%)	60 (38.7%)	60 (38.7%)	60 (38.7%)
Western Cape	95 (61.3%)	95 (61.3%)	95 (61.3%)	95 (61.3%)

Table 5.1 is interpreted as follows:

### **5.2.2 Gender Split**

Each of the four cells had an equal number of respondents participating in the study. There were 70 (45.2%) male respondents compared to 85 (54.8%) female respondents. This demonstrates that the majority of people involved in this study were women. This could also indicate that many sample families were run by single parents.

### **5.2.3 Ages of Respondents**

The study involved adults, that is, people older than 18 and younger than 65. There were 40 (25.8%) respondents between 18 and 24 years old, while another 25.5% were between 25 and 34 years. The majority (32.2%) of the respondents were between 25 and 44 years old. The smallest number of respondents (16.1%) were above 45 years of age.

### **5.2.4 Second Language Split**

The study sought to establish from the respondents who spoke English as a second language, and 92 (59.4%) of them indicated that English was their second language, while 40.6% indicated that English was their third language. See Table 5.1 above.

### **5.2.5 Split per Province**

There were 60 (38.7%) respondents from the Eastern Cape, while 95 (61.3%) of the respondents were from the Western Cape.

This thesis included a few demographic characteristics to ensure that bias was eliminated in terms of the research. Chigada (2021) stated that it is becoming increasingly important for researchers to consider different demographic variables in order to determine who was involved and to whom the research findings would be generalised; thus, future studies would be able to compare and replicate the findings (Ellis, 2019). South Africa's history is mired in discriminatory and marginalising practices; therefore, to avoid carrying on the tradition, this thesis involved anyone who was deemed fit and possessed divergent views, as long as they met the criteria described in Section 5.2.1 above.

Hammer (2011, as cited in Chigada, 2021) stated that, with the increase in diversity, researchers are compelled to report respondents' diversity during the research-finding phase, as has been done in this section of the chapter. By failing to include such information, researchers risk

assuming the stance of ‘absolutism’; that is, there is the assumption that the phenomena under investigation are the same, regardless of diversity in the demographics. In contrast, including this information means that the researcher has moved towards ‘universalism’, a recognition of universal psychological processes (Bein, 2009, p. 359; Hammer, 2011, as cited in Chigada, 2021).

Readers of a study might have a vested interest in the research, and the inclusion of demographic information allows them to determine to whom the research findings can be generalised and to make comparisons in replicas of the current study (Bein, 2009). Demographics provide the information required for secondary data analyses and research syntheses so that gaps in existing research can be identified, and variations and universals occurring in and between populations can be ascertained (Bein, 2009). By including demographic information, great value has been added to the IS field’s knowledge base and the understanding of universals and variations among populations.

### **5.3 TPB Results for the Domestos Advertisement**

Responses to the Domestos advertisement were analysed according to the Theory of Planned Behaviour constructs. The analyses are discussed, first for the English treatment sample, then for the isiXhosa treatment sample.

#### ***5.3.1 Results for Domestos Advertisements in the English Language***

Mean scores ranging from 1.21 to 2.93 (out of 5.0) were computed for all constructs examined in the study, as shown in Table 5.2 below. These results show a general preference for the *disagree* and *neutral* positions on the Likert scales. As per Hair et al. (2010b), the relationship between the mean and the SD is that a small, estimated SD indicates that respondents’ responses were consistent and that response distributions were close to the mean. A large SD, on the other hand, indicates that the responses vary, causing the response distribution values to deviate from the distribution’s mean (Hair et al., 2010b). Table 5.2 also shows that the highest SD value reported was 1.183, while the lowest SD value reported was 0.558. This shows that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are less than two, indicating that there were no outliers.

Taking into account that a five-point Likert scale was applied in this work, the minimum and maximum values that were figured run between one (*strongly disagree*) and five (*strongly*

*agree*). The examination continued to decide the level of respondents' understanding or conflict for each construct. Mean values were figured as the measures of central tendency for this study and standard deviation esteems were processed to gauge the fluctuation of reactions on each variable. According to Hair et al. (2010b), the relationship between the mean and the standard deviation is that a low estimated standard deviation (SD) indicates that respondents' responses were consistent and that the response distributions were close to the mean. A large standard deviation, on the other hand, indicates that the responses vary, causing the response distribution values to deviate from the distribution's mean (Maziriri, Chuchu & Madinga, 2019). Moreover, the standard deviation value "should be less than 1 but it is recommended to at least include a value of less than 2 to ensure that there is no issue of outliers" (Drost, 2011, p. 87). Table 5.2 shows the basic descriptive statistics for the items and predetermined constructs, including means and standard deviations.

**Table 5.2: Descriptive Statistical Results (English Domestos Advertisement)**

Scale	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
<b>Purchase Behaviour</b>				<b>1.6613</b>	<b>0.83731</b>
AB1	155	1	5	1.89	1.131
AB2	155	1	5	1.61	1.003
<b>Attitudes to the Brand</b>				<b>1.4742</b>	<b>0.63141</b>
AT1	155	1	5	1.52	0.870
AT2	155	1	5	1.39	0.752
AT3	155	1	5	1.61	0.976
AT4	155	1	5	1.80	1.059
<b>Social Norms related to the Brand</b>				<b>2.2473</b>	<b>0.86109</b>
SN1	155	1	5	2.19	1.037
SN2	155	1	5	2.93	1.382
SN3	155	1	5	2.17	1.183
<b>Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand</b>				<b>1.3011</b>	<b>0.48316</b>
PB1	155	1	5	1.46	0.800
PB2	155	1	5	1.39	0.752
PB3	155	1	5	1.21	0.558
<b>Intention to Purchase</b>				<b>1.4796</b>	<b>0.69536</b>
BI1	155	1	5	1.55	0.906
BI2	155	1	5	1.61	0.942
BI3	155	1	5	1.61	0.977

Source: Author (2021)

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results, hypothesis tests done using structural equation modelling (SEM), and discussions are all covered in this results section. A CFA is a type of factor analysis that is used to determine whether the measures of a construct are compatible with its nature (Kline, 2011). The SEM method is used to assess latent (unobservable) interactions between variables such as dependent and independent components (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Mafini et al., 2016).

### 5.3.1.1 Psychometric Properties of Measurement Scales

A CFA was used to analyse the psychometric features of the measuring scales in order to identify the construct's reliability, validity, and model fit. The results of the CFA assessment are shown in Table 5.3. On PB, one item (PB3) was deleted since its item-to-total-correlation value was less than 0.5, as revealed by a closer look at Table 5.3. This item was removed because it did not achieve convergent validity, which means it did not measure at least 50% of what it was designed to measure. As a result, there was no need to investigate the item further.

**Table 5.3: Psychometric Properties of Measurement Scales (English Domestos Advertisement)**

Research constructs		Item-to-total-correlation values	$\alpha$ values	CR	AVE	Factor loadings
Codes	Code items					
AB	AB1	0.723	0.839	0.840	0.730	0.813
	AB2	0.724				0.889
AT	AT1	0.888	0.923	0.930	0.760	0.913
	AT2	0.793				0.849
	AT3	0.792				0.806
	AT4	0.810				0.920
SN	SN1	0.597	0.710	0.720	0.460	0.713
	SN2	0.587				0.562
	SN3	0.594				0.750
PB	PB1	0.634	0.623	0.670	0.530	0.501
	PB2	0.525				0.895
BI	BI1	0.773	0.876	0.870	0.700	0.843
	BI2	0.754				0.800
	BI3	0.756				0.865

*Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase; SD = Standard Deviation; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted.*

Reliability thresholds in data analysis range between zero and one, according to Zikmund et al.

(2013, p. 306). Similarly, Bryman and Bell (2017, p. 28) stated that Cronbach's alpha coefficients between 0.80 and 1 indicate acceptable reliability, whereas Babin and Zikmund (2016, p. 281) required values between 0.70 and 0.80 for good reliability, and values between 0.60 and 0.70 for fair reliability. In this investigation, Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from 0.623 to 0.923 were reported, as shown in Table 5.3. As a result, "adequate evidence of internal consistency reliability" (Nunnally, 1978, p. 245) can be determined among the scale items used in this study.

Establishing the alpha coefficient is a sensitive technique that can be influenced by the number of variables in the scale, which is a major flaw in utilising Cronbach's alpha as an internal consistency reliability measure. The coefficients regularly increase or decrease when the number of scale items utilised in a study increases or decreases (Pallant, 2011, p. 6). As a result, the average inter-item correlation coefficients are described as an extra test of internal consistency because each scale employed in this study comprised short scales with less than ten items. The average inter-item correlation coefficients recorded across all sub-scales ranged between 0.525 to 0.888, showing that the scale items employed in this study demonstrated internal consistency dependability.

The loading of each item on its construct is also shown in Table 5.3. The lowest factor loading for each study construct is 0.501; all factor loadings are higher than the recommended value of 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Because all of the individual items converged well, and more than half of each item's variance was shared with its corresponding construct, this shows that all of the measurement instruments are acceptable and dependable (Fraering & Minor, 2006).

The CR and AVE for each component were also calculated and evaluated to see whether they satisfied the required reliability and validity limits. The lowest CR value (0.670) achieved is substantially over the acceptable 0.6 (Hulland, 1999), whereas the lowest acquired AVE value (0.460) is well above the recommended 0.4 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). This suggests that convergent validity was attained, validating the measuring devices' good internal consistency and reliability. As a result, all pairs of constructs showed appropriate discriminant validity. These findings, on the whole, supported "acceptable levels of research scale reliability" (Chinomona & Chinomona, 2013, p. 20; Chinomona & Mofokeng, 2016).

### **5.3.1.2 Discriminant Validity**

Measurement instrument validity, specifically discriminant validity, is assessed using the inter-

construct correlation matrix (Ab-Hamid et al., 2017). The researcher looked at the correlations between constructs to check whether they were less than one. The stronger the correlation between variables, the less reliable they are (Kafetzopoulos et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2011). Therefore, the inter-construct correlation values must be less than 0.6 or, in some circumstances, less than 0.85 to establish discriminant validity. The most significant association was 0.624, while the least significant was 0.132. Because these correlation values are less than 0.85, it may be stated that all of the constructs have discriminant validity (Morar et al., 2015).

**Table 5.4: Correlation Matrix (English Domestos Advertisement)**

<b>Correlations</b>					
	<b>AB</b>	<b>AT</b>	<b>SN</b>	<b>PB</b>	<b>BI</b>
<b>AB</b>	1	.437**	.251**	.474**	.623**
<b>AT</b>	.437**	1	.251**	.544**	.562**
<b>SN</b>	.251**	.251**	1	.132**	.401**
<b>PB</b>	.474**	.544**	.132**	1	.624**
<b>BI</b>	.623**	.562**	.401**	.624**	1

*\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

*Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase.*

### **5.3.1.3 Measurement Model Assessment**

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to assess the multi-item concept measures' reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity (CFA). Overall acceptable CFA fit metrics were employed in this investigation. The acceptable level, according to Schreiber et al. (2006), is a chi-square (CMIN/DF) value between 1 and 3. To be considered acceptable, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (IFI), and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) must all be equal to or greater than 0.90 (Hu & Bentler, 1995). To be acceptable, the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) must be equal to or less than 0.08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The recommended figures,  $2/(df) = 1.713$ , GFI=0.910, TLI=0.961, IFI=0.973, CFI=0.972, NFI=0.937, and RMSEA=0.068, show an adequate data fit for the general model final assessment.

### 5.3.1.4 CFA Model Fit Assessment

The CFA model is depicted in diagram form in Figure 5.1. The round or oval shapes represent latent variables, while the rectangular shapes represent observable variables. Measurement errors, which are also represented by circular shapes, sit beside the observed variables. The link between latent variables is shown by bi-directional arrows.

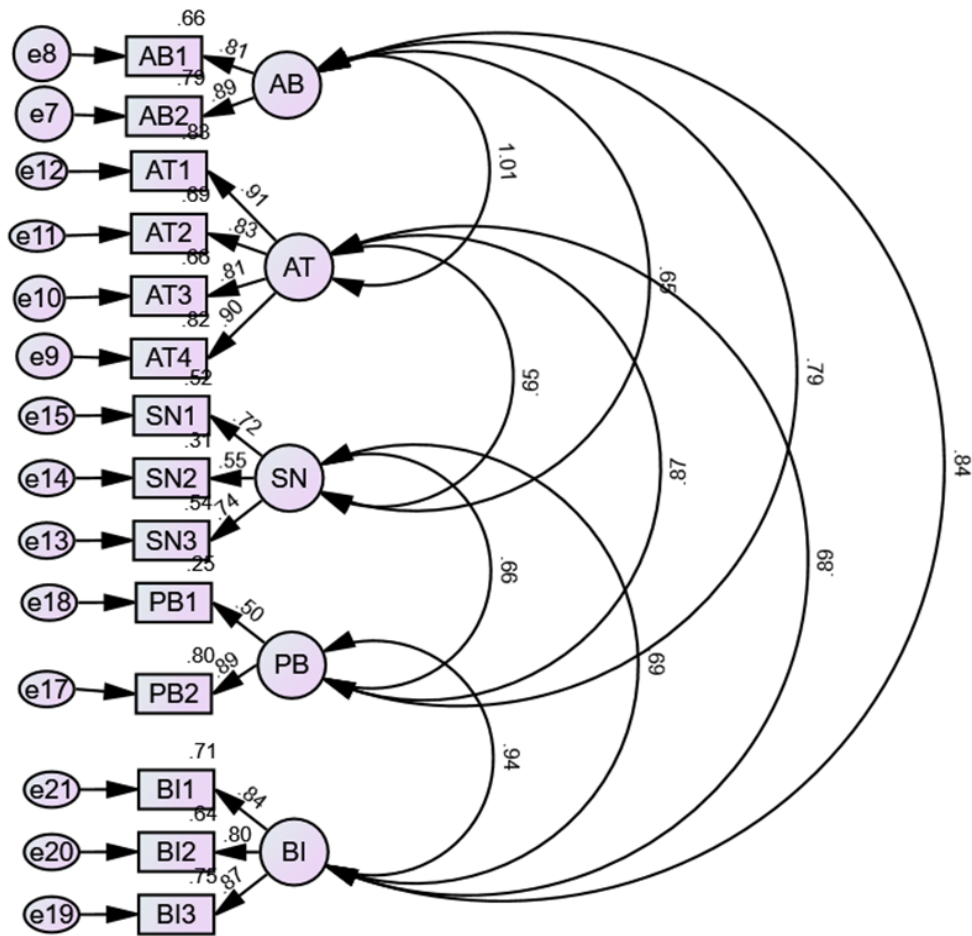


Figure 5.1: CFA MODEL (English Domestic Advertisements)

### 5.3.1.5 Structural Model Assessment and Hypothesis Testing

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was utilised since the CFA results were satisfactory. For the SEM phase, a model fit analysis was performed before testing the hypotheses. The chi-square to degree of freedom ratio was 1.976. This is below the suggested 3.0 threshold,

indicating that the model is fit. CFI, RMSEA, NFI, TLI, IFI, GFI, and AGFI values of 0.912, 0.070, 0.940, 0.946, 0.958, 0.953 and 0.910 correspondingly met the specified thresholds (West et al., 2012). The predicted conceptual model converged accurately and contributed to feasible data. To control the strength and weakness of causal linkages, the hypothesis path modelling test was employed. The structural model is shown in Figure 5.2.

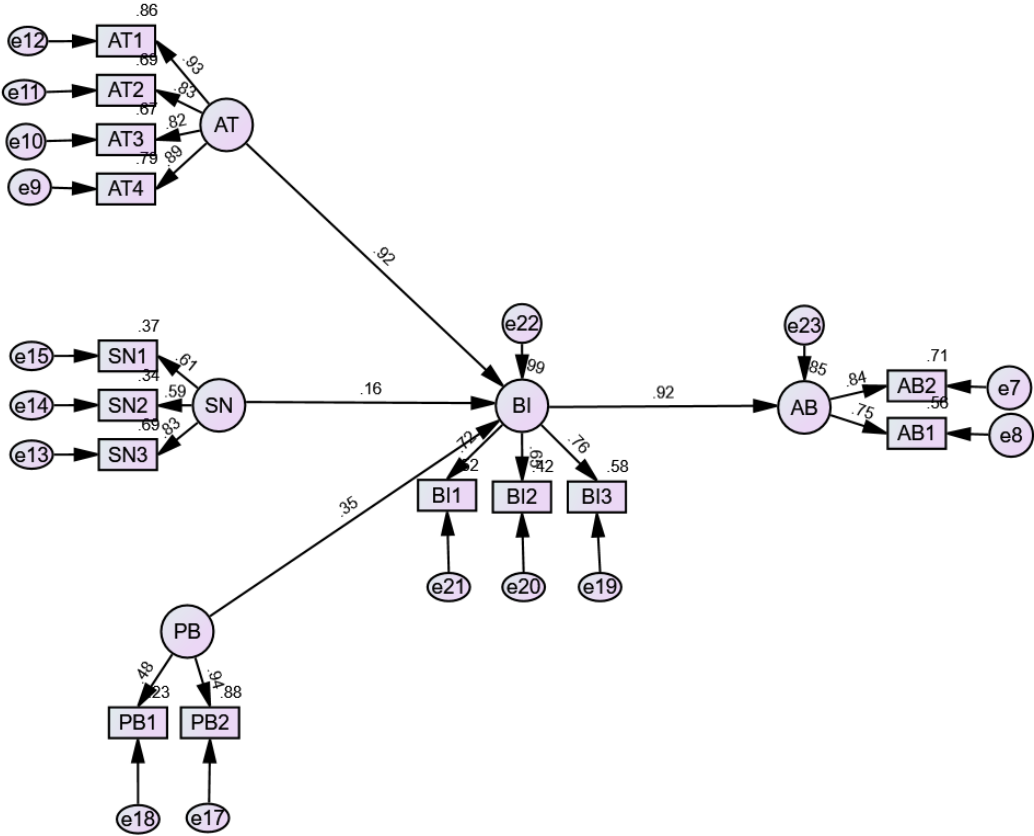


Figure 5.2: Structural Model (English Domestos Advertisement)

**5.3.1.6 Hypothesis Testing for Domestos English-language Advertisement**

Path coefficient values and structural model *p*-values were used to determine the hypothesis testing in this study. The associations of constructs provided in this study generated the coefficients of pathways in the model. These coefficients were the cornerstone of the hypothesis testing.

### ***i Hypothesis 1***

Hypothesis 1 states, *Consumers' attitudes to the brand have a positive and significant impact on intention to purchase*. Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between attitudes to the brand and intention to purchase Domestos shows a  $\beta = 0.473$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.002. Hypothesis 1 is *supported* by the evidence presented here. It is interesting to note that brand attitudes have a considerable favourable impact on purchase intent. It is also worth noting that these findings support those of Chinomona and Mofokeng (2016), who discovered that attitude to the brand is positively correlated with purchase intention.

### ***ii Hypothesis 2***

Hypothesis 2 asserts, *Subjective social norms related to the brand have a positive and significant impact on consumers' intention to purchase*. The final structural model shows a coefficient of  $\beta = 0.070$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.343 for the link between social norms and intention to purchase Domestos. As a result, Hypothesis 2 is *not supported*. These findings indicate that social norms associated with the brand have a positive and significant influence on purchase intent, but that social norms have a negligible impact on purchase intent. It is also essential to mention that these findings corroborate the results obtained in the works of Kafetzopoulos et al. (2015) and Kim et al. (2011).

### ***iii Hypothesis 3***

Hypothesis 3 states, *Intention to purchase has a positive and significant impact on attitudes towards the brand*. Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between intention to purchase and attitudes to the Domestos brand shows a  $\beta = 0.918$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.000. Hypothesis 3 is *supported* by the evidence shown here. In a nutshell, it is clear that the intention to purchase positively and significantly influences attitudes to the brand.

### ***iv Hypothesis 4***

Hypothesis 4 states, *Perceived behavioural control related to the brand has a positive and significant impact on consumers' intention to purchase*. Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between perceived behavioural control related to the Domestos brand and intention to purchase Domestos shows a  $\beta = 0.473$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.002. Hypothesis 4 is *supported* by the evidence provided here. As an outcome, it is interesting to note that brand-related perceived behavioural control has a positive and significant influence on purchase

intent. It is also worth noting that these findings corroborate Chinomona and Mofokeng’s (2016) findings, which revealed that brand is positively connected with purchase intention.

The four hypotheses for the Domestos English-language commercial are summarised in Table 5.5.

**Table 5.5: Summary of the Hypothesis Testing for Domestos**

Relationships	Hypothesis	Path Coefficient $\beta$	<i>p</i> -Value	Remarks
BI → AT	H <sub>1</sub>	0.473	0.002	Supported
BI → SN	H <sub>2</sub>	0.070	0.343	Not supported
BI → PB	H <sub>3</sub>	0.445	0.003	Supported
AB → BI	H <sub>4</sub>	0.918	0.000	Supported

*Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase.*

### 5.3.2 Results for Domestos Advertisement in the isiXhosa Language

Because a five-point Likert scale was used in this study, the minimum and maximum scores calculated varied from one (*strongly disagree*) to five (*strongly agree*). The next step in the analysis was to ascertain the percentage of respondents who agreed or disagreed with each construct. For this study, mean values were used as measures of central tendency, while standard deviation data were used to calculate the variance of answers on each variable. The relationship between the mean and the standard deviation, according to Hair et al. (2010b), is that a modest estimated standard deviation (SD) indicates that respondents’ responses were consistent and that response distributions were close to the mean. Conversely, a large standard deviation indicates that the responses vary, making the response distribution values fall away from the mean of the distribution (Maziriri, Chuchu & Madinga, 2019). Moreover, the standard deviation value “should be less than 1 but it is recommended to at least include a value of less than 2 to ensure that there is no issue of outliers” (Drost, 2011, p. 87). Table 5.6 illustrates the basic descriptive statistics for the items and pre-set constructs, including means and standard deviations.

For all of the constructs studied in the study, mean scores ranging from 1.21 to 2.76 (out of 5.0) were obtained, as shown in Table 5.6. These results show a general preference for the *disagree* and *neutral* positions on the Likert scales. The link between the mean and the SD, according to Hair et al. (2010a), is that a small, estimated SD indicates that respondents' responses were consistent and that the response distributions are close to the mean. A significant SD, on the other hand, implies that the responses fluctuate, causing the response distribution values to deviate from the mean (Hair et al., 2010a). According to Table 5.6, the greatest SD value was 1.344, while the lowest SD value was 0.509. The data points are clustered around the mean, according to this information. The SD values are less than 2, indicating that no outliers were present.

**Table 5.6: Descriptive Statistical Results (Xhosa Domestos Advertisement)**

Scale	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
<b>Purchase Behaviour</b>				<b>1.6613</b>	<b>0.83731</b>
AB1	155	1	5	1.76	0.981
AB2	155	1	5	1.56	0.853
<b>Attitudes to the Brand</b>				<b>1.4742</b>	<b>0.63141</b>
AT1	155	1	5	1.43	0.720
AT2	155	1	5	1.28	0.532
AT3	155	1	5	1.51	0.715
AT4	155	1	5	1.68	0.953
<b>Social Norms related to the Brand</b>				<b>2.2473</b>	<b>0.86109</b>
SN1	155	1	5	1.92	0.926
SN2	155	1	5	2.76	1.344
SN3	155	1	5	2.06	1.103
<b>Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand</b>				<b>1.3011</b>	<b>0.48316</b>
PB1	155	1	5	1.41	0.736
PB2	155	1	5	1.28	0.532
PB3	155	1	5	1.21	0.509
<b>Intention to Purchase</b>				<b>1.4796</b>	<b>0.69536</b>
BI1	155	1	5	1.39	0.725
BI2	155	1	5	1.60	0.865
BI3	155	1	5	1.45	0.766

Source: Author (2021)

### 5.3.2.1 SEM Results for Xhosa Domestos

This section presents SEM results for the Xhosa Domestos. Table 5.7 below presents the outcomes of the CFA assessment.

**Table 5.7: Psychometric Properties of Measurement Scales (Xhosa Domestos Advertisement)**

Research constructs		Item-to-total-correlation values	$\alpha$ values	CR	AVE	Factor loadings
Codes	Code items					
AB	AB1	0.665	0.799	0.800	0.660	0.838
	AB2	0.666				0.789
AT	AT1	0.801	0.884	0.890	0.660	0.849
	AT2	0.688				0.767
	AT3	0.761				0.828
	AT4	0.736				0.802
SN	SN2	0.512	0.632	0.603	0.410	0.587
	SN3	0.522				0.688
PB	PB1	0.566	0.743	0.750	0.500	0.696
	PB2	0.620				0.788
	PB3	0.515				0.639
BI	BI1	0.781	0.863	0.860	0.680	0.891
	BI2	0.713				0.792
	BI3	0.720				0.788

*Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase; SD = Standard Deviation; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted.*

A further analysis of Table 5.7 reveals that, on SN, one item (SN1) was deleted, since the item-to-total-correlation value was less than 0.5. This item was deleted because it did not meet convergent validity: It did not measure at least 50% of what it was supposed to measure. As such, the item did not require further analysis.

According to Zikmund et al. (2013, p. 306), reliability thresholds in data analysis range from zero to one. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.80 to 1 are considered good dependability, according to Bryman and Bell (2017, p. 28). Values between 0.70 and 0.80, on the other hand, indicate strong reliability, while those between 0.60 and 0.70 indicate average reliability (Babin & Zikmund, 2016, p. 281). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients in this sub-study ranged from 0.632 to 0.884, as indicated in Table 5.7. As a result, "adequate evidence of

internal consistency reliability” (Nunnally, 1978, p. 245) can be determined among the scale items employed in this study.

Cronbach’s alpha is a precise technique that can be influenced by the number of variables in the scale, which is a significant flaw in utilising it as a measure of internal consistency reliability. The coefficients regularly increase or decrease when the number of scale items utilised in a study increases or decreases (Pallant, 2011, p. 6). Because each scale employed in this study consisted of short scales, each with less than ten questions, the average inter-item correlation coefficients are provided as an additional measure of internal consistency. The average inter-item correlation coefficients recorded for all sub-scales ranged between 0.512 to 0.801, indicating the internal consistency dependability of the scale items employed in this study.

The loading of each item on its respective construct is also observed in Table 5.7. The lowest factor loading for each study component is 0.587; therefore, all factor loadings are higher than the recommended value of 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Because all of the individual items converged well and more than half of each item’s variance was shared with its corresponding construct, this shows that all of the measurement instruments are acceptable and dependable (Fraering & Minor, 2006).

The CR and AVE for each component were also calculated and evaluated to see if they satisfied the required reliability and validity limits. The lowest obtained CR value (0.603) is significantly higher than the required 0.6 (Hulland, 1999), and the lowest obtained AVE value (0.410) is also higher than the recommended 0.4 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). This suggests that convergent validity was attained, validating the measuring devices’ good internal consistency and reliability. “As a result, all pairs of constructs showed appropriate discriminant validity” (see Table 3). These findings, on the whole, supported acceptable levels of research scale reliability” (Chinomona & Chinomona, 2013, p. 20; Chinomona & Mofokeng, 2016).

### **5.3.2.2 Discriminant Validity**

Measurement instrument validity, specifically discriminant validity, is assessed using the inter-construct correlation matrix (Ab-Hamid et al., 2017). The correlations between constructs were checked to see if they were less than one. The lower the validity of certain variables, the higher the correlation between them (Kafetzopoulos et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2011). To establish discriminant validity, the inter-construct correlation values must be less than 0.6 and, in rare

circumstances, less than 0.85. The highest and lowest correlation values were 0.246 and 0.783, respectively. Because these correlation values are less than 0.85, it may be stated that all of the constructs have discriminant validity (Morar et al., 2015).

**Table 5.8: Correlation Matrix (Xhosa Domestos Advertisement)**

Correlations					
	AB	AT	SN	PB	BI
AB	1	.783**	.342**	.444**	.673**
AT	.783**	1	.381**	.579**	.762**
SN	.342**	.381**	1	.246**	.353**
PB	.444**	.579**	.246**	1	.600**
BI	.673**	.762**	.353**	.600**	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase.

### 5.3.2.3 Measurement Model Assessment

The reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the multi-item construct measures were investigated using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Overall acceptable CFA fit metrics were employed in this investigation. According to Schreiber et al., the chi-square (CMIN/DF) value must be between 1 and 3 to satisfy the acceptable level (2006). To be considered acceptable, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (IFI), and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) must all be equal to or greater than 0.90 (Hu & Bentler, 1995). To be acceptable, the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) must be equal to or less than 0.08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The suggested figures show a good data fit for the general model's final evaluation, namely,  $\chi^2/(df) = 1.194$ , GFI=0.934, TLI=0.984, IFI=0.989, CFI=0.989, NFI=0.938, RFI=908 and RMSEA=0.068.

### 5.3.2.4 CFA Model Fit Assessment

The CFA model is illustrated in diagram form in Figure 5.3. The circular or oval shapes represent latent variables, while the rectangular shapes represent observable variables.

Measurement errors, which are also represented by circular shapes, sit beside the observed variables. The connection between latent variables is shown by bi-directional arrows.

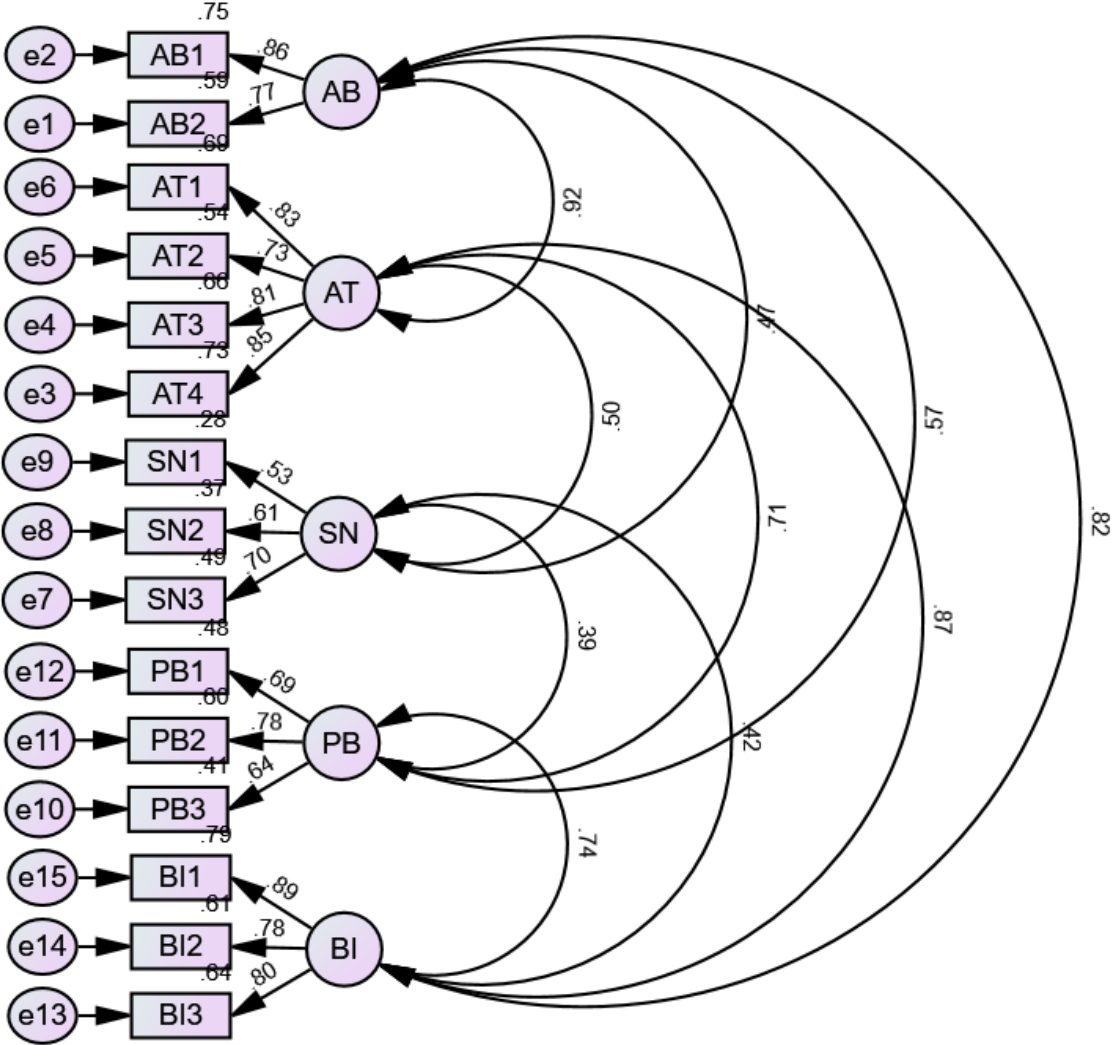


Figure 5.3: CFA Model (Xhosa Domestos Advertisement)

The results of the CFA were satisfactory and, therefore, structural equation modelling (SEM) was applied. A model fit analysis was performed for the SEM phase before testing the hypotheses. The results show that the ratio between the chi-square and the degree of freedom was 1.579. This is below the recommended 3.0 threshold and confirms the fitness of the model. The recommended thresholds were respectively met by CFI, RMSEA, NFI, TLI, IFI, and GFI

values, which were 0.969, 0.061, 0.921, 0.957, 0.970 and 0.913 (West et al., 2012). The anticipated conceptual model converged well and made it possible for the data collected. The hypothesis path modelling test was developed to regulate the strengths and weaknesses of causal relationships. Figure 5.4 displays the structural model.

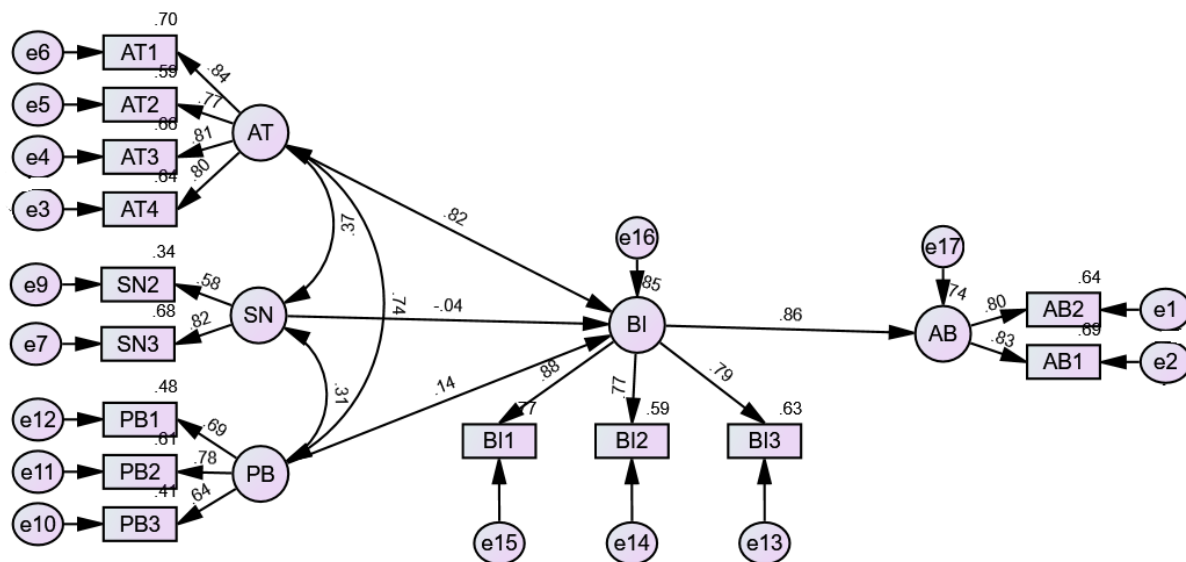


Figure 5.4: Structural model (Xhosa Domestos Advertisement)

### 5.3.2.5 Hypothesis Testing for the Domestos Xhosa-language Advertisement

Path coefficient values and structural model p-values were used to determine the hypothesis testing in this investigation. The associations of constructs provided in this work generated the coefficients of pathways in the model. These coefficients were at the core of the hypothesis testing.

#### *i Hypothesis 5*

Hypothesis 5 states, *Consumers' attitudes to the brand have a positive and significant impact on intention to purchase.* Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between attitudes to the Domestos brand and intention to purchase shows a  $\beta = 0.825$  and a p-value of 0.000. Hypothesis 5 is *supported* by the evidence presented herein. As a result, it is worth mentioning that brand attitudes have a positive and significant influence on purchase

intent. It is also worth noting that these findings back up the findings of Kim et al. (2011), which revealed that attitude is positively connected with purchase intention.

**ii Hypothesis 6**

Hypothesis 6 asserts, *Subjective social norms related to the brand have a positive and significant impact on consumers' intention to purchase*. The final structural model presents the relationship between social norms and intention to purchase Domestos and results in a coefficient  $\beta = -0.036$  and a p-value of 0.556. Thus, Hypothesis 6 is *not supported*. These results mean that social norms are negatively and insignificantly related to intention to purchase. It is also essential to mention that these findings corroborate the results obtained in the works of Mafini et al. (2016).

**iii Hypothesis 7**

Hypothesis 7 states, *Intention to purchase has a positive and significant impact on attitudes towards the brand*. Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between intention to purchase and attitudes to the Domestos brand shows a  $\beta = 0.859$  and a p-value of 0.000. This evidence demonstrates that Hypothesis 7 is *supported*. Hence, it can be noted that the intention to purchase positively and significantly influences attitudes to the brand. A summary of the hypotheses results is shown in Table 5.9 below.

**iv Hypothesis 8**

Hypothesis 8 asserts, *Perceived behavioural control related to the brand has a positive and significant impact on consumers' intention to purchase*. The final structural model presents the relationship between social norms and intention to purchase and results in a coefficient  $\beta = 0.140$  and a p-value of 0.143. Thus, Hypothesis 8 is *not supported*. These results mean that social norms related to the brand positively influence the intention to purchase; however, social norms have an insignificant influence on the intention to purchase. It is also essential to mention that these findings corroborate the results obtained in the works of Morar et al. (2015).

**Table 5.9: Summary of the Hypothesis Testing (Xhosa Domestos Advertisement)**

Relationships	Hypothesis	Path Coefficient $\beta$	p-Value	Remarks
BI → AT	H <sub>5</sub>	0.825	0.000	Supported
BI → SN	H <sub>6</sub>	-0.036	0.556	Not supported

Relationships	Hypothesis	Path Coefficient $\beta$	p-Value	Remarks
BI → PB	H <sub>7</sub>	0.140	0.143	Not supported
AB → BI	H <sub>8</sub>	0.859	0.000	Supported

Note: AB= Purchase Behaviour; AT=Attitudes to the Brand; SN=Social Norms related to the Brand; PB=Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI= Intention to Purchase.

## 5.4 TPB Results for Sunlight Advertisement

### 5.4.1 Results for Sunlight Advertisements in the English Language

Since this study used a five-point Likert scale, the minimum and maximum values computed ranged from one (*strongly disagree*) to five (*strongly agree*). Following that, the level of agreement or disagreement among respondents for each construct was determined. For this study, mean values were computed to measure central tendency, and standard deviation values were computed to measure the variance of responses on each variable. As posited by Hair et al. (2010a), the relationship between the mean and the standard deviation is that a small estimated standard deviation (SD) denotes that respondents' responses were consistent and that the response distributions lay close to the mean. Conversely, a large standard deviation indicates that the responses vary, making the response distribution values fall away from the mean of the distribution (Maziriri, Chuchu & Madinga, 2019). Moreover, the standard deviation value "should be less than 1 but it is recommended to at least include a value of less than 2 to ensure that there is no issue of outliers" (Drost; 2011, p. 87). Table 5.10 exhibits the basic descriptive statistics for the items and predetermined constructs, including means and standard deviations.

For all of the constructs tested in the study, mean scores ranging from 1.09 to 3.51 (out of 5.0) were obtained, as shown in Table 5.10. These results show a general preference for the *neutral* and *agree* positions on the Likert scales. The mean and SD have a link, according to Hair et al. (2010a), in that a small, estimated SD suggests that respondents' responses were consistent and that the response distributions are close to the mean. A significant SD, on the other hand, implies that the responses differ, leading the response distribution values to differ from the mean (Hair et al., 2010a). Table 5.10 also reveals that the highest SD value was reported at 1.266 and the lowest SD value was 0.881. This information indicates that the data points are

clustered around the mean. The SD values are below 2; hence, it indicates that there was no presence of outliers.

**Table 5.10: Descriptive Statistics (English Sunlight Advertisement)**

Scale	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
<b>Purchase Behaviour</b>				<b>1.6613</b>	<b>0.83731</b>
AB1	155	1	5	1.76	0.981
AB2	155	1	5	1.56	0.853
<b>Attitudes to the Brand</b>				<b>1.4742</b>	<b>0.63141</b>
AT1	155	1	5	1.17	0.507
AT2	155	1	5	1.16	0.434
AT3	155	1	5	1.25	0.620
AT4	155	1	5	1.26	0.596
<b>Social Norms related to the Brand</b>				<b>2.2473</b>	<b>0.86109</b>
SN1	155	1	5	1.47	0.816
SN2	155	1	5	3.51	1.470
SN3	155	1	5	2.08	1.184
<b>Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand</b>				<b>1.3011</b>	<b>0.48316</b>
PB1	155	1	5	1.24	0.548
PB2	155	1	5	1.15	0.413
PB3	155	1	5	1.09	0.309
<b>Intention to Purchase</b>				<b>1.4796</b>	<b>0.69536</b>
BI1	155	1	5	1.23	0.612
BI2	155	1	5	1.48	0.935
BI3	155	1	5	1.28	0.662

Source: Author (2021)

#### 5.4.1.1 SEM Results for English Sunlight

The results section focuses on the results of the structural equation modelling (SEM) and

discussions for an English advertisement for Sunlight. Table 5.11 presents the outcomes of the CFA assessment.

**Table 5.11: Psychometric Properties of Measurement Scales (English Sunlight Advertisement)**

Research constructs		Item-to-total-correlation values	$\alpha$ values	CR	AVE	Factor loadings
Codes	Code items					
<b>AB</b>	AB1	0.665	0.799	0.840	0.730	0.813
	AB2	0.669				0.889
<b>AT</b>	AT1	0.530	0.775	0.930	0.760	0.913
	AT2	0.711				0.849
	AT3	0.537				0.806
	AT4	0.510				0.920
<b>SN</b>	SN1	0.529	0.603	0.720	0.460	0.713
	SN2	0.555				0.562
	SN3	0.584				0.750
<b>PB</b>	PB1	0.566	0.705	0.670	0.530	0.501
	PB2	0.562				0.895
<b>BI</b>	BI1	0.523	0.696	0.870	0.700	0.843
	BI2	0.577				0.800
	BI3	0.512				0.865

*Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase; SD = Standard Deviation; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted.*

Table 5.11 reveals that, on PB, one item (PB3) was deleted, since the item-to-total-correlation value was less than 0.5. It is worth mentioning that this item was deleted because it did not meet convergent validity; it did not measure at least 50% of what it was supposed to measure. As such, the item did not require further analysis. The thresholds for reliability should range between zero and one (Zikmund et al., 2013, p. 306). Cronbach's alpha coefficients between 0.80 to 1 point, according to Bryman and Bell (2017, p. 28), indicate acceptable reliability. Values between 0.70 and 0.80, on the other hand, indicate strong reliability, while those

between 0.60 and 0.70 indicate average reliability (Babin & Zikmund 2016, p. 281). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients in this study ranged from 0.603 to 0.799, as indicated in Table 5.11. As a result, "significant evidence of internal consistency dependability" (Nunnally, 1978, p. 245) can be determined among the scale items employed in this thesis.

The alpha coefficient is a testing method that is influenced by the number of variables in the scale, which is a major flaw in using Cronbach's alpha test statistic to assess internal consistency reliability. The coefficients regularly increase or decrease when the number of scale items utilised in a study increases or decreases (Pallant, 2011, p. 6). Because each scale utilised in this study comprised short scales with less than ten questions, the average inter-item correlation coefficients are provided as an additional measure of internal consistency. The average inter-item correlation coefficients across all sub-scales were observed to be between 0.510 and 0.711, indicating that the scale items employed in this study were logically coherent and trustworthy.

Table 5.11 also demonstrates how each construct is loaded with each item. The lowest factor loading value for each of the research constructs is 0.501; all factor loadings are higher than the recommended value of 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Because all of the individual items converged well and more than half of each item's variance was shared with its corresponding construct, this shows that all of the measurement instruments are acceptable and dependable (Fraering & Minor, 2006). The CR and AVE for each component were also calculated and evaluated to see if they satisfied the required reliability and validity thresholds. The lowest CR value (0.670) achieved is substantially over the acceptable 0.6 (Hulland, 1999), whereas the lowest acquired AVE value (0.460) is well above the recommended 0.4 (Hulland, 1999; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). This suggests that convergent validity was attained, validating the measuring devices' good internal consistency and reliability. "As a result, all pairs of constructs showed appropriate discriminant validity" (see Table 5.11). These findings, on the whole, supported acceptable levels of research scale reliability" (Chinomona & Chinomona, 2013, p. 20; Chinomona & Mofokeng, 2016).

#### **5.4.1.2 Discriminant Validity**

Measurement instrument validity, particularly discriminant validity, is assessed using the inter-construct correlation matrix (Ab-Hamid et al., 2017). The correlations between constructs were examined to check if they were less than one. The stronger the correlation between variables,

the less reliable they are (Kafetzopoulos et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2011). The inter-construct correlation values must be below 0.6 and, in some cases, below 0.85 to indicate discriminant validity. According to Table 12, the highest correlation value was 0.848 and the lowest correlation value was -0.016. These correlation values are below 0.85; therefore, it can be concluded that there is discriminant validity between all the constructs (Morar et al., 2015).

**Table 5.12: Correlation Matrix (English Sunlight Advertisement)**

<b>Correlations</b>					
	<b>AB</b>	<b>AT</b>	<b>SN</b>	<b>PB</b>	<b>BI</b>
<b>AB</b>	1	.043	.129	-.016	-.016
<b>AT</b>	.043	1	.241**	.564**	.448**
<b>SN</b>	.129	.241**	1	.209**	.148
<b>PB</b>	-.016	.564**	.209**	1	.498**
<b>BI</b>	-.016	.448**	.148	.498**	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase.

The CFA model is depicted in diagram form in Figure 5.5. The round or oval shape represents latent variables, while the rectangular shape represents observable variables. Measurement errors, also represented by circular shapes, sit beside the observed variables. The link between latent variables is shown by bi-directional arrows.

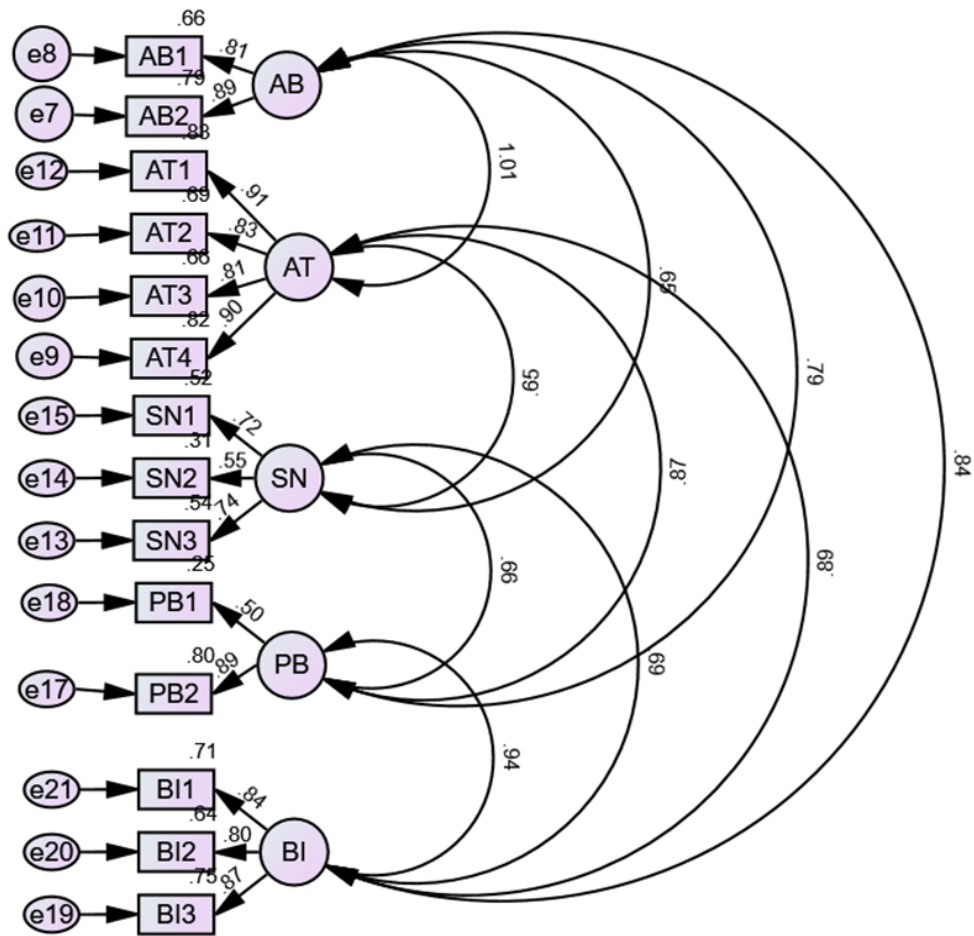


Figure 5.5: CFA Model (English Sunlight Advertisement)

### 5.4.1.3 CFA Model Fit Assessments

A CFA was performed to determine the accuracy of the measurement instruments for each construct using AMOS Version 27.0. Table 5.13 displays the results of the conceptual model fit assessment, which will be discussed further below. The results in Table 5.13 show the acceptable goodness-of-fit of the model. In light of the aforementioned results, it could be suggested that all the indicators meet the acceptable thresholds of equal or greater than 0.9 for GFI, NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI, CFI and equal or less than 0.08 for RMSEA. All these measures confirm a robust and acceptable model fit (Schreiber et al., 2010).

**Table 5.13: Model Fit Results (CFA) (English Sunlight Advertisement)**

Model criteria	CMIN	(DF)	Chi-square ( $\chi^2/DF$ )	GFI	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Indicator value	1	.043	.129	-.016	-.016	1	.043	.129	-.016	-.016

#### 5.4.1.4 Structural Model Assessment and Hypothesis Testing

Since the acceptable confirmatory factor analysis measurement model fit was secured, the study proceeded to the next stages of the analysis of the SEM model fit and the structural model path analysis. The measurement of model fit of this study was done using the following indices: chi-square value over degree of freedom, GFI, NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI, CFI, and RMSEA. Table 5 reports the structural equation model fit results. In light of the results shown in Table 5.14, it could be suggested that all the indicators are meeting the acceptable thresholds of equal to or greater than 0.9 for GFI, NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI, CFI and equal to or less than 0.08 for RMSEA (Bentler, 1990; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Marsh et al., 2004). Therefore, it could be concluded that the data confirms and fits the acceptability of the model.

**Table 5.14: SEM Model Fit Indexes (English Sunlight Advertisement)**

Fit indices	Acceptable threshold	Study test results	Decision
Chi-square (CMIN/DF)	Tabled chi-square less than or equal to 3	1.747	Accepted
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	Value equal to or greater than 0.90	0.906	Accepted
Normed fit index (NFI)	Value equal to or greater than 0.90	0.936	Accepted
Relative fit index (RFI)	Value equal to or greater than 0.90	0.909	Accepted
Increment fit index (IFI)	Value equal to or greater than 0.90	0.971	Accepted
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	Value equal to or greater than 0.90	0.959	Accepted
Comparative fit index (CFI)	Value equal to or greater than 0.90	0.971	Accepted
Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)	Less than 0.08	0.070	Accepted

### 5.4.1.5 Structural Model Path Analysis

The path analysis of a structural model entails estimating presumed causal relationships between observed variables (Garson, 2008, p. 2). Path coefficients are single-headed arrows that represent relationships between variables in SEM. Figure 5.6 depicts the path diagram for the model structure. The latent variables are represented by circular or oval shapes, similar to the CFA model, while measurement items are represented by rectangles. Measuring items in circular shapes are followed by measurement errors, and unidirectional arrows between latent variables are used to convey causal relationships.

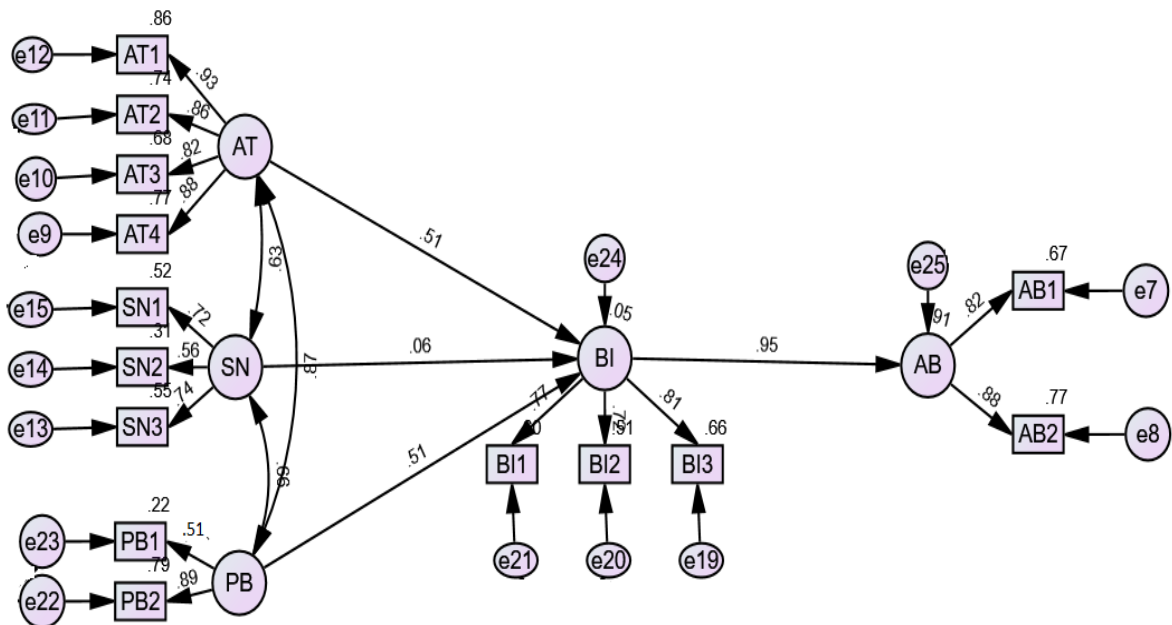


Figure 5.6: SEM Path Model Structure (English Sunlight Advertisement)

### 5.4.1.6 Hypothesis Testing for Sunlight English-language Advertisement

The preliminary hypotheses developed from the research hypotheses and objectives outlined in Chapter 1 are presented in this section. In analysing the correlations between latent variables, the study's hypotheses were tested. Table 5.15 shows the outcomes of the hypothesis test. These data verified the model's appropriateness as well as the three hypotheses. The proposed conceptual model converged effectively, according to model fit statistics.

### ***i Hypothesis 1***

Hypothesis 1 states, *Consumers' attitudes to the brand have a positive and significant impact on intention to purchase*. Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between attitudes to the Sunlight brand and intention to purchase shows a  $\beta = 0.512$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.006. This evidence demonstrates that Hypothesis 1 is *supported*. Hence, it can be noted that attitudes to the brand positively and significantly influence the intention to purchase. It is also worth mentioning that these findings reinforce the results obtained in the study of Chinomona and Mofokeng (2016), who found that attitude is positively correlated to purchase intentions among consumers.

### ***ii Hypothesis 2***

Hypothesis 2 asserts, *Subjective social norms related to the brand have a positive and significant impact on consumers' intention to purchase*. The final structural model presents the relationship between social norms and intention to purchase Sunlight and results in a coefficient  $\beta = 0.055$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.448. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is *not supported*. These results mean that social norms related to the brand positively influence the intention to purchase, but the social norms have an insignificant influence on the intention to purchase. It is also important to note that these findings corroborate the findings of Fraering and Minor (2006).

### ***iii Hypothesis 3***

Hypothesis 3 states, *Intention to purchase has a positive and significant impact on attitudes towards the brand*. Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between intention to purchase Sunlight and attitudes to the brand shows a  $\beta = 0.953$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.000. This evidence demonstrates that Hypothesis 3 is *supported*. Hence, it can be noted that the intention to purchase positively and significantly influences attitudes to the brand. It is also worth mentioning that these findings reinforce the results obtained in the study of Denford and Chan (2011), who found that intention to purchase has a significant impact on attitudes to the brand.

### ***iv Hypothesis 4***

Hypothesis 4 states, *Perceived behavioural control related to the brand has a positive and significant impact on consumers' intention to purchase*. Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between perceived behavioural control related to the Sunlight brand

and intention to purchase Sunlight shows a  $\beta = 0.512$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.029. This evidence demonstrates that Hypothesis 4 is *supported*. Hence, it can be noted that perceived behavioural control related to the brand positively and significantly influences the intention to purchase. It is also worth mentioning that these findings reinforce the results obtained in the study of Yun and Park (2010), who found that perceived behavioural control is positively correlated to intention to purchase.

**Table 5.15: Summary of Hypothesis Testing (English Sunlight Advertisement)**

Relationships	Hypothesis	Path Coefficient $\beta$	$p$ -Value	Remarks
BI $\rightarrow$ AT	H <sub>1</sub>	0.512	0.006	Supported
BI $\rightarrow$ SN	H <sub>2</sub>	0.055	0.448	Not supported
BI $\rightarrow$ PB	H <sub>3</sub>	0.512	0.029	Supported
AB $\rightarrow$ BI	H <sub>4</sub>	0.953	0.000***	Supported

Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase.

#### **5.4.2 Results for Sunlight Advertisements in the isiXhosa Language**

As this study used a five-point Likert scale, the minimum and maximum values computed ranged from one (*strongly disagree*) to five (*strongly agree*). The analysis then determined the level of agreement or disagreement among respondents for each construct. For this study, mean values were computed to measure central tendency, and standard deviation values were computed to measure the variance of responses on each variable. As posited by Hair et al. (2010a), the relationship between the mean and the standard deviation is that a small estimated standard deviation (SD) denotes that respondents' responses were consistent and that the response distributions lay close to the mean. Conversely, a large standard deviation indicates that the responses vary, making the response distribution values fall away from the mean of the distribution (Maziriri, Chuchu & Madinga, 2019). Moreover, the standard deviation value "should be less than 1 but it is recommended to at least include a value of less than 2 to ensure that there is no issue of outliers" (Drost; 2011, p. 87). Table 5.16 shows the basic descriptive statistics for the items and predetermined constructs, including means and standard deviations.

**Table 5.16: Descriptive statistics (Xhosa Sunlight Advertisement)**

Scale	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
<b>Purchase Behaviour</b>				<b>3.32</b>	<b>1.675</b>
AB1	155	1	5	1.76	0.981
AB2	155	1	5	1.56	0.853
<b>Attitudes to the Brand</b>				<b>5.90</b>	<b>2.526</b>
AT1	155	1	5	1.43	0.720
AT2	155	1	5	1.28	0.532
AT3	155	1	5	1.51	0.715
AT4	155	1	5	1.68	0.953
<b>Social Norms related to the Brand</b>				<b>6.74</b>	<b>2.583</b>
SN1	155	1	5	1.92	0.926
SN2	155	1	5	2.76	1.344
SN3	155	1	5	2.06	1.103
<b>Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand</b>				<b>3.90</b>	<b>1.449</b>
PB1	155	1	5	1.41	0.736
PB2	155	1	5	1.28	0.532
PB3	155	1	5	1.21	0.509
<b>Intention to Purchase</b>				<b>4.44</b>	<b>2.086</b>
BI1	155	1	5	1.39	0.725
BI2	155	1	5	1.60	0.865
BI3	155	1	5	1.45	0.766

Source: Author (2021)

For all of the constructs tested in the study, mean scores ranging from 1.21 to 2.76 (out of 5.0) were obtained, as shown in Table 5.16. These results show a general preference for the *neutral* and *agree* positions on the Likert scales. The link between the mean and the SD, according to Hair et al. (2010a), is that a small, estimated SD indicates that respondents' responses were consistent and that the response distributions are close to the mean. A significant SD, on the other hand, implies that the responses fluctuate, causing the response distribution values to deviate from the mean (Hair et al., 2010a). Table 5.16 also shows that the greatest SD value

was 1.344 and the lowest SD value was 0.509. The data points are clustered around the mean, according to this information. The SD values are less than 2, indicating that no outliers were present.

#### **5.4.2.1 SEM Results for Xhosa Sunlight**

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results and the hypothesis tests using structural equation modelling (SEM) are discussed in the results section. A CFA is a factor analysis that is used to see whether measures of a construct are compatible with the nature of the construct (Kline, 2011). The SEM method is used to assess latent (unobservable) interactions between variables like dependent and independent constructs (Mafini et al., 2016; Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). A CFA was used to determine the construct's reliability, validity, and model fit by evaluating the psychometric features of the measurement scales.

Since the item-to-total-correlation values were less than 0.5, one item (PB3) on PB and one item (SN1) on SN were eliminated. All of these items (excluding PB3 and SN1) were removed because they failed to fulfil convergent validity, which means they did not measure at least half of what they were designed to assess. As a result, there was no need to look into the goods further. Reliability thresholds in data analysis can range from zero to one, according to Zikmund et al. (2013, p. 306). In a similar spirit, Bryman and Bell (2017, p. 28) claimed that Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.80 to 1 point indicate acceptable reliability. Values between 0.70 and 0.80, on the other hand, show good reliability, whereas those between 0.60 and 0.70 depict fair reliability (Babin & Zikmund 2016, p. 281). Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging between 0.603 and 0.799 were reported in this study, as shown in Table 5.17, which also presents the outcomes of the CFA assessment.

**Table 5.17: Psychometric Properties of Measurement Scales (Xhosa Sunlight Advertisement)**

Research constructs		Item-to-total-correlation values	$\alpha$ values	CR	AVE	Factor loadings
Codes	Code items					
<b>AB</b>	AB1	0.563	0.721	0.810	0.680	0.889
	AB2	0.563				0.749
<b>AT</b>	AT1	0.524	0.615	0.780	0.470	0.601
	AT2	0.532				0.831
	AT3	0.561				0.660
	AT4	0.579				0.624
<b>SN</b>	SN2	0.655	0.603	0.630	0.470	0.559
	SN3	0.684				0.795
<b>PB</b>	PB1	0.566	0.705	0.760	0.630	0.578
	PB2	0.562				0.962
<b>BI</b>	BI1	0.523	0.696	0.670	0.410	0.716
	BI2	0.501				0.556
	BI3	0.512				0.631

Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase; SD = Standard Deviation; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted.

One significant disadvantage of using Cronbach's alpha as a measure of internal consistency reliability is that the alpha coefficient is a sensitive test that can be influenced by the number of variables in the scale. In particular, the coefficients either increase or decrease consistently with an increase or decrease in the number of scale items used in a study (Pallant, 2011, p. 6). As a result, the average inter-item correlation coefficients are outlined as an additional test of internal consistency since each scale used in this study consisted of short scales with less than ten items. The reported average inter-item correlation coefficients ranged between 0.510 and 0.711 across all sub-scales, indicating the internal consistency reliability of the scale items used in this study (Table 5.11).

Table 5.17 shows the loading of each item on its construct. The lowest value for each factor loading for the research constructs is 0.501; therefore, all the factor loadings exceed the

recommended value of 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). This indicates that all the measurement instruments are acceptable and reliable, since all the individual items converged well and with more than 50% of each item's variance shared with its respective construct (Fraering & Minor, 2006).

CR and AVE for each construct were also computed and assessed to determine whether they met the required thresholds for reliability and validity. As per the results shown in Table 5.17, the lowest CR value (0.603) is well above the recommended 0.6 (Hulland, 1999), while the lowest obtained AVE value (0.410) is above the recommended 0.4 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). This indicates that convergent validity was achieved, further confirming excellent internal consistency and reliability of the measurement instruments used. "As such, all pairs of constructs revealed an adequate level of discriminant validity [see Table 5.17]. By and large, these results provided evidence for acceptable levels of research scale reliability" (Chinomona & Chinomona, 2013, p. 20; Chinomona & Mofokeng, 2016).

#### **5.4.2.2 Discriminant Validity**

The inter-construct correlation matrix is used to examine measurement instrument validity, particularly discriminant validity (Ab-Hamid et al., 2017). The correlations between constructs were assessed to check whether they were less than one. The lower the validity of certain variables, the greater the correlation between them (Kafetzopoulos et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2011). To establish discriminant validity, the inter-construct correlation values must be less than 0.6 and sometimes less than 0.85. The maximum correlation value was 0.498, and the lowest correlation value was -.002, as shown in Table 5.18. Because these correlations are less than 0.85, it is possible to assume that all of the constructs have discriminant validity (Morar et al., 2015).

**Table 5.18: Correlation Matrix (Xhosa Sunlight Advertisement)**

Correlations					
	AB	AT	SN	PB	BI
AB	1	-.002	-.004	-.070	.006
AT	-.002	1	.153	.454**	.369**
SN	-.004	.153	1	.209**	.148
PB	-.070	.454**	.209**	1	.498**
BI	.006	.369**	.148	.498**	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase.

### 5.4.2.3 CFA Model Fit Assessments

A CFA was implemented to determine the accuracy of the measurement instruments for the respective constructs using AMOS Version 27.0. Table 5.19 indicates the results pertaining to the conceptual model fit assessment, which are discussed below the table. The results in Table 5.19 show the acceptable goodness-of-fit of the model. In light of these results, it can be said that all the indicators meet the acceptable thresholds of equal or greater than 0.9 for GFI, NFI, IFI, TLI, CFI and equal or less than 0.08 for RMSEA. All these measures confirm a robust and acceptable model fit (Schreiber et al., 2010, p. 330).

**Table 5.19: Model fit results (CFA) (Xhosa Sunlight Advertisement)**

Model fit criteria	CMIN	(DF)	Chi-square ( $\chi^2/DF$ )	GFI	NFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Indicator value	65.409	53	1.234	0.936	0.904	0.980	0.970	0.980	0.39

### 5.4.2.4 Measurement Model

The CFA model is depicted diagrammatically in Figure 5.7.

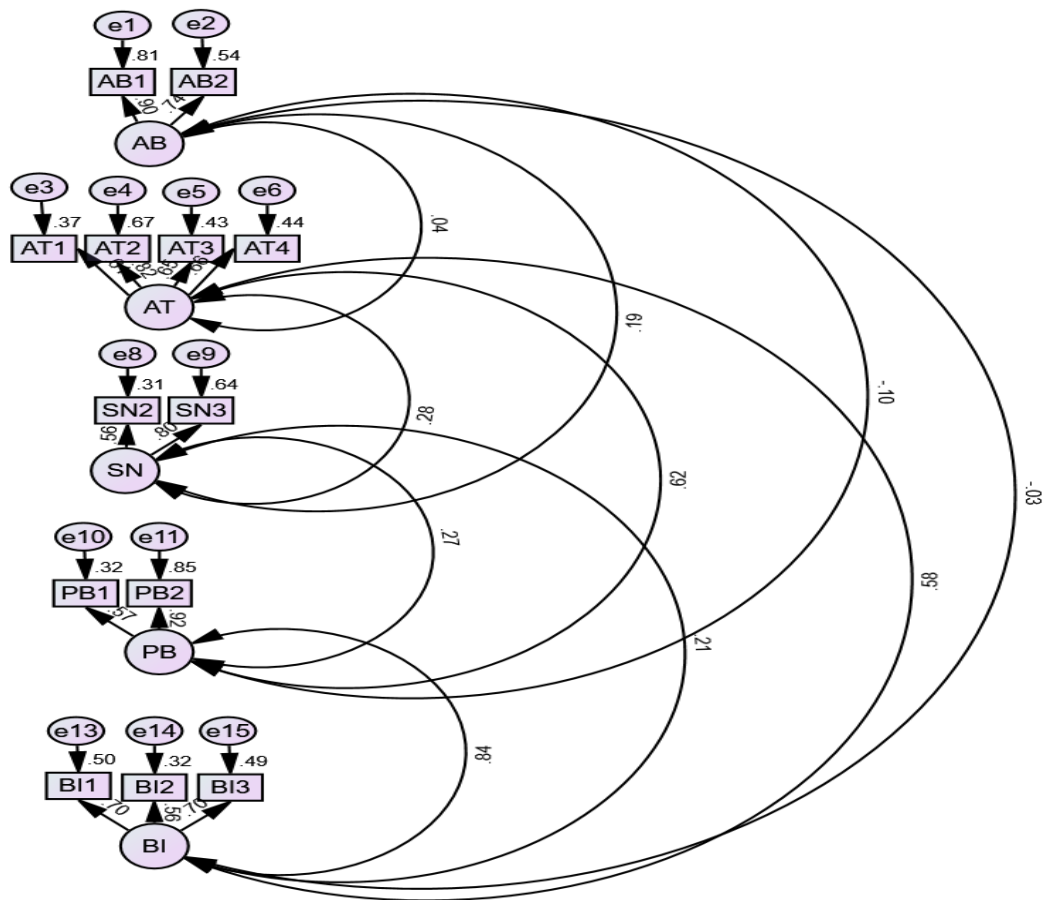


Figure 5.7: CFA Model (Xhosa Sunlight Advertisement)

#### 5.4.2.5 Structural Model Assessment and Hypothesis Testing

The study moved on to the next stages of the analysis of the SEM model fit and the structural model path analysis after obtaining an acceptable confirmatory factor analysis measurement model fit. The following indices were used to assess model fit in this study: chi-square value over degree of freedom, GFI, NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI, CFI, and RMSEA. Table 5.20 reports the structural equation model fit results.

**Table 5.20: SEM Model Fit Indexes (Xhosa Sunlight Advertisement)**

<b>Fit indices</b>	<b>Acceptable threshold</b>	<b>Study test results</b>	<b>Decision</b>
Chi-square (CMIN/DF)	Tabled chi-square less than or equal to 3	1.554	Accepted
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	Value equal to or greater than 0.90	0.924	Accepted
Increment fit index (IFI)	Value equal to or greater than 0.90	0.938	Accepted
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	Value equal to or greater than 0.90	0.906	Accepted
Comparative fit index (CFI)	Value equal to or greater than 0.90	0.935	Accepted
Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)	Less than 0.08	0.060	Accepted

Based on the results in Table 5.20, it is possible to conclude that all of the indicators meet the acceptable thresholds of equal or greater than 0.9 for GFI, IFI, TLI, and CFI and equal or less than 0.08 for RMSEA (Bentler, 1990, p. 243; Browne & Cudeck, 1993, p. 137; Marsh et al., 2004). As an outcome, it is possible to conclude that the data confirms and fits the acceptability of the model.

#### **5.4.2.6 The Structural Model Path Analysis**

The structural model path function is achieved by estimating presumed causal relationships between observed variables (Garson, 2008, p. 2). Relationships between variables are referred to as path coefficients in SEM and are represented by single-headed arrows. Figure 5.8 shows the path diagram for the model structure. The latent variables are represented by circles or ovals in the CFA model, while measurement items are represented by rectangles. Measurement errors are displayed next to measurement items in circular shapes, and unidirectional arrows between latent variables are used to convey causal relationships.

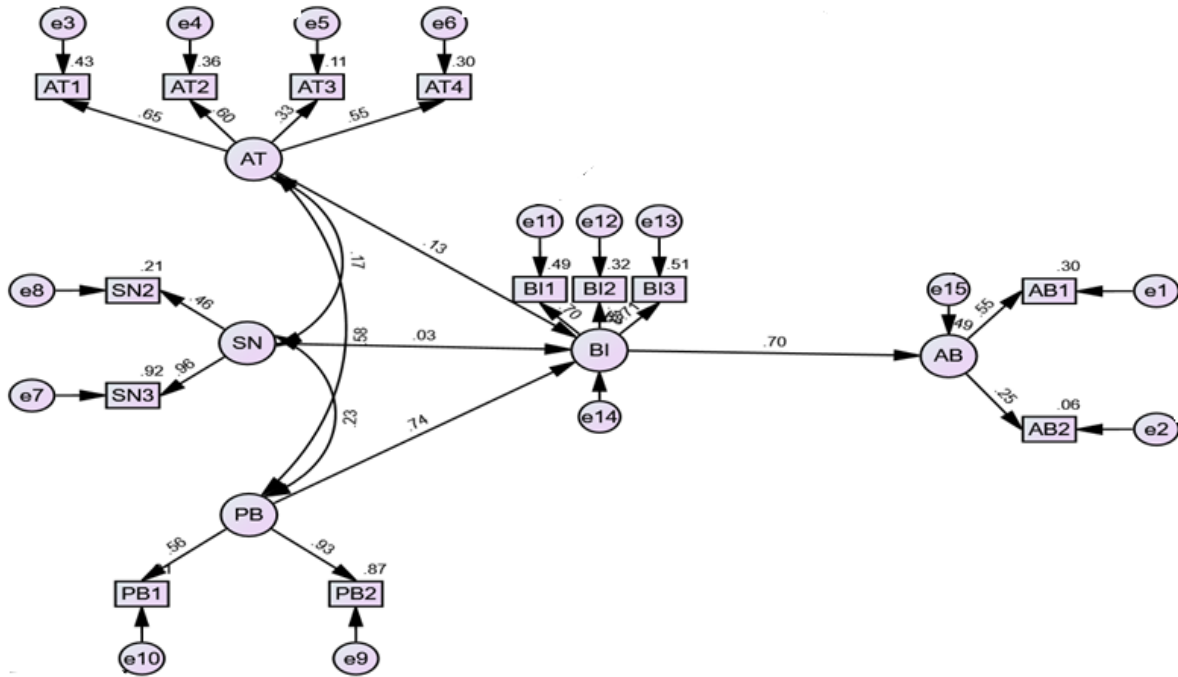


Figure 5.8: SEM Path Model Structure (Sunlight Advertisement in Xhosa )

#### 5.4.2.7 Hypothesis Testing for the Sunlight Xhosa-language Advertisement

The results of the preliminary hypotheses developed from the research hypotheses and objectives specified in Chapter 1 are presented in this section. The hypotheses of the study were put to the test to establish the correlations between latent variables. The results of the hypotheses tests are presented in Table 5.21. They are discussed further below.

##### *i Hypothesis 1*

Hypothesis 1 states, *Consumers' attitudes to the brand have a positive and significant impact on intention to purchase Domestos*. Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between attitudes to the Sunlight brand and intention to purchase Sunlight shows a  $\beta = 0.126$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.354. This evidence demonstrates that Hypothesis 1 is *not supported* because the relationship is not significant. Hence, it can be noted that attitudes to the brand positively but insignificantly influence the intention to purchase. It is also worth mentioning that these findings reinforce the results obtained by Ajzen (2002), who found that attitudes to the brand have a positive and significant impact on intention.

## ***ii Hypothesis 2***

Hypothesis 2 asserts, *Subjective social norms related to the brand have a positive and significant impact on consumers' intention to purchase*. The final structural model presents the relationship between social norms and intention to purchase Sunlight results with a coefficient  $\beta = 0.026$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.748. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is *not supported*. These results mean that social norms related to the brand positively influence the intention to purchase, but the social norms have an insignificant influence on the intention to purchase. These findings corroborate the results obtained in the works of Ajzen (2002).

## ***iii Hypothesis 3***

Hypothesis 3 states, *Intention to purchase has a positive and significant impact on attitudes towards the brand*. Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between intention to purchase Sunlight and attitudes to the Sunlight brand shows a  $\beta = 0.703$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.000. This is evidence that Hypothesis 3 is *supported*. Hence, it can be noted that the intention to purchase Sunlight positively and significantly influences attitudes to the Sunlight brand. These findings reinforce the results obtained by Babin and Zikmund (2016), who found that intention to purchase is positively correlated to the brand.

## ***iv Hypothesis 4***

Hypothesis 4 states, *Perceived behavioural control related to the brand has a positive and significant impact on consumers' intention to purchase*. Based on the results of the final model testing, the relationship between perceived behavioural control related to the Sunlight brand and intention to purchase Sunlight shows a  $\beta = 0.742$  and a  $p$ -value of 0.000. This demonstrates that Hypothesis 4 is *supported*. Hence, it can be noted that perceived behavioural control related to the brand positively and significantly influences the intention to purchase. These findings reinforce the results obtained by Ajzen (2002), who found that perceived behavioural control has a positive and significant impact on intention to purchase a brand.

These results affirm the adequacy of the model and that three hypotheses were *supported*. The model fit statistics show that the proposed conceptual model converged well.

The next section outlines the hypothesis testing results.

**Table 5.21: Summary of the Hypothesis Testing (Xhosa Sunlight Advertisement)**

<b>Relationships</b>	<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Path Coefficient <math>\beta</math></b>	<b>p-Value</b>	<b>Remarks</b>
BI → AT	H <sub>1</sub>	0.126	0.354	Not supported
BI → SN	H <sub>2</sub>	0.026	0.748	Not supported
BI → PB	H <sub>3</sub>	0.742	0.000***	Supported
AB → BI	H <sub>4</sub>	0.703	0.000***	Supported

*Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase.*

## **5.5 Comparison of Domestos and Sunlight Advertisement Results by the TPB Model**

The primary research question for this thesis was broken down into three questions. The first question related to the TPB: *How do English-language advertisements compare to identical Xhosa dubbed advertisements in terms of their effect on purchase behaviour (AB) for non-English-speaking consumers in Western Cape and Eastern Cape townships?*

The secondary questions are restated as follows:

*How do attitudes (ATs) to the brand differ when language is dubbed from English to Xhosa for illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships, and how does this impact intention to purchase?*

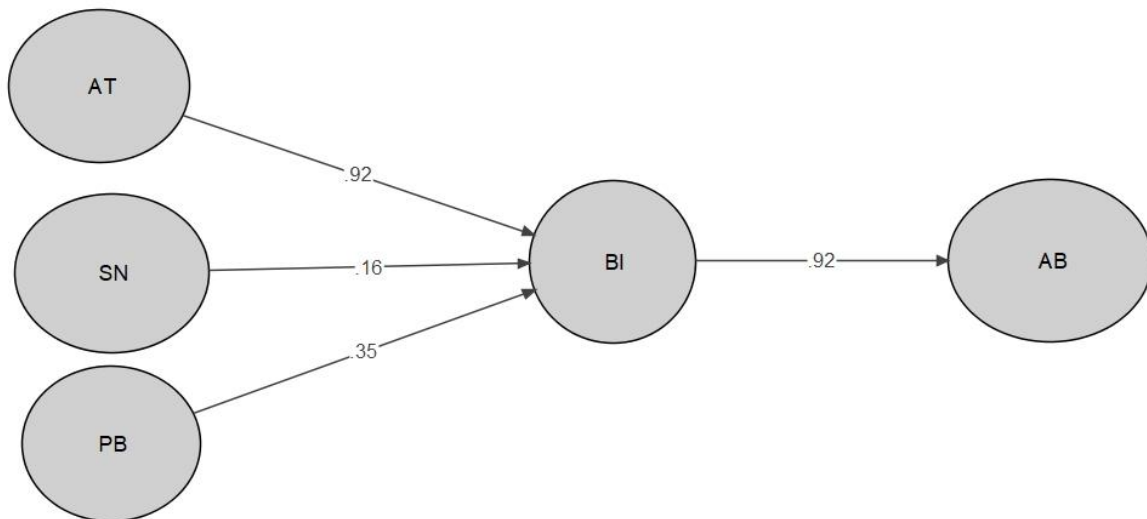
*How do social norms (SNs) related to the brand differ when a language is dubbed from English to Xhosa for illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships, and how does this impact intention to purchase?*

*How does perceived behaviour control (PB) related to the brand differ when a language is dubbed from English to Xhosa for illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships, and how does this impact intention to purchase?*

*How does intention to purchase (IA) the brand differ when a language is dubbed from English to Xhosa for illiterate or non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships, and how does this impact purchase behaviour (AB)?*

### **5.5.1 Domestos – English and isiXhosa Language Advertising**

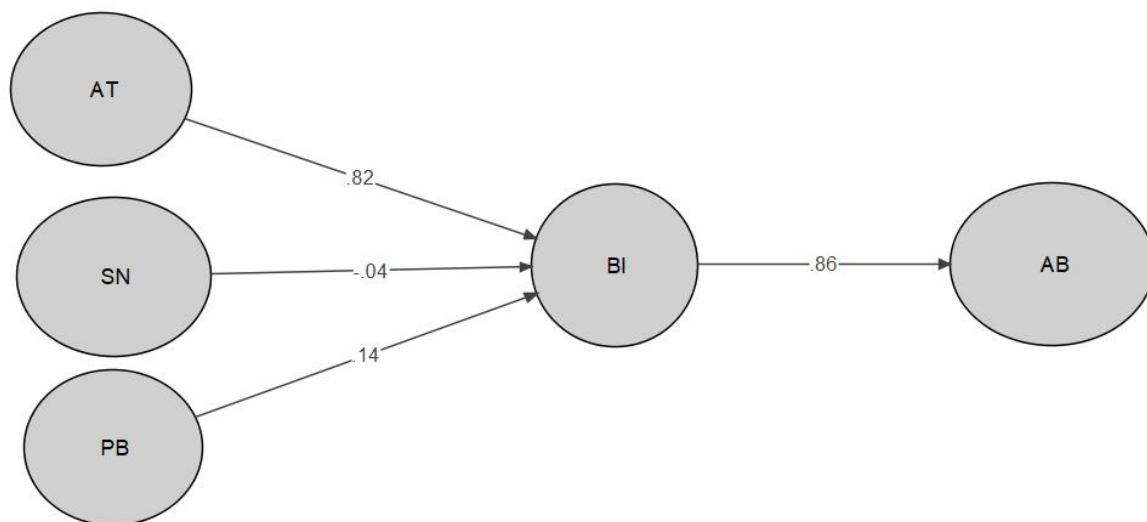
In Figure 5.9, AT and PB influence BI resulting in AB purchase intentions. It is clear that the use of the English language in television advertising has an impact on behavioural intentions. However, SN does not influence customers' BI. Stronger intentions lead to increased effort to perform the behaviour, which also increases the likelihood that the behaviour will be performed (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). English is not the dominant language spoken in South African households.



**Figure 5.9: Domestos Advertisement in English (TPB Model)**

With reference to the use of Xhosa-language television advertisements (dubbing), it was evident that AT and BI had a strong influence on purchase intentions, while SN and PB were not supported. This is explained by the view that people who speak Xhosa as their mother language tend to understand the advertisement better than if it is flighted in English, their second or third

language. Because English is the official business language, people tend to become accustomed to it, even if there is little understanding. The English language is understood in most urban areas and is the official language used in the media and government (StatsSA, 2018). The results demonstrate that television advertising managers might be using the English language as an official business language while ignoring the audiences that might be the biggest consumers of their products. Another reason why marketers and advertisers argue for more English in advertising is that Gen Z and the younger generations are adopting a Westernised lifestyle, switching to English and Afrikaans slang; and the Gen Z cohort is now the biggest influencer on the decision-making process of many products and brand categories (Loeries, 2020).



**Figure 5.10: Domestos Advertisement in isiXhosa (TPB Model)**

Advertisers frequently use English because it is assumed to be a language spoken or at least understood by consumers in large parts of the world. Hornikx et al. (2010) stated that studies have demonstrated the frequent use of English in advertising, but little is known about people's preference for English versus local languages. Enfield (2018, p. 1) argued that "Language is more than just sharing information, it is about cooperation, grounded in a human form of social cognition, held together by a moral code of conduct and high speed-cognitive processing". The role of advertising is to nudge, persuade, and sometimes manipulate people to cooperate with

the brand, to democratically vote with their wallets in the marketplace, and to have a relationship with the brand.

The outcomes of the hypothesis tests are compared in Table 5.22.

**Table 5.22: Summary of the Hypothesis Testing of the Domestos Advertisements**

<b>Path hypothesis</b>	<b>Domestos English results</b>	<b>Domestos isiXhosa results</b>
BI → AT	H <sub>1</sub> Supported	H <sub>1</sub> Supported
BI → SN	H <sub>2</sub> Not supported	H <sub>2</sub> Not supported
BI → PB	H <sub>3</sub> Supported	H <sub>3</sub> Not supported
AB → BI	H <sub>4</sub> Supported	H <sub>4</sub> Supported

*Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase.*

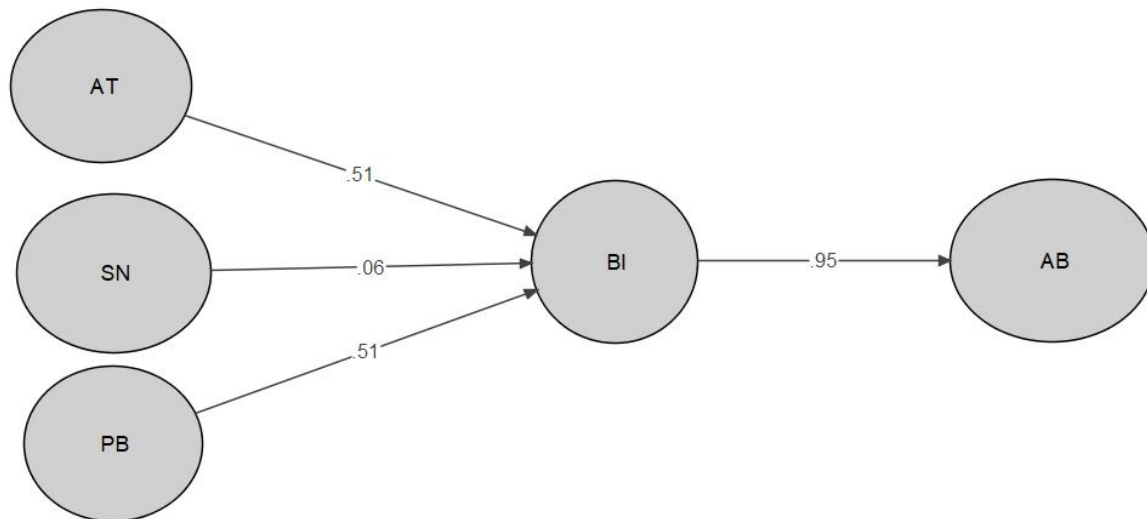
**Table 5.23: Reliability of the Tests of the Domestos Advertisements**

<b>Constructs</b>	<b>Domestos English sample</b>		<b>Domestos isiXhosa sample</b>	
<b>Description</b>	<b>No of items</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>	<b>No of items</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha</b>
AB = Purchase Behaviour	2	0.839	2	0.799
AT = Attitudes to the Brand	4	0.923	4	0.884
SN = Social Norms related to the Brand	3	0.710	2	0.632
PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand	2	0.623	3	0.743
BI = Intention to Purchase	3	0.876	3	0.863

### **5.5.2 Sunlight - English and isiXhosa Language Advertising**

The illustration in Figure 5.9 highlights the AT, SN and PB converging on the behavioural intention that drives customers to make a purchase (AB). The language used in an advertisement can serve as an attribute and a medium of experience; thus, it influences customers' affective response or intention, and their thoughts (Fattah et al., 2014). An individual's emotional

reaction to an advertisement can also affect a customer's attitude to the advertisement itself; therefore, attitude to an advertisement alters behavioural intentions. Attitudes to a brand positively and insignificantly influence the intention to purchase.

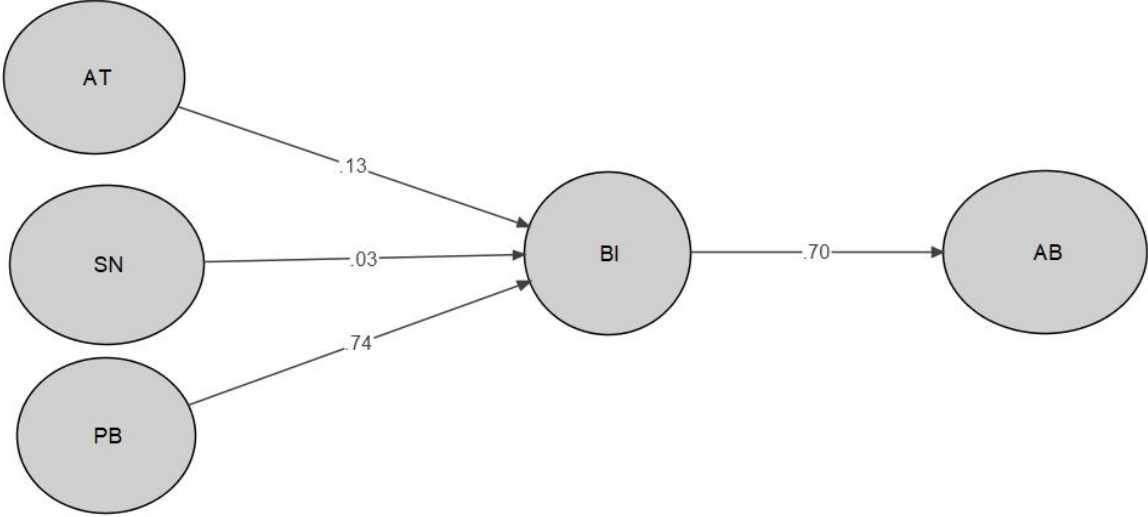


**Figure 5.11: Sunlight Advertisement in English (TPB Model)**

Fattah et al. (2014) demonstrated that behavioural intentions are evoked by patronage emotions, which concurs with the assertions by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) that behavioural intention comes as the result of a belief that performing the behaviour will lead to a specific outcome. Behavioural intentions are determined by attitudes to behaviours and subjective norms. Social norms related to the brand positively influence the intention to purchase, but the social norms have an insignificant influence on the intention to purchase.

With reference to the illustration in Figure 5.10, AT is not supported because it does not influence behavioural intention to purchase Sunlight. In addition, SNs are not supported because they do not influence customers' intentions to purchase Sunlight liquid. However, PB and BI are supported because of their influence on the AB. From the perspective of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the literature argues that social norms surrounding the action

contribute to whether the person will actually perform the behaviour. The intention to perform a certain behaviour precedes the actual behaviour, resulting in the term *behavioural intention*.



**Figure 5.12: Sunlight Advertisement in isiXhosa (TPB Model)**

**Table 5.24: Summary of the Hypothesis Testing of the Sunlight Advertisements**

Path hypothesis	Sunlight English results	Sunlight isiXhosa results
BI → AT	H <sub>5</sub> Supported	H <sub>1</sub> Not supported
BI → SN	H <sub>6</sub> Not supported	H <sub>2</sub> Not supported
BI → PB	H <sub>7</sub> Supported	H <sub>3</sub> Supported
AB → BI	H <sub>8</sub> Supported	H <sub>4</sub> Supported

Note: AB = Purchase Behaviour; AT = Attitudes to the Brand; SN = Social Norms related to the Brand; PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand; BI = Intention to Purchase.

**Table 5.25: Reliability for Sunlight**

<b>Constructs Description</b>	<b>Sunlight – English sample</b>		<b>Sunlight – isiXhosa sample</b>	
	<b>No of items</b>	<b>Cronbach’s alpha</b>	<b>No of items</b>	<b>Cronbach’s alpha</b>
AB = Purchase Behaviour	2	0.799	2	0.721
AT = Attitudes to the Brand	4	0.775	4	0.615
SN = Social Norms related to the Brand	3	0.603	2	0.603
PB = Perceived Behavioural Control related to the Brand	2	0.705	2	0.705
BI = Intention to Purchase	3	0.696	3	0.696

Language can also be used to express one’s feelings. In terms of experience, an event, practices, people, things, abstractions, quality, context, and social relations are all discussed. Language encompasses not just the written or spoken sign system of human culture but also the social phenomena of the larger culture in society, such as clothes, food menus, and rituals (Levi-Strauss, in Kasiyan, 2008, p. 133).

## **5.6 Advertising Effectiveness Results**

In Chapters 3 and 4, the theory and methodology for testing advertising effectiveness was outlined. This methodology included a set of measures that were tested quantitatively across all the sample advertisements. The constructs tested were Awareness, Liking, Persuasion, Involvement and sales Impact. The English and Xhosa advertisements were compared using these effectiveness measures. The results are presented below, starting with the Domestos advertisement and then the Sunlight advertisement. The aim was to determine which of the products received more responses than the other. This helped to measure how familiar respondents were with each of the product’s television messages.

*RQ<sub>1</sub>: To what extent does the use of an English versus a Xhosa advertisement impact brand awareness?*

*RQ<sub>2</sub>: To what extent is advertisement liking (enjoyment) impacted by using an English versus a Xhosa television advertisement?*

*RQ3: To what extent is Persuasion (Buying Interests) impacted by using English versus Xhosa television advertisement?*

*RQ4: To what extent is Involvement impacted by using English versus Xhosa television advertisement?*

*RQ5: To what extent is Sales (STSL and LTE) impacted by using an English versus a Xhosa television advertisement?*

### **5.6.1 Brand Awareness**

Brand awareness is the ability of consumers to generate a brand from memory when prompted by a product category (Armstrong, 2016). Advertisers use brand recall to get customers to stick to a brand for the long term; thus, the firm will be able to target its audience and remember their names when addressing a particular problem. For the Domestos advertisement, there was a distinct difference between the responses from those exposed to the English advertisement as opposed to the Xhosa one, as seen in Table 5.26. The English Domestos television advertisement scored 29% on brand awareness, meaning less than 29% of the respondents recalled the brand name being used in the advertisement. In contrast, the Xhosa Domestos advertisement scored 59% on brand awareness, a significant difference of 203% when compared with the English Domestos advertisement. The Xhosa Domestos advertisement was much more effective than the English Domestos advertisement in helping viewers remember the brand name in the advertisement.

**Table 5.26: Brand Awareness**

<b>Domestos</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
Brand Awareness	29%	59%	+30%
<b>Sunlight</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
Brand Awareness	73%	87%	+14%

The English Sunlight advertisement scored 73% on brand awareness, but the Xhosa Sunlight advertisement scored significantly higher, at 87%. There is a significant difference of 30% in

awareness or brand recall between the Xhosa and the English Sunlight advertisement. Though the use of English-language advertising still has support, the results show that consumers much prefer Xhosa advertisements because they resonate well with the language. Because they use the Domestos toilet cleaner, most households in the Western and Eastern Cape townships are familiar with the brand and can easily identify it. When television videos and audio recordings were shared with the focus groups (participants), there were instant recollections of the toilet cleaner (brand). Bridson et al. (2013) stated that brand recall is a qualitative measure of the consumers' abilities to remember the name of a brand. In the case of Domestos, if the brand has low brand recall, it means the toilet cleaner or hygiene or germ-killing category benefits far more and the consumers will not have Domestos in their top-of-mind awareness or spontaneous recall, leading to consumers' buying any other toilet cleaner.

### ***5.6.2 Enjoyment/Liking***

Enjoyment is a measure of resonance/appreciation of the creative. In addition, it is also a measure of engagement. Enjoyment is important because people devote mental energy to things they relate to/appreciate and to things that make them feel something. A highly enjoyable advertisement makes it into the mental workspace to be noticed, remembered and acted upon (buying or using or trying the product). Jain et al. (2017) stated that advertisement enjoyment is a more subconscious and spontaneous emotional reaction to the brand. Customers exhibit reactions when they are exposed to a brand that they are familiar with. Therefore, advertisement enjoyment is an important step to preference, which creates an opportunity for the brand to be noticed and considered.

From the data, the English Domestos television advertisement scored 0 on enjoyment. Overall, it can be deduced from these data that the English Domestos advertisement is highly technical and not enjoyable, given the low enjoyment scores. Yet when the same advertisement was viewed in Xhosa, its enjoyment scores increased to 87%, as seen in Table 5.27.

**Table 5.27: Enjoyment (Liking)**

<b>Domestos</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
Enjoyment	0	87	+87%

<b>Sunlight</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
Enjoyment	7	51	+44%

The English Sunlight advertisement scored 7%, meaning only 7% of respondents found the advertisement to be enjoyable; therefore, the consumers were likely to switch channels or ignore the advertisement or go and do other chores while it was being flighted. Yet the Sunlight Xhosa advertisement did well in enjoyment, because over 51% of the respondents found the advertisement enjoyable and said they would enjoy it each time they watched it on television.

### **5.6.3 Persuasion**

Persuasion is an indicator of a consumer's affinity for a brand. The memory, familiarity, and recognition of a product elicit a consumer's interest in purchasing it. Advertisers use the AIDA approach to attract attention, generate interest and stimulate desire in consumers before they complete a purchase action. Persuasion has been shown in research to have an effect on behavioural intention, and this is supported by empirical evidence (Ajzen, 1991; Bruner II & Kumar, 2005). The beliefs individuals have about a particular behaviour determine how easily they can be persuaded, which influences and establishes the strength of their behaviour (Manning, 2009).

English Domestos television advertisement scored 13% for persuasion versus the Xhosa Domestos advertisement, which scored 54%. This means that the Xhosa Domestos advertisement was seen to be far more persuasive and more likely to make users continue buying Domestos, or switch to using it, and new users would want to purchase Domestos when next doing grocery shopping.

**Table 5.28: Persuasion**

<b>Domestos</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
Persuasion	13%	54%	+41%
<b>Sunlight</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
Persuasion	47%	48%	+1%

The English and Xhosa advertisements scored 47% and 48%, respectively; that is, there was no statistically significant difference in the scores. Both advertisements were found to be equally persuasive by the consumers, irrespective of language. Therefore, language does not seem to have a significant impact on advertisement effectiveness when it comes to persuasion.

**5.6.4 Involvement**

Involvement measures the extent to which the viewer engages with the advertising, which is crucial to advertising success. The consumer must devote some System 1 and System 2 mental effort to the advertisement for the advertisement to have an opportunity of affecting the brand representation and association. People tend to engage with content that is relevant to them: entertaining, educational, or informative.

The English Domestos advertisement scored 80% for involvement, and the Xhosa Domestos advertisement scored 87%. There was no statistically significant difference between the advertisements. The participants found both advertisements to be high in involvement. Language did not seem to make a difference because the visual treatment was strong enough to keep the viewers involved.

**Table 5.29: Involvement**

<b>Domestos</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
Involvement	80%	87%	+7%
<b>Sunlight</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
Involvement	54%	70%	+16%

The English Sunlight advertisement scored below 54% for involvement, with the Xhosa Sunlight advertisement scoring statistically significantly higher at 70%. The consumers found the advertisement far more engaging in Xhosa than in English.

**5.6.5 Buying Intention (Sales Impact)**

Every product or service should have attributes or characteristics that uniquely describe it (Kotler, 2014). Marketers use product attributes to create facets on category pages that help shoppers to narrow their search results. For example, a brand’s attributes might include awareness, relevance, consistency, sustainability or credibility.

**Short-term Sales Likelihood (STSL)**

STSL was measured to test which language would generate more sales in a given period. The results in Table 5.30 show that the likelihood of sales of Domestos resulting from the English-language advertisement was 28%, while the likelihood generated by the Xhosa advertisement was 59%, which is double the likelihood of sales. For the Sunlight advertisement, the Xhosa advertisement generated a sales likelihood 79%, while the English advertisement generated a sales likelihood of 67%. Overall, Xhosa advertisements would be more likely to generate more sales in the short term than English advertisements in the Western Cape and Eastern Cape townships. Table 5.30 shows a comparison of STSL for the two advertisements.

**Table 5.30: Comparison of Short-Term Sales Likelihood**

<b>Domestos</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
STSL (Impact)	28%	59%	+31%
<b>Sunlight</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
STSL (Impact)	67%	79%	+12%

### 5.6.6 Long-term Effectiveness

Long-term effectiveness (LTE) was measured by power, meaningfulness, difference and brand saliency, as shown in Table 5.31 below. The table illustrates a comparison of LTE for the two Domestos advertisements: 28% for the English language compared to 66% for Xhosa, a huge jump of 38%. The Xhosa Sunlight advertisement generated 94% compared to 79% for the English advertisement. Overall, the use of a Xhosa-language advertisement yielded more positive results than English-language television advertising, meaning that Xhosa advertisements are more likely to significantly affect long-term sales.

**Table 5.31: Comparison of Long-Term Sales Effects Likelihood (Domestos – English vs Xhosa)**

<b>Domestos</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
LTE (Buying)	28%	66%	+38%
<b>Sunlight</b>			
	<i>English</i>	<i>Xhosa</i>	<i>Difference (%)</i>
LTE (Buying)	79%	94%	+15%

## 5.7 Comparison of Results of Advertising Effectiveness Measures

Overall, the Sunlight and Domestos Xhosa advertisements scored better than English advertisements on effectiveness. The more technical and complicated the advertisement, like

Domestos, the more the consumers are likely to prefer Xhosa. Whereas an advertisement like Sunlight is seen as straightforward, easy to understand and less technical, there is no significant difference in some key measurements like branding and persuasion. For both Domestos and Sunlight advertisements, the languages Xhosa or English do not seem to play a significant role in the advertisement effectiveness measures of involvement for Domestos and persuasion for Sunlight. A preference for Xhosa-language advertisements over English-language advertisements is a manifestation that Xhosa is more effective because it talks about events happening in a natural setting.

According to Tarigan (1993), language is used to express oneself, expose, art and persuade. As a symbol system in people's culture, Xhosa is not limited to the meaning of written or oral language, but also covers all the social phenomena of the broader culture in society, such as clothes, food menus, rituals and others (Levi-Strauss, in Kasiyan, 2008, p. 133). Language is a common factor in any society's cultural practices.

Language in television commercials serves to reflect the naturalness of the use-value assigned to the offered product, commodity, or service. In this case, language serves as a medium for disseminating capitalist consumerism ideology throughout society. The power of language, which has resulted in the colonialism of human civilisation as symbolised in advertisements, is proof that language friction is an essential component that can poison civilisation's existence now and in the future. The use of the English language as a medium of communication in television advertisements to consumers or viewers who do not understand it, and are English-language illiterate, might be viewed as exclusionary and not respectful of South Africa's diversity and consumers' rights.

In addition, consumers do not have control over the situation. For example, advertisements on regulations or legislation that are flighted in English leave consumers/viewers with no option but to adhere without objection. However, with television advertising, communication seems to be one-way, because the advertiser does not have a feedback mechanism to ascertain whether the advertisement is effective or not. The only way to assess the effectiveness is through the sales volumes of a brand.

The use of vague and obscure language does not bring to mind specific visual images, so consumers might find it difficult to engage with the advertisement (Zhang, 2010). The effectiveness of a language can also indicate how concise the language is. Advertisers should

express the desired messages in as few words as possible. That is, the messages should be straight to the point.

## **5.8 Chapter Summary**

This chapter discussed the first study, which was quantitative in nature. Data were collected from respondents using two brands, Domestos and Sunlight. The study tested the effects of either English-language or Xhosa-language advertisements on purchase behaviour, attitude to the brand, social norms, perceived behavioural control and behavioural intention. The results showed that Xhosa television advertisements were more effective than English advertisements because the communities from whom the consumers came were fluent in Xhosa. In addition, the Xhosa language was their native and mother language. The lesson learned from the findings was that the use of the English language might be ineffective on people who do not fully comprehend or who speak English as a second or third language.

# **CHAPTER 6**

## **PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF QUALITATIVE FINDINGS**

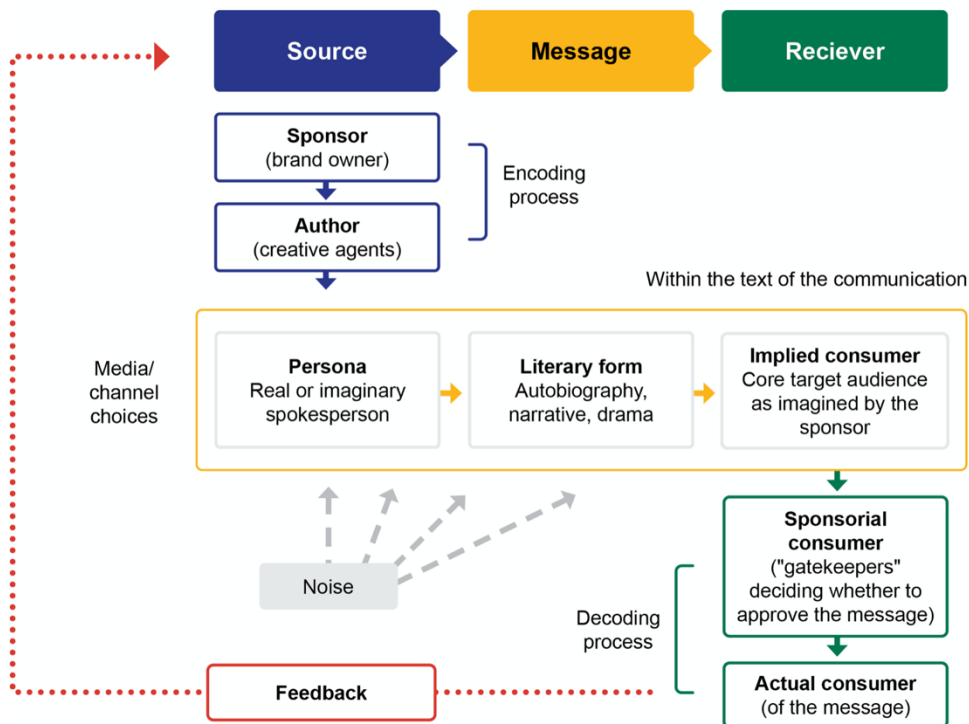
### **6.1 Introduction**

The preceding chapter presented and discussed the quantitative research findings. The current chapter presents and discusses findings from the focus-group discussions and expert interviews. Focus-group interviews formed the second study and are presented first, followed by the expert interviews. The chapter is then summarised.

### **6.2 Study 2 – Focus Groups**

The secondary research question related to Study 2 asked: *To what extent and why does the use of English instead of Xhosa impact advertising effectiveness and the communication of advertising messages?* The sub-question related to further exploration of how non-English (L2, L3 or illiterate) speakers decode English television advertising messages.

According to the Stern Model of Communication, advertising is a means by which advertisers communicate with an audience, as depicted in Figure 6.1.



**Figure 6.1: Stern Model of Communication**  
 (Stern, 1994; adapted by Lappeman et al., 2021)

In addition, the following research question was explored in Study 2: *What interventions can be suggested to use native languages for television advertising for non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships?* When exploring the advertising messages with the focus-group participants, ideas for interventions were explored.

The focus of Study 2 was to specifically analyse the decoding that takes place by consumers who experience the advertising message and to explore possible solutions when needed. The focus-group interviews explored deep-rooted feelings among participants regarding the use of the English or Xhosa languages to understand how the participants processed the advertisements; for example, whether the participants prioritised auditory or visual stimuli in different advertisements depending on the use of language. In addition, the objective was to understand consumer perceptions of languages in advertising, and their responses to and preferences for the selected advertisements

### 6.2.1 *Sample Description*

The sample for the focus groups consisted of 28 participants. The four focus groups were held in November 2020 in Khayelitsha and Gugulethu. Each focus group had seven participants. The target population of the study was identical to Study 1, because the individuals recruited for the focus-group discussions were all between the ages of 18 and 40, spoke isiXhosa as their home language, identified their ethnic group as Black, and resided in Western and Eastern Cape townships. Table 6.1 below provides the focus-group sample descriptions.

**Table 6.1: Focus Groups Sample Description**

Focus Group	Date	Time	Region	Number	Race	Gender	Age	Language
1	04/11/20	16.00	Gugulethu 1	7	Black	Mixed	25–35	Xhosa-speaking [1 <sup>st</sup> language] and an understanding of English [2 <sup>nd</sup> or 3 <sup>rd</sup> language]
2	04/11/20	18.30	Gugulethu 2	7	Black	Mixed	36–45	
3	05/11/20	16.00	Khayalitsha 1	7	Black	Mixed	25–35	
4	05/11/20	18.30	Khayalitsha 2	7	Black	Mixed	36–45	

As outlined in Table 6.1 above, online focus-group interviews were conducted from 4 to 5 November 2020. Due to Covid-19 regulations and restrictions, the data collection for this study was conducted online. The focus groups were identified as Gugulethu 1, Gugulethu 2, Khayalitsha 1 and Khayalitsha 2, as shown in Table 6.1.

### 6.2.2 *Themes from Focus-group Discussions*

Altogether, seven themes were identified from the focus groups:

- i. Relatable and humorous advertising stands out or has a high recall value, despite language barriers
- ii. Language in advertising is noticed and does have an impact on audiences
- iii. Township Xhosa is different from rural Xhosa
- iv. ‘Deep’ Xhosa advertisements have disadvantages for younger audiences
- v. Xhosa advertisements do have advantages in relatability, especially for younger audiences and for important/serious messages
- vi. The use of Xhosa is seen as a source of identity and pride

- vii. There is a disconnect between mind and emotion when English is used

These themes are distilled and summarised below with relevant direct quotes.

**Theme 1: Relatable and humorous advertising stands out or has high recall, despite language barriers**

Advertisements that stood out in participants' minds were those they considered humorous or colourful (with some vernacular language or Xhosa or a mix of English, Afrikaans and Xhosa everyday language), and nostalgic (tapping into old school fond memories); they used real people or believable people who looked as though they had or were using the product; they were vibrant, fun, aired frequently, and were easy to follow and understand. The advertisements easily recalled by focus-group participants were mostly fast-food brands such as Nandos and Chicken Licken, and alcohol brands such as Corona and Castle Lite. When asked why these advertisements stand out, the groups revealed:

*Nandos and Chicken Licken adverts are really humorous/funny; they make you laugh and they are light-hearted, and they talk about current affairs or things happening currently and they also have colourful visuals (Gugulethu 1)*

*Corona and Castle Lite are fun, vibrant, energetic and have a great social atmosphere. They use catchy phrases like 'Chencha Daideng' – catchy phrase that everyone in the township understands, used daily, and it is aired frequently (Khayelitsha 2).*

*Outsurance and Budget Insurance: They speak in a way that appeals to people – less boring/stoic as opposed to traditional insurance ads, easier to relate to as they use everyday language that people regularly converse in. Usually insurance is something very serious, very formal; you sit down and fill in forms; it talks about access money and monthly premiums. But they've gone now and made it look so cool (Khayelitsha 1).*

*Telkom Hello Monate and Molo Mhlobo Wam scene: It is an old advert that I can say has been revamped and brought back to life. It stands out for me because it is an old advert, they greet in Xhosa, reminds me of my grandfather from when we were very young, but I still remember (Gugulethu 2).*

Advertisements with high recall stand out because they are not only easy to understand but are relatable and the advertisers constantly refresh memory structures by flighting the advertisements regularly or frequently, and they are seen by many people, using high ARs (audience ratings) or GRPs (Gross Rating Points = Frequency x Reach). When television videos and audio recordings were shared with the focus-group participants, there were instant recollections of the toilet cleaner (brand). Bridson et al. (2013) stated that brand recall is a qualitative measure of the consumer's ability to remember the name of a brand.

## **Theme 2: Language in advertising is noticed and does have an impact on audiences**

Participants acknowledged that the bulk of television advertisements are in English, and their exposure to Xhosa advertisements is mainly on the *Umhlobo Wenene* radio station. When advertisements used Xhosa, the participants felt that the message was more heart-warming, relevant, and even more emotive. The Xhosa advertisements made them feel included, and were even more impactful when the setting and storyline were relevant to their everyday lives in the townships or the rural villages they came from, or captured where they would like to be (their wishes and dreams). The Telkom advertisement '*Molo Mhlobo Wam*' was the television advertisement most talked about by all focus-group participants as being nostalgic and heart-warming because it used a simple Xhosa greeting, a great rural-village setting and relatable, real village people.

However, the majority of participants were put off by advertisements that "massacred the Xhosa language" (Gugulethu 1). 'Massacre' occurs when the advertiser or creative agency uses a direct translation from English to Xhosa and does not capture the essence and meaning of the message, plus when a voice-over with a bad Xhosa accent is used. The participants could spot an accent that was not Xhosa or that the person was not Xhosa, and easily detected a direct translation.

*I think they are on radio where it is Xhosa from start to finish, otherwise on TV it is rare to find that the whole ad is in Xhosa; most of the adverts are in English (Khayelitsha 2).*

*The Telkom advert I was talking about where that man says, "Molo mhlobo wami [Hello, my dear friend]"; it is way too dramatic. He could have just said, "Hi, how are you, my friend?" So, isiXhosa is dramatic! (Gugulethu 2).*

*Procydin (radio) advert, they missed the mark when they asked people who could not speak Xhosa in that tone of a Xhosa person, and it was a mess. I won't listen as you have massacred the language for those who are interested in what Procydin does (Gugulethu 1).*

*Having an advert now that is going to be directly translated from English to isiXhosa trying to sell a particular brand for me would not really make sense ... I don't actually like it; they did not make an effort for us (Khayelitsha 1).*

Television advertising is predominantly in English, and Xhosa advertisements are mostly in Radio African language stations (RALs). The use of the Xhosa language in advertisements was viewed positively by respondents. Also, language sensitivity was very high among the participants and they could easily spot the use of a wrong accent, fake people (actors), and non-Xhosa scene settings. The respondents did not seem to reject English advertisements, but mostly preferred advertisements that made more use of Xhosa. Kotler and Keller (2013) supported the views of the respondents that the use of a specific language for an audience that does not understand that language might work negatively for the brand because the medium of communication loses its essence. Customers ordinarily identify with a brand they are familiar with. Purchase behaviour is motivated as soon as a customer generates a positive effect towards the brand they are familiar with.

The views raised by the focus groups support what has been widely known, that SA, like the rest of the African continent, has relied on the English language for communication because English has been adopted as the global business language. Nederstigt and Hilberink-Schulpen (2017) stated that the English language, in particular, is very popular in non-English-speaking countries and communities. Hornikx et al. (2010) showed that easy-to-understand English slogans were more appreciated than difficult-to-understand English slogans. The results also revealed that the degree of comprehension of the English slogans affected participants' preference for English. Therefore, this study provides empirical support for the role of comprehension in the preference for and appreciation of English in advertising. The researcher believes such findings motivate advertisers to frequently use the English language in advertising.

### **Theme 3: Township Xhosa is different from rural Xhosa**

Most participants were born and brought up in the township, where Xhosa is mixed with English, Afrikaans, Kaaps (or Afrikaaps) and some urban township slang/expressions. The majority of township residents are educated in township schools where Xhosa is the first language. A minority also attend urban Model C schools or suburban schools where English is taught as the first language, and Xhosa is second or third. Also, there is a sizeable generation that was not born and raised in the Eastern Cape villages. The Xhosa spoken in the villages is different to the Xhosa spoken in the township, including accent and pronunciation. Some of the responses were:

*Some of us were not necessarily brought up in the Eastern Cape; we're born and bred here in Cape Town, so we would then not obviously be fitted into the schools in our areas; some of our parents would strive and send us to other better schools and in that aspect, we missed out on the Xhosa that we were supposed to get; the deep Xhosa, our mother tongue. We English first and then our mother tongue second (Gugulethu 1).*

*I was last in a Black school in Standard 2; now I don't understand the words and what they mean, so that is why I say they use deep words that we don't understand (Khayelitsha 2).*

*I don't know Xhosa that well. I don't deny it. I am a Model C ish. So, once it is deep, I lose interest or I lose the plot of the whole ad. There is easy Xhosa that can be used so that everybody can understand, because once you go deep, I am gone. I don't understand what you are talking about (Khayelitsha 1).*

*Here in Cape Town, our Xhosa is dashed a little bit, but we are trying. So, mixing it makes it easier, even if you didn't get the whole advert in the beginning, you will have a clue as to what the ad is talking about (Gugulethu 2).*

Xhosa is not the same everywhere. The Xhosa accent, pronunciation, and use of certain words differ, depending on whether or not one grew up in a village and then moved to Cape Town townships for further education or to find a job. Village Xhosa is considered 'deep', 'first-language' and 'the real thing'. People who were born and raised in the township speak Xhosa that is not considered pure Xhosa, because it is diluted ('dashed') and peppered with township slang, English words and also some Coloured Afrikaans slang. These differences and nuances

need to be taken into consideration in generating creative communication (Helsen & Kotabe, 2016). When the advertiser repeats the message several times, the recipient of the message has ample time to compare and contrast the messages. The challenge that arises is that the use of a language that is not spoken by a certain community ends up weakening the objective of communication.

#### **Theme 4: ‘Deep’ Xhosa advertisements have disadvantages for younger audiences**

Even though participants have a positive leaning towards Xhosa advertisements, the township participants who were not confident in speaking ‘Deep Xhosa/Full Cream Xhosa’, but mostly conversed in ‘township slang or diluted Xhosa/Low Fat Xhosa’, did not always find it easy to understand communication in deep Xhosa. The younger (16–34 years old) participant segment found deep Xhosa off-putting or confusing, and sometimes they switched it off. Yet the older (35+) participants appreciated the use of deep-rural Xhosa.

*Sometimes when in deep Xhosa, you need to listen to it a lot of times to understand but, when it is in English, you understand the ad first time around (Gugulethu 1).*

*A mix: It will work because sometimes the Xhosa that they use, as the people mentioned, it is very deep and I have to ask my mom, “What does this mean and what is this number?” (Gugulethu 2).*

*These adverts, sometimes they use deep words and not simple words that everyone can use, and some of us don’t understand those deep words (Khayelitsha 2).*

*I personally don’t think I would actually understand an advert in isiXhosa because of the diversity of the language and the complexities, and everything else that has got to do with that particular language because, sometimes, when something is directly translated and then it becomes something else (Khayelitsha 1).*

*They are being spoken by people who are not fluent Xhosa speakers; there are words that are twisted, and the pronunciation is not what Xhosa is supposed to be; it is translated by Model C, or people that are not Xhosa speaking (Gugulethu 1).*

Use of ‘Deep’ Xhosa in advertising to young 16–34-year-old township participants can be off-putting and confusing. The young end up depending on second-hand information, mainly their elders or parents, for translation and interpretation, and the messages are always lost in Xhosa

second-hand translations. The diversity of languages as espoused in the above extracts demonstrates how South Africans identify languages with their culture (White & Yu, 2005).

**Theme 5: Xhosa advertisements do have advantages in relatability, especially for older audiences and for important/serious messages**

The participants admitted that many (mostly 35+ years old) will not admit in public that they do not understand English, because it is seen as being smart and progressive in the townships to speak English. Yet they know the majority of their family members are not fluent in English but are much more comfortable speaking and listening to Xhosa. The use of words like “*Suzenza umlungu, thetha ulwimi lakowenu - Don't act White [or you're not White], speak your mother tongue*” are often thrown at those (mainly 16–24 years old) who only want to speak in English. Serious messages about Covid-19, SARS taxes, social grants, gender-based violence (GBV), HIV/AIDS, crime, education and technical matters are best communicated in the mother tongue so that everyone can understand and act on the information; no one is left out. The participants agreed that Xhosa advertisements have many advantages:

*It had an impact from the beginning because it starts with Xhosa and it ends with Xhosa, and that, on its own, speaks volumes, and you can relate to it (Gugulethu 2).*

*I live with a 91-year-old grandad. Some of the adverts, I need to interpret what is being said. Like with the Nando's ad, he'll say, “Gosh, aren't these the Guptas? It IS them! They are talking about them stealing money”. So, someone else may miss that and not understand because he is elderly. But we can understand and get it because we're younger (Khayelitsha 2).*

*I also don't have a problem with the ad being in English because, even if it is in English, I can still get the message conveyed. But then I feel it is challenging for the elderly who don't understand the English language. So, I feel as if they should have an isiXhosa translation (Khayelitsha 1).*

*The Xhosa one, because some of us, we don't know the reason why we are paying tax, we should vaccinate, obey Covid regulations. So, someone who doesn't understand it in English will better understand it in Xhosa (Gugulethu 1).*

Most participants believed that Xhosa advertisements have many advantages, especially for their elders. All participants agreed that serious messages should ideally be communicated in

Xhosa to increase ease of understanding and for people to feel included, and they might act on the information because they understand the message. The views raised in the above extracts show that elderly people are alienated by most of the advertisements in the English language.

Babin and Babin (2001) also pointed out that positive emotions are associated with positive outcomes. For example, customers' emotions can be aroused if they understand television advertisements, movement, patronage intention and hedonic shopping value. In their study, Fattah et al. (2014) established that advertisers should employ various strategies and skills in the language they use to arouse customers' interests. These include motivation, perception, learning and memory.

### **Theme 6: The use of Xhosa is seen as a source of identity and pride**

The participants pointed out that, given South Africa's painful past and the many voices excluded, hearing your mother tongue in an advertisement extends beyond just ease of understanding, likeability and improving intention to purchase: It becomes a source of cultural pride. It is emotive, goes straight to the heart, and feels like home; you feel included and you feel a sense of belonging. It is like your mother's unconditional love.

*There was an advert, it was an alcohol advert and, at the end, they were saying, "Inkunzi emnyama", so that nkunzi emnyama, when you saw that beer, you could see that it is real nkunzi emnyama, that manly thing; when you drink that beer, you are a man, inkunzi emnyama, and that taste, everything goes together; so it goes straight to the heart (Khayelitsha 2).*

*It is like when you travel workwise, or you go to that place, wherever you go, and have fun but, when you get home, there is that food that is cooked by your mother, that home-made food: No matter how full you are, you can't resist taking that piece of meat, that spoon; you can't resist your mom's ginger beer; it feels home (Gugulethu 1).*

*We are cultural people, so we are feeling connected with all the things said in your language. When the advert is like that, you can relate to it because it is a cultural thing, a traditional thing; it is our thing (Gugulethu 2).*

*I also think it is an issue of sensitivity, and identity; language is very sensitive; you don't mess around with language. If you hear that something is targeted to you, it must be brought in the right way. So, if it is said in Xhosa, it must be said in the right Xhosa. If it is in English, you must hear that it is English. There is respect issues there (Khayelitsha 1).*

Without an advertisement intending to be a tool for reconciliation and building a sense of pride. Xhosa advertisements are seen as travelling deeper into the Xhosa people's subconscious heart than English-only advertisements. A Xhosa advertisement can be a tool for social reconciliation, inclusion and restoration for many township voices that feel marginalised or left behind. Or at least it acts as temporary escapism from painful everyday township realities, for there is a place where you hear your language being included daily. Language in advertising to the participants is not just a tool for communicating product messages but a system of Xhosa cultural thought and identity, a source of pride and healing.

The language used in an advertisement can serve as an attribute and medium of experience, influencing customers' affective response or intention, as well as their thoughts (Fattah et al., 2014). The literature demonstrates that selecting local languages (Xhosa and Zulu, in this instance) in an advertising campaign that targets customers' purchase intentions is very important. Enfield (2018, p. 1) argued, "Language is more than just sharing information, it is about cooperation, grounded in a human form of social cognition, held together by a moral code of conduct and high speed-cognitive processing." In language, people do not only talk about the symbol system in the culture of humans in the form of written language or oral language. They also talk about the social phenomena of the broader culture in society, like clothes, food menus, rituals, and others (Levi-Strauss, in Kasiyan, 2008, p. 133).

#### **Theme 7: There is a disconnect between mind and emotion when English is used**

Participants were asked to indicate how they express their emotions when English-language advertisements are flighted, and one participant stated that:

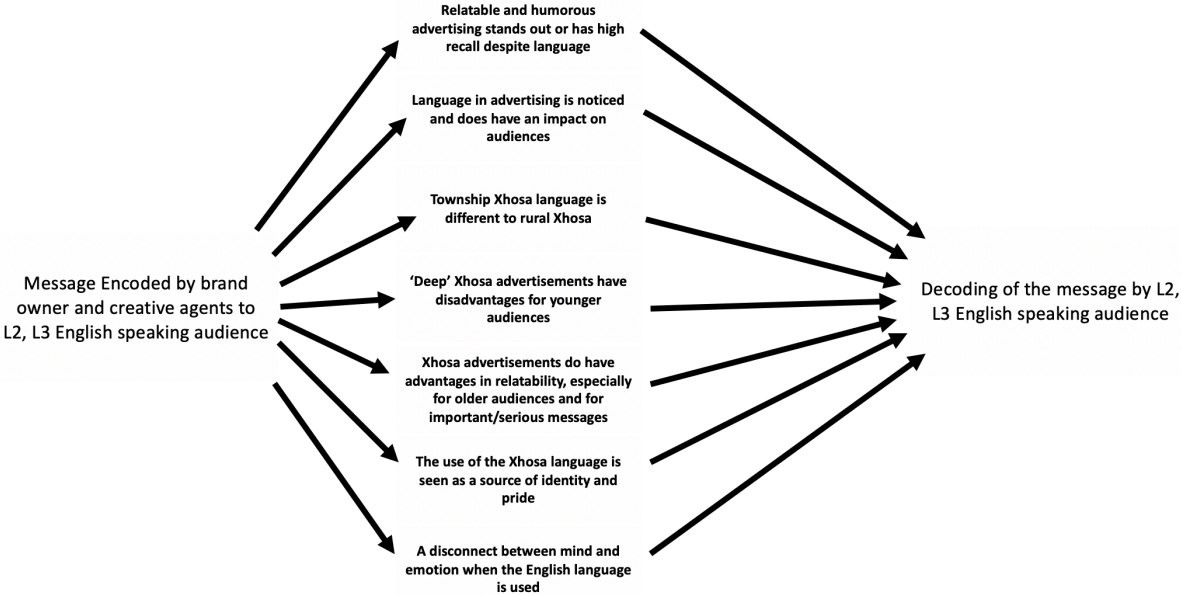
*Something which is said in your language, goes straight to your heart and, when it is said in another language, it goes to your mind; you have to start translating what is being said by the other person and think, What does it mean in Xhosa? (Gugulethu 1).*

The views from the Gugulethu Focus Group 1 above show that emotions can connect the customer to the advertiser or disconnect them. The literature states that there are hundreds of emotions confronting consumers, but the question is: What types of emotions should be considered? Machleit et al., (2000) established three different emotion typologies developed by psychologists for understanding human emotions in general. Dube and Menon (1998) identified different emotions, including jittery and excited (arousal) emotions as well as more negative emotions. Advertisements in one’s mother language are more likely to evoke positive emotions than languages that are less known.

**6.2.3 Summary and Discussion of Presented Themes from Study 2**

The focus of Study 2 was to analyse the decoding that took place when English L2 or L3 consumers experienced an advertising message in English or Xhosa. In addition, interventions for problem areas were explored.

The focus groups’ decoding generated the seven themes presented in Figure 6.2. These themes summarise the sentiment towards the use of English and Xhosa in advertising. Specifically, they explore the issues related to decoding the advertising messages.



**Figure 6.2: Themes from Audience Decoding of English and Xhosa Advertisements**

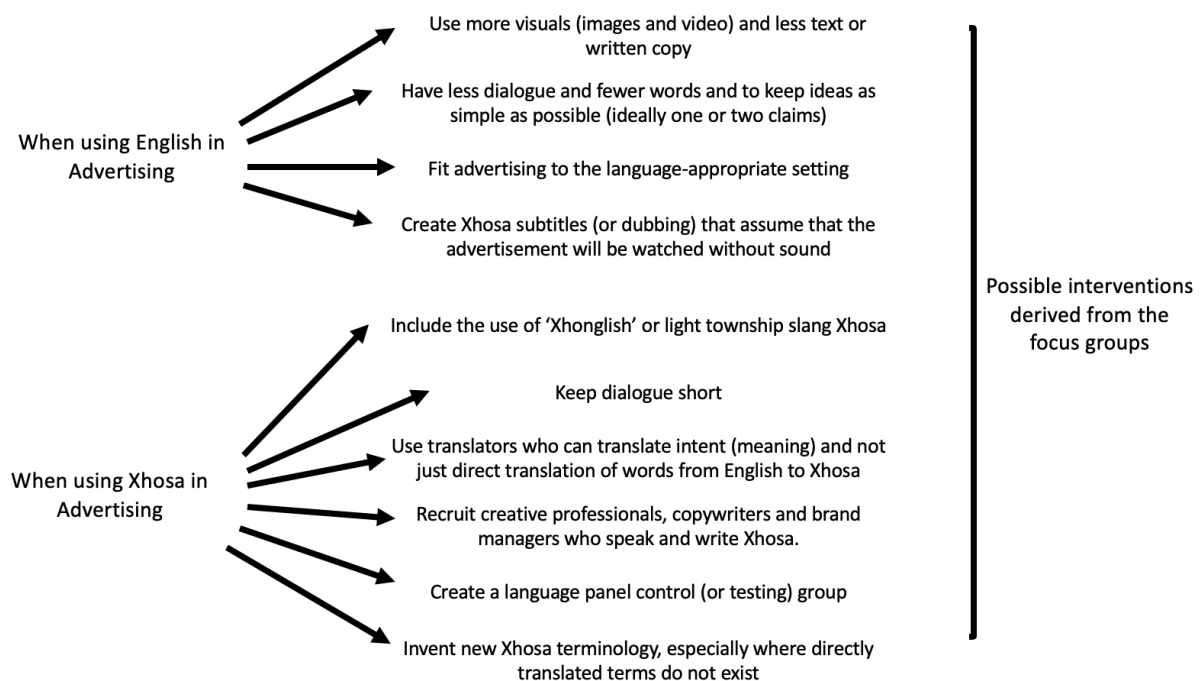
There is a clear need for advertising in the vernacular because this drives stronger engagement and resonance. However, younger consumers (16–24 years old) are also drawn to advertisements with a mix of English and urban slang. This is because they have grown up in urban areas where 100% pure/deep Xhosa is not spoken regularly; therefore, younger, urban consumers do not fully understand it, and the pure Xhosa only appeals to older (35+) consumers or those who have grown up in rural areas where pure Xhosa is spoken. Using pure/deep Xhosa may lead to disengagement, as most will struggle to follow the story, thus missing the intended message. The danger with this is that viewers turn their attention to other creative elements to find more to criticise; for example, in a Domestos advertisement where the depth of the Xhosa is disengaging. Viewers then find fault with the visual execution of the advertisement. Other nuances to be aware of include using the language properly and respectfully. This is more important among older respondents.

In exploring the topic of language in advertising and revealing the themes, a number of possible interventions were uncovered. These are summarised in Figure 6.3 and discussed below. Before discussing possible interventions, the focus groups uncovered several challenges with using Either English or Xhosa in advertising. The challenges with using English in advertising include the key message not being understood and lack of emotional connection. The older age group sometimes felt excluded and experienced the shame of not wanting to admit that they did not understand the humour. The challenges with using Xhosa in advertising included the fact that the younger generation often did not understand deep Xhosa. While there is no single way to speak Xhosa, some English words either do not exist in Xhosa or are not easy to translate. Poor direct translation can lead to the meaning being lost in translation.

The interventions uncovered by the focus groups were: If using English in advertising, include more visuals (images and video) and less text or written copy. In addition, there should be less dialogue and fewer words, and ideas should be kept as simple as possible (ideally, one or two claims). Participants stated that they did not want to work hard at figuring out what advertisements mean, so advertisements should not be complicated. There was also a sentiment that the advertising should have a language-appropriate setting; for example, English is more likely to be spoken in aspirational settings like suburbs than inside a shack or hut. Xhosa subtitles (or dubbing) should also assume that the advertisement will be watched without sound, like many advertisements on mobile phones. Other possible interventions with using Xhosa in advertising include the use of ‘Xhonglish’ or light township slang-Xhosa. Keeping dialogue

short is helpful, as is using Xhosa for educational or informational advertisements. When translating from English to Xhosa, advertisers should use translators who can translate intent (meaning) and do not merely perform a direct translation of words from English to Xhosa. If an advertisement is going to be translated into Xhosa, the Xhosa-speaking voice-over artists must be able to speak, pronounce and express themselves well in the language. Simple, direct translation can dilute the intended messaging, and consumers can also end up focusing on the irregularities in the translation rather than on the brand message. Related to this is the injunction, Be mindful of the target market; not all brands can have a ‘Xhosa voice’. In such instances, it is ideal to use English or English with a mix of urban slang.

There were further suggestions to recruit creative professionals, copywriters and brand managers who speak and write Xhosa. They could then help clients who can only communicate in Xhosa. In addition, the idea of creating a language panel control (or testing) group was proposed. The control group would test the copy before the advertisement was produced. Another suggested intervention was to invent new Xhosa terminology, especially where directly translated terms do not exist. For example, there used to be no word for *cell phone* in Zulu, but now people use the term *makhala ekhukhwini* (that which rings from your pocket).



**Figure 6.3: Summary of Focus-group Suggestions to Address Language Challenges**

Other possible interventions to be considered by clients and agencies are: If the advertisement is going to be done in Xhosa or another mother tongue, it has to be done properly, with Xhosa-speaking voice-over artists who can speak, pronounce and express themselves well in the language. To make the nuances of a provincial Xhosa accent convincing in regional advertisements, the voice-over artist must sound like the people of that place.

While focusing on these execution interventions, it is also important for clients and agencies not to forget that, for a television advertisement to be effective or to meet brand marketing objectives, it still needs an outstanding creative idea or concept. According to Kantar.com (2021) and Nielsen AdDynamix (2017), creativity accounts for 50%–80% of a high return on advertising spend and effectiveness. To get these outstanding, creative ideas, it is super-important to be deliberate, intentional and proactive in hiring a diverse team that reflects the demography of the targeted consumers, whose members respect, understand or even speak their language. It is necessary to fix execution elements, but that will still not make the advertisement outstanding if the concept is bad.

### **6.3 Study 3 – Expert Interviews**

Study 3 continues to explore the Stern communication model, this time looking in more detail at the encoding process. Study 3 specifically explored the research questions:

*Why do advertising professionals believe such a high proportion of television advertising to non-English L1 speakers is done in English?*

*What interventions can be suggested to use native languages for television advertising for non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships?*

As per the Stern Model of Communication in Figure 6.1, there are a number of managerial levels that influence decisions in advertising communication. From the brand management itself to the agency and media planners, multiple decision-making stages were explored.

This section discusses the expert interviews conducted with seven purposefully selected senior executives in marketing communications. In order to protect the identities of the participants and the companies they worked for, the participants are identified by using as pseudonyms the letters A–G. The names of their companies adopt the participants' identifying letters. The seven in-depth interviews were conducted from 11 to 26 January 2021 with the experts, who all had

over 24 years experience in marketing, brand management, creative judgement, or campaign and programme management. The majority had been chief marketing officers for over ten years, except for Participant G, who had been in the position for less than three years but had extensive marketing communications experience. The experts (Appendix C) had a combined total of over 150 years experience, having worked in different industries, such as FMCG, banking, retail, insurance, telecommunications, technology, creative agencies and top global multinational companies. Many had won several local and international effective and creative advertising awards, such as Loeries, Cannes, and Effies. Participant A worked for Company A, an insurance firm, as the Chief Executive, Brand. Participant B was the Chief Brand and Marketing Officer for a commercial bank, Company B. Participant C was the Vice President of the home care division of a global conglomerate, which was Company C. The fourth participant was the Marketing Director for technology Company D, while Participant E was employed as the Chief Marketing Officer by an insurance company (Company E). The Chief Marketing Officer from Company F, another commercial bank, also participated in the study, together with Participant G, who was the Chief Marketing Officer of Company G. Table 6.2 below provides participants' profiles.

**Table 6.2: Description of Experts Interviewed**

<b>Number</b>	<b>Name</b>	<b>Designation</b>	<b>Company Name</b>
1	Participant A	Chief Executive: Brand	Company A
2	Participant B	Chief Brand and Marketing Officer	Company B
3	Participant C	Vice President: Home Care	Company C
4	Participant D	Managing Director	Company D
5	Participant E	Chief Marketing Officer	Company E
6	Participant F	Chief Marketing Officer	Company F
7	Participant G	Chief Marketing Officer	Company G

### ***6.3.1 Themes Emerging from the Expert Interviews***

Five themes emerged during the expert interviews:

- i. Vernacular language advertising is being used more

- ii. The tone is often more important than the use of English in advertising
- iii. There are challenges with creating vernacular television advertisements
- iv. Vernacular languages provide opportunities for a deeper connection
- v. There is a danger of messages being lost in simple translations

Each of these themes is explored below with supporting quotations from the experts.

### **Theme 1: Vernacular language advertising is being used more**

Although English has historically been the primary advertising language in South Africa, experts showed that they have increasingly used vernacular language advertisements on some television advertisements, but predominantly on radio, outdoor and print media, to reach a larger part of the population.

*In media that is targetable, like outdoor, like print and radio, I would say it is very common; I would say the most common is probably radio. In radio, when you are listening to a radio station that is Tswana in North West, it would be very odd if you don't hear ads in Setswana (Participant B).*

*If you look at the African language stations, that's the SABC's mandate to ensure that every language is represented; so, I think...for the majority of people, they still have access to advertising in their own mother tongue on African-language stations (Participant C).*

Xhosa or the vernacular is mostly used in the African-language radio stations (ALSs) owned by SABC, such as *uKhozi*, *Umhlobo Wenene*, *Lesedi*, *Gagasi*, *Motsweding*, and privately-owned community radio stations. The dominant reason is broader reach and ease of understanding. The experts also mentioned that radio allows the brand to do regional targeting, even at the community level. The language used in an advertisement can serve as an attribute and medium of experience, and so it influences customers' affective response or intention, and also their thoughts (Fattah et al., 2014).

The participants did not assess language in isolation. They saw it as entwined in relevant local-scene settings, and were sensitive to deep-rural Xhosa versus township slang/diluted Xhosa, and the use of authentic people or people who could be perceived as real users of the product. The cumulative effect of the correct translation for essence or meaning (not direct translation), a relevant scene or location setting, an authentic accent, being seen as celebrating Xhosa culture,

injecting pride, and using believable actors or people in the advertisement enhances the use of Xhosa language and thereby improves advertisement effectiveness. The views from the participants corroborate those of Syamsuddin (1992), who indicated that the use of a known language enhances behavioural intention to purchase the product. The findings from Study 1 demonstrated that the use of Xhosa-language advertising garnered more positive results than English-language advertising. Language can also be used to talk about events that happened to others. As Firth (in Syamsuddin, 1992, p. 2) said, “Language is only meaningful in its context of situation.”

When experts were asked about using the Xhosa language in television, they were positive about it, reflecting that it does work.

*We did an advert in Xhosa recently, and it worked very well because we were mostly targeting consumers from who mostly speak Nguni languages, as many of them understand simple Xhosa words. It resonated very well with the audiences (Participant G)*

Also, all the experts spoke about the importance of a great creative, since the language used is not necessarily the ‘big idea’; it is part of great execution and advertisement effectiveness.

*You still need a strong big idea; nothing beats a big idea that is able to bend to many languages. Language is not enough, it is necessary, but you still need a great big concept (Participant F)*

Lastly, the experts found that, when the content is an educational, informative, or lifesaving message, it is always best to use the mother tongue in a television advertisement. It is hard to educate people while they still need to navigate a language they do not understand well.

## **Theme 2: Tone is often more important than the use of English in advertising**

The use of English in advertising would not necessarily be alienating. The experts believed that the majority of township consumers have a basic understanding of the language. Therefore, over and above language, the tone of the advertisement is important in driving understanding and resonance.

*So, the kind of words that we use, depending on the audience that we are talking to, and if you want to reach as many people as possible, I will not use the word 'flabbergasted'. I will use the word 'surprised' (Participant A).*

*I believe that a conversational type of message that uses common words and vocabulary is far more effective than using jargon, so, if you take that principle, it also applies here that, when people speak in their own lingo, the meaning is not only conveyed better, but it also affects memorability (Participant D).*

*An English advert is not necessarily an exclusive piece of communication when it comes to non-English-speaking people; it is not necessarily condescending; it is not necessarily trivialising of other cultures and languages; it can actually be a very constructive piece of communication, if it is done in the right way (Participant E).*

*I've just finished shooting a series of ads over the past few days, and the target market was wide, very wide and broad, and, uhm, we've chosen to have it in English. But the people who are speaking in the ads are not actors; they are ordinary South Africans; they are using their own words and they are speaking in English because the majority of the people get it. But the director would say to them, "How would you say this in your own words, in your own language?" And there are smatterings of all different languages peppered throughout, so that it feels like they felt comfortable (Participant F).*

The majority of the experts strongly believed that an advertisement can still be effective in English, and it is difficult and costly and time-consuming to make over 11 permutations of the same advertisement to try and accommodate all official languages. It is not practical and also not cost-efficient, nor will it yield a positive return on media spend. For the experts, it is not just language that matters but relevance, tonality, and great ideas well executed with respect and inclusivity, that meet the brief's business and brand objectives. The greatest challenge lies in costing, where marketers and advertisers have to adopt the most cost-effective solutions; for example, using different mediums to ensure communications reach all, or using English for a mass communication piece (ATL), and targeted radio, print and outdoor activations in the vernacular to reach non-English-speakers. Another challenge lies in translating an English concept into the vernacular, where the messaging stands the risk of being lost in translation due to a lack of cultural context and insight, therefore losing meaning and resonance (Brock-Utne,

2002). To some extent, the experts agreed with consumers that keeping the language conversational as the ordinary consumer speaks it (a mix of English, urban vernacular lingo and appropriate dialect) can be effective, depending on the target audience and brand, and, where necessary (and within the budget), 100% vernacular advertisements on the radio, and in print and outdoor media.

Language plays a significant part in advertising. As Tarigan (1993, p. 23) pointed out, language serves four goals in the advertisement–production process: self-expression, exposition, art, and persuasion. In human culture, language is a sign system. According to Levi-Strauss (in Kasiyan, 2008, p. 133), the language symptom encompasses not only the meaning of written or spoken language, but also all the social phenomena of the larger culture in society, such as clothing, food menus, and rituals. The researcher states that, due to overreliance on and global acceptance of the English language as the official business language, it would not be easy to convince advertisers to adopt multilingual advertisements. The preparation of an advertising campaign for a multilingual society is challenging because people’s reactions to a particular language vary considerably from one person to another. It might be important that advertisers identify the relationship between the selection of local languages in an advertising campaign with customers’ purchase intentions or products/services, especially considering the diversity of township communities in the WC and EC.

The content of television advertisements communicated in the English language might trigger a person’s behavioural intentions to purchase a product. This is usually influenced by motion pictures, people demonstrating the use of a product, and other factors that motivate one’s intention. It is not the language or medium of instruction that influences a person’s behavioural intentions. A person with higher perceived behavioural control is likely to try harder and persevere longer than an individual who has lower perceived control.

### **Theme 3: There are challenges with creating vernacular television advertisements**

The experts identified three main stumbling blocks or barriers to creating vernacular advertising. First, it is expensive (not cost-effective) and also factors in limited and annually declining marketing budgets to create multiple advertisements in different languages. Second, the race and gender representation in the creative agency industry does not consider diversity, equity and inclusion (DEI). The creative agencies have failed dismally with BBBEE (broad-based Black economic empowerment), so there are not enough Black or female creatives and

strategists in the creative agency world who speak the Zulu, Sotho, Pedi, Xhosa, and mixed-slang vernacular spoken in townships and rural areas.

*The status quo remains that we simply do English, and then you do one in Zulu and then one in Sotho/Tswana. Maybe Xhosa, maybe depending on what you are trying to do, you know? We have three or four permutations; that is what we do now (Participant B).*

*So, advertisers consider commercial viability in terms of the cost it would take to communicate in all these languages, where separate production is required (Participant C).*

*So, if I am then going to do a TV ad on SABC 1 that is watched by so many different tribal groups and stuff, what do I do? Do I do one ad that is in Xhosa, Zulu ... you know what I mean? It is just not realistic. So yes, maybe it is a cop-out, but it just does feel easier to be able to do it in English when it comes to my very broad mass communication piece because, financially, I just can't see how a brand can be able to translate into all the languages (Participant D).*

*Some of the agencies are not sufficiently transformed to appreciate this reality and, beyond the obvious transformation of diversity in terms of the race, I think, for me, it is the diversity of thought, the diversity of backgrounds – because I can tell you now you can have a completely Black team of creatives but, if those creatives were born in Fourways and Sandton, you have no chance (Participant G).*

The top three challenges highlighted by the experts in creating more vernacular advertisements are budget constraints (it is expensive), a lack of DEI representation, and the lack of homogeneity in vernacular languages. Lastly, adding numbers four and five, are laziness and bias: It is easy to focus only on English or, maybe, if there is budget and time, to add Zulu, and it has become the way we do things now. English was used more frequently on billboards and in advertising than any of the local languages in Zambia and Zimbabwe, but not in Tanzania, where Kiswahili dominates billboards and advertising. In South Africa, the English language dominates billboard advertising (Rosendal, 2009).

Asmall (2010) also found that advertisers are confronted with a number of challenges regarding the creation of vernacular television advertising. These include a lack of substitute terminology

for the translation of English words into a vernacular language. For example, if advertisers want to announce a new product or service, there might not be appropriate words in Xhosa or Sesotho. If the advertisers are not well-versed in indigenous South African languages, this adds to the challenge. Likewise, if there are fluent Xhosa speakers available, the challenge might be that they are not well-versed in English. Individuals may develop an unfavourable attitude to a product because of the way it is presented.

People can be educated about issues like rape, child abuse, and racial tolerance through advertisements. When a product's sales are declining, a burst of advertising is employed to boost sales. Advertising also informs consumers about product availability and underlines the reasons why they should buy a certain item (Abelman & Atkin, 2002).

#### **Theme 4: Vernacular languages provide opportunities for a deeper connection**

Vernacular advertising was seen to give recognition and respect to individuals, thus driving a stronger understanding and resonance, reaching and deeply connecting with a broader audience in townships and rural markets, showing respect to the audience and, lastly, embracing diversity and an audience that lives in a 'melting pot'.

*I recognize you and I respect you for who you are, with the diversity that you bring to this melting pot and the diversity. It is a diversity that should make us better collectively (Participant D).*

*The purpose of advertising, to a large extent, is to inform and to influence, and we all know that any communication is more effective when it is best packaged in a way that is best understood by the recipients. But, beyond understanding, that has more resonance and connection with the recipients (Participant E).*

*When you speak to them in a language that is appropriate to them, they say, "Oh! Then you respect me!" (Participant F).*

*You want people to celebrate themselves, especially given the kind of difficult history that South Africa has had, with racial discrimination through apartheid policies. You know, you don't want Black people to feel like their languages aren't important. So that's why it is important to have African language stations, and it is also important to have them on some of the TV shows, and also on media platforms. It is important to be able to access different languages (Participant G).*

*I do believe that a brand communicating in your own home language, I think, is quite nice. I think it gets consumers to connect more with your brand than not (Participant C).*

The benefits of employing a vernacular, as defined by the experts, revolve around four basic themes: respect, variety, deeper connection, and broader reach. The experts' opinions differed from those of Nederstigt and Hilberink-Schulpen (2017), who claimed that the English language is extremely popular in non-English-speaking countries and communities. In contrast to what is happening in South Africa, Piller (2001) discovered that 70% of German television advertising was bilingual. Because English is often used in communities and societies where English is a second or third language, its attention-getting function decreases as habituation occurs.

#### **Theme 5: There is a danger of messages being lost in simple translations**

Some expert in-depth interviewees cautioned: When translating an English concept into the vernacular, there is always a risk that the messaging will be lost in translation, hindering resonance and effectiveness. Creative idea generation in most agencies starts in English because of their lack of language and race diversity; then it is translated, if necessary, into Xhosa or Zulu or a relevant vernacular. Much is always lost in translation.

*It is not effective when an advertiser starts with an English message and then translates it to an African language. It is more effective when it starts from the origins of insights that are relevant to African-language-speaking people, and it is effective when the message is enveloped by a context that those people can relate to, which may not be necessarily the same as English speakers, who tend to be White: The cultural context is very important. So, while I am at that, I just want to highlight a very important point: that language is a currency of culture and, when we fail to communicate our messages in African languages, we are missing out on the full value of advertising that rides on culture (Participant B).*

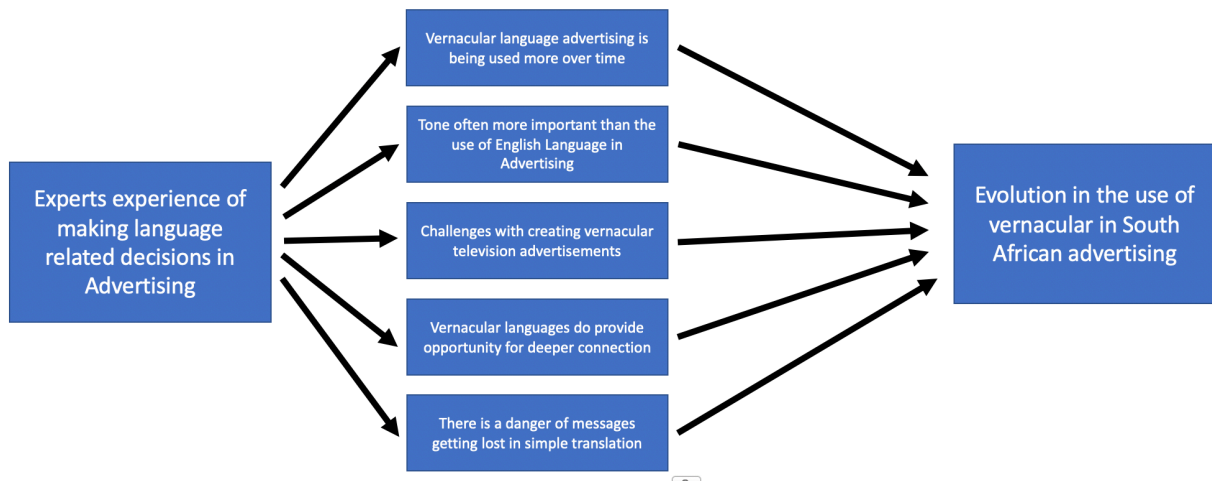
*I could take my limited budget and come up with a concept and translate it, or not translate it, across different languages because sometimes a lot of stuff is lost in translation, and a lot of advertising has been branded 'ineffective' because of direct translations of concepts that cannot be translated across languages. Sometimes concepts have to be conceptualised in that particular language and culture because of cultural nuances; so, I understand that (Participant D).*

The ideal, according to the experts, is that, to improve creative effectiveness and impact, the 'big idea' and copy have to originate from a vernacular, to minimise the risk that the essence of the creative message meaning will be lost in translation. Landing a message effectively and driving resonance is of the utmost importance among experts, and language used in communication plays a role in achieving this. There is a strong sentiment that English advertising is understood by the majority of South Africans. Therefore, alienation or a lack of understanding is not a major concern; what is more important is delivering the message in a relevant way (via tonality, casting, types of words used, dialect). The experts acknowledged that the use of vernacular in advertising would deliver the message more effectively, and drive greater understanding and emotive resonance. Despite the difficulty of the English language as a possible determinant of people's preference for English or the local language, Hornikx et al. (2010) showed that easy-to-understand English slogans are appreciated better than difficult-to-understand English slogans.

After using the English language for a long time, some advertisers are convinced that their companies have tremendously benefitted from English advertisements. This is because advertising takes a huge chunk of a company's budget (Lahiri & Kedia, 2011). Firms use advertising effectiveness to determine whether their advertisements are hitting the right mark with their audience, and whether they are obtaining the best possible returns (Hall, 2002). Haley and Baldinger (1991) stated that the effectiveness of advertising is a complex issue that has long been debated. It is for this reason that firms continue to advertise, believing that advertisements yield positive results. However, they overlook the possibility that consumers exposed to these English television advertisements might not be understanding what is being communicated. The researcher believes this is a major gap that has not been thoroughly interrogated by advertisers to determine whether the sales volumes and revenue generated are actually a result of effective advertising or whether people just buy their products because there is no alternative.

### 6.3.2 Summary and Discussion of Presented Themes from Study 3

The five major themes that emerged from Study 3 are summarised in Figure 6.4.



**Figure 6.4: Experts' Experience of Making Language-related Advertising Decisions**

After exploring the five major themes from the expert interviews, a few key findings emerged that answer the research questions aligned to Study 3.

The first research question aligned to Study 3 was: *Why do advertising professionals believe that such a high proportion of television advertising to non-English L1 speakers is done in English?* Several overall findings answered this question.

First, many of the experts mentioned costliness, longer lead times, and lack of time. Xhosa television advertising incurs higher production costs because excellent translators are pricey, and requires long lead times, which are hardly ever available since most marketing campaigns and programmes have short lead times, sometimes responding to a competitor's launch.

Second, there is wastage because the television industry is owned mainly by national broadcasters who have a dominant near-monopoly, there are only two free-to-air stations, SABC and eTV, as well as paid subscription DSTV, making it very hard to select geographic targets. Xhosa is mostly spoken in two provinces, and producing television advertisements leads to significant wastage if they are in a vernacular that only predominates in two provinces. Yet the experts also agreed that, with the double-digit year-on-year growth of digital marketing and online advertising, limited geographic location will no longer be a factor, and they can now,

with precision, target audiences per province and locale, removing wastage and geographic limitations.

Third, the decision to use either English or vernacular languages is not simple. While there is evidence that language does make a difference, simple translation is not always the answer. For example, cost implications may negate the opportunity to localise advertisements, so defaulting to English becomes a financial issue. In addition, translating can be complex, since deep Xhosa terminology is not always easy to understand, even for Xhosa-first-language speakers from urban townships.

Fourth, lack of diversity and inclusion in advertising agencies and clients was cited as one of the main reasons for the dearth of Xhosa television advertisements. South African agencies and their clients still lag behind on the race, gender and broad-based transformation legislated by the country's BBBEE Act and the Employment Equity Act. The default creative becomes English as many of the teams are not diverse but mostly White and English-speaking. The official languages of all other countries suffer the same fate. According to the Chairperson, T. Kabinde, of the Commission for Employment Equity at the CEE launch event (CEE 2020-2021), "across all industries an analysis of the workforce movement indicate an apparent pervasive and persistent preference in the appointment, promotion and development of White and Indian population groups, particularly at the top two occupational levels". This persistent and pervasive negative trend limits broader and more diverse and inclusive television advertising that reflects the demography of the South African population and their languages.

The second research question aligned to Study 3 was: *What interventions can be suggested to use native languages for television advertising for non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships?* A number of overall findings answered this question:

First, **tone** (not just language) needs to be explored before approving advertising messages in either English or Xhosa to L2 or L3 English-speaking audiences. There is more to a language than words, so it is important for advertisers to consider things like form, phonology, function, meaning and appropriacy when making and flighting a Xhosa television advertisement. *Form* refers to understanding the rules that govern Xhosa. *Phonology* refers to accent, sounds, provincial differences, and rural vs urban and township phonological differences. *Meaning* extends beyond translation: If the advertisement was originally conceived in English, when it is translated and dubbed, the translation should capture the sense of the message so that the use

of the Xhosa words selected makes their meaning clear to all Xhosa speakers. Lastly, *appropriacy* demands that the agency and client be clear when and with whom it is relevant to use Xhosa; not all conversations demand that Xhosa be spoken but, depending on the seriousness of the matter, some will require Xhosa to be spoken from beginning to end. Also, if the message is to youths, there is no harm in mixing languages and adding slang.

Second, **dubbing and subtitling**. Experiment with making a Xhosa advertisement and then subtitling and dubbing it into English. There has not been much experimentation with dubbing and subtitling. Most of the experts agreed that more varied use of subtitling and dubbing needs to be reconsidered.

Third, **Xhenglish or mixed languages in an advertisement**. Most of the best soapies in South Africa use mixed languages in their content to accommodate all audiences nationally. Television advertising should also adopt the use of mixed languages or sometimes just use Xhosa from beginning to the end if there is no need for mixed languages. Mixed languages can be useful when there are terms that are not easy to translate into Xhosa or that are already used in everyday language. Xhosa speakers tend to use English words in their everyday conversations.

Fourth, **diversity and inclusion creative checklist and guidelines for teams**. Some of the experts' companies and agencies have now developed D&I creative guidelines and checklists. This checklist should include language and ask, "Is English necessary or what other languages we can use?" This needs to be part of the brief writing and agency briefing session, not an afterthought. To help both clients and agencies, a checklist with language as a key theme will help promote the use of more diverse languages. Some companies are starting to invest in linguists as well to improve language representation. It is important to consider hiring linguists in advertising agencies in future.

Fifth, **hire, promote and develop more diverse and inclusive teams**. Clients and agencies need to hire more diverse teams and put language at the heart of the recruitment strategy, not just race, gender, sexual orientation and disability. Just because a hire is Black, it does not automatically mean they can speak their mother tongue or understand Xhosa. Two of the interviewed experts (Participants D and G) shared data from the #Unstereotype Alliance (2020) report and the Kantar Diversity and Inclusion report (2020), which showed the DEI challenge in the creative industry: "*only 1–2% of staff are disabled, less than 3% of creative directors*

*and CEOs of agencies are Black or multi-ethnic, less than 17% of creative directors are women, and 0.7% of creative departments are staffed by Black women”.*

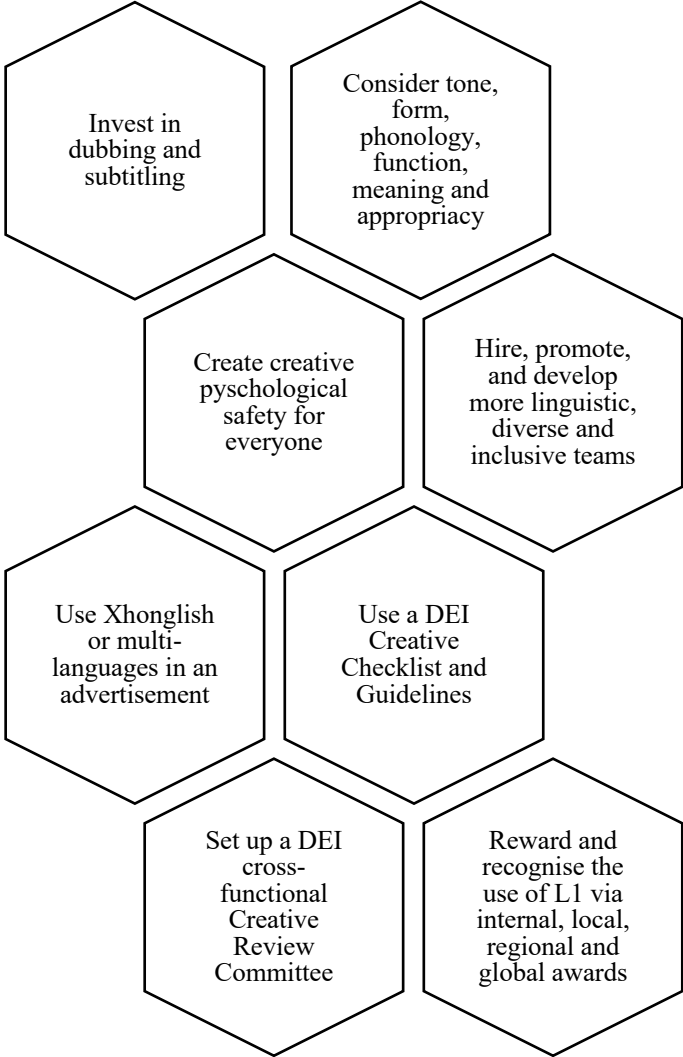
Sixth, **at the Cannes, Loeries, Effies awards, promote television advertisements in languages other than English.** Most of the big creative award events have Wellness, Do Good, Purpose Driven, DEI (Diversity, Equity and Inclusion) as some of their key topics and awards. Currently, DEI focuses mostly on race, sexual orientation, persons with disability and gender, and has awards for companies who are progressive and continue to un stereotype LBGTQA+, women, Black+, and persons with disability. The experts propose that the focus should extend beyond these key demographic variables to Language. Since language is linked to identity and pride, this will help decolonise South African television advertising, and give all voices equal chances to be heard and used, making consumers feel included while improving brand health metrics. In the long run, all advertisements should be able to compete equally with English advertisements and not be boxed into a category of their own so as not to continue the marginalisation of non-English advertisements but rather elevate them to equal status with English.

Seventh, **Measure, Analyse, Act, Reward.** More Xhosa television advertising research pre-testing needs to be done to move beyond just feelings and emotions. Clients and agencies should advocate for more vernacular television advertising research that will help strengthen the case for developing more vernacular television advertising. Currently, there is very little data for marketers and agencies to use to justify why non-English television advertisements are also effective, or even better than English advertising. They also need to be able to answer when asked when English is suitable and when to use Xhosa, Zulu or Pedi (to mention a few out of the 11 official languages). Companies like Kantar and Nielsen have developed television advertising testing databases to look seriously at diversity and inclusion, measuring the inclusiveness of brand advertising. Another area to focus on is rewarding brands that champion other languages because some clients and agencies are motivated by winning awards and gaining recognition.

Lastly, **‘big ideas’ still matter.** Language is one of the major ingredients in creating memorability and evoking emotions to make an advertisement most liked and effective at meeting brand OKRs (objectives and key results). But, on its own, language is not enough: Great advertising is multifactorial, not reliant on just one variable. There is still a need for bold

and creative ideas drawn from observations of and insights into consumers' lived experiences, wishes and dreams.

A summary of possible interventions derived from the interviews is provided in Figure 6.5.



**Figure 6.5: Experts' Suggestions for Possible Interventions in Language-related Decisions**

Now that each of the findings from Studies 1, 2 and 3 have been presented in Chapters 5 and 6, the next section will synthesise the overall findings before a chapter summary is completed. Chapter 7 will then draw out the final conclusions.

## 6.4 Synthesis of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

In Chapter 5, the thesis presented and discussed quantitative findings relating to Study 1. Chapter 6 has discussed and presented results for Studies 2 and 3. The first study was a survey where data were collected from individuals and households in the EC and WC townships to test the TPB and discover how the English and Xhosa languages were perceived by consumers in the selected research sites. Similarly, the second and third studies attempted to understand how consumers felt when television advertisements were flighted in English, since it was their second or third language. In all three studies, there was consensus that consumers felt more comfortable with Xhosa-language advertisements than with English-language advertisements. This was supported by experts, who acknowledged that the use of vernacular in advertising would be more effective in delivering the message and driving greater understanding and emotive resonance. When advertisements used Xhosa, the participants felt that the message was more heart-warming, relevant, and even more emotive. The Xhosa advertisements made them feel included, and were even more impactful when the setting and storyline was relevant to their everyday lives in the townships or the rural villages they came from.

All the studies acknowledged that there is a strong sentiment that English advertising is understood by the majority of South African and that alienation or lack of understanding is not a major concern. What is more important is delivering the message in a relevant way (via tonality, casting, types of words used, dialect). This is demonstrated by results that showed that Xhosa Domestos and Xhosa Sunlight television advertisements scored significantly well in almost all key advertisement effectiveness measures (brand recall, enjoyment and persuasion), except for involvement, where the scores of both advertisements were not statistically significant.

The literature demonstrates that selecting local languages (Xhosa and Zulu in this instance) in an advertising campaign addressing customers' purchase intentions or products/services from a service provider is very important. All the studies concurred that television advertising in SA is rarely multilingual, lagging far behind the most watched and liked soaps. This is unlike what happens in other countries, where an advertisement for perfume might use French as a foreign language because of the congruent relationship between the product and the foreign language used. Piller (2001) found that 70% of German television commercials were multilingual. With the advent of globalisation, the above figures are likely to increase because the dictates of the global economy are compelling advertisers to use a universal business

language. When English is frequently used in communities or societies where it is a second or third language, the attention-getting function of using a ‘foreign’ language decreases because habituation occurs.

Studies 2 and 3 concurred that a language can serve as an attribute and medium of experience and can influence customers’ affective response and thoughts. An individual’s emotional reaction to a television advertisement campaign can also affect customers’ attitude to the advertisement itself. Since attitude to a television advertisement can alter behavioural intentions, it is imperative for firms to consider the language used in their advertising campaigns (Fattah et al., 2014). Given the contextual settings of many people in the EC and WC townships, the researcher claims that many Black South African people are bi/multilingual because they live in communities with more than one prevalent language. In addition, many South African schools teach two or more languages. Code-switching (use of a mixed-language approach) is now a preferred approach to targeting consumers with a knowledge of two languages. The Western and Eastern Cape provinces are known to be Afrikaans and Xhosa-speaking regions. Therefore, advertisers have a belief that the use of the English language in advertising will be easily integrated into the communities.

What was evident from all the studies was that advertisers had some challenges to overcome with respect to the languages used in communicating television messages. The patterns of responses to dubbed messages in the videos are supported by the expert and focus-group interviews in that the audience for the television advertisements was not conversant with the messages but with the products that were in front of them. Participants also admitted that there was still a great deal of work required to appreciate vernacular languages in television advertising. Other countries were using indigenous languages as official communication languages, but South African advertisers were lagging behind them, believing that English is easily understood and integrated into township communities.

## **6.5 Chapter Summary**

This chapter was divided into two sections to discuss Study 2 and Study 3. Research findings for the focus-group interviews were presented and discussed. Twenty participants were selected from Gugulethu and Khayalitsha. Thus, each focus group comprised seven participants. For Study 3, seven experts in marketing, branding, communications and consumer behaviour were

interviewed for their insights. In both the focus-group discussions and the expert interviews, the researcher identified and discussed emerging themes.

The next chapter, which is the final chapter of the study, presents the conclusions, recommendations, implications and contributions of the study, as well as suggestions for future research.

## **PART IV**

### **CHAPTER 7**

## **CONCLUSIONS, RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH**

### **7.1 Introduction**

Chapter 5 presented and discussed quantitative findings for the first study. It was followed by Chapter 6, which presented and discussed findings for the second and third studies. This final chapter introduces the conclusions by restating the research problem and the primary question that guided the study. The chapter first highlights how addressing the primary research question led to the conclusions from the studies. The next section focuses on the research contributions to different beneficiaries, followed by the limitations that were faced during the period of the study. Suggestions for future research are presented, followed by the final conclusion of the study. Below is the restatement of the research problem.

The use of the English language in television advertisements creates communication challenges in Western Cape and Eastern Cape townships, where most consumers are not English speakers. Non-English speakers, or consumers who speak English as a second or third language, feel disenfranchised because advertisers use complex English that is difficult to understand. Thus, communication barriers impede the purchase intentions of consumers who do not always understand the messages (Chin & Muhammad, 2012). With nearly 90% of television advertisements being done in English, there appears to be no solution in sight for marketers and advertisers to take cognisance of the country's diversity and to provide inclusion through the use of many languages. In the era of Black Lives Matter and considerations of diversity, equity and inclusion, plus a growing Black African digital presence, television advertising needs to become a tool for social change while working harder to achieve a brief's intended goals or objectives and key results (OKRs). Perhaps the sole use of the English language as a medium of television advertising is causing advertisers to miss a great opportunity to make television advertisements even more effective in achieving brand recall, main-message recall, intention to purchase and a change in behaviour.

## 7.2 Conclusions from the Study

The use of English in television advertisements has been unquestioned for a long time, and not much action has been done to challenge advertisers on why they use English for communities or societies that do not understand it. The absence of engagement and debates to find an amicable solution has been integrated into the general public's narrative and accepted as part of people's daily lives. Researchers, consumers and policymakers have either turned a blind eye to the challenge or not paid much heed to the issue, creating the impression that English advertisements are accepted by societies in townships in the WC and EC. The problem is systemic; therefore, there is a need to obtain a better industry perspective through the marketing communications of advertising.

As Kotler and Keller (2013) found, marketers expose their products, services or brands to the outside world with the intention of attracting attention, creating interest and prompting intention by customers to perform a purchase action. When the advertisement is exposed to consumers, marketers believe they have consumers who will change their thinking about the brand and build excitement. Buyers respond strongly and quickly to brands they are loyal to, so advertising exposure influences the quantity purchased rather than chosen brands (Bridson et al., 2013). The nucleus of the study was how consumers in the EC and WC townships reacted/responded to television advertisements that were flighted in a language that was foreign to them. As advertisers generate messages intended to inform or influence their audience, do the advertisers involve the audience? This is a major question that has not been addressed by past studies in the marketing discipline.

As one of the marketing communications channels, advertising activities contribute to brand equity and drive sales in many ways: creating brand awareness, forging brand image in consumers' memories, eliciting positive brand feelings, and strengthening consumer loyalty (Kotler & Keller, 2013). This thesis acknowledged that advertising reaches geographically dispersed buyers while building long-term relationships for the brand. In order to yield the desired results, firms spend a considerable amount of money (budget) on television advertising. Consumers exposed to heavily advertised services and products tend to believe that the brand offers 'good value'. This might be true in some instances and untrue in others because 'good value' is subjective. When consumers are exposed to the same messages over time, they have ample time to compare and contrast the 'good value' promised by the brand, only to discover that there is nothing new. With reference to the South African advertising landscape, advertisers

choose the aspects of the brand and product on which to focus communications but do not choose a language; the English language is used in all television advertising.

The study revealed that languages differ fundamentally from one another at every level: sound, grammar, lexicon and meaning. Therefore, it is difficult to find any single structural property South African languages share (Evans & Levison, 2009). Though there is a belief among cognitive scientists that all languages have an English-like similarity but with different sound systems and vocabularies, there is a real range of linguistic diversity that is not recognised by cognitive scientists (Pinker & Bloom, 1990). However, acknowledging the diversity of language is crucial for understanding the place of language in human cognition. The diversity of language points to the general importance of cultural and technological adaptation in humankind: language is a biocultural hybrid, a product of intensive gene-culture co-evolution over thousands of years (Boyd & Richerson, 1985) – and South Africans identify their languages with their culture.

In an attempt to satisfy customers, advertisers should be cognisant of the myriad emotions confronting customers and what type of emotions they are. Machleit et al., (2000) established that joy, sadness, surprise, disgust, anger and fear are some of the common emotions facing customers and, as such, they should be approached with caution. Babin and Babin (2001) stated that positive emotions tend to be associated with positive outcomes, and negative emotions are associated with negative outcomes. For instance, consumers excited by television visuals, movements and product packaging, together with patronage intention and hedonic shopping value, tend to evince positive behavioural intentions. These positive emotions are not evoked by understanding an English-language advertisement. The language used in an advertisement can serve as an attribute and medium of experience, influencing customers' affective responses or intentions to act (Fattah et al., 2014). Therefore, it is imperative for advertisers to consider the languages in their advertising campaigns.

Behavioural intention arises from a belief that performing a behaviour will result in a specific outcome. As a result, attitudes to behaviours and subjective norms influence customers' behavioural intentions. The term *behavioural intention* refers to the fact that the intention to perform a specific behaviour precedes the actual behaviour.

In the household survey of 2018, StatsSA indicated that SA is marked by distinct and diverse ecosystems and is referred to as the 'rainbow nation'. There are 11 official languages, with

isiZulu spoken by 23% of the country's population, followed by isiXhosa (16%), Afrikaans (14%), and English in the fourth position with 9.6%. Given the context of the multilinguistic nature of the country, advertisers should have been taking cognisance of using diverse languages in their television campaigns. When considering the demographic composition of customers in the WC and EC townships, where the majority speak Xhosa and Afrikaans as their primary languages, these customers might feel alienated from the brand, although English is the preferred language for business, nationally and globally (BusinessTech, 2018).

The study established that English monolingualism is dominant in South Africa. This was repeatedly stated by respondents and participants from the three studies. For example, the most watched soapies, dramas and reality shows are broadcast in English, demonstrating that vernacular languages are less considered. This is unlike what happens in other non-English-speaking countries where native languages are used so that a service or product advertised is congruent with the community/society in which the language is spoken. If a foreign language is used (for example, a perfume advertisement might use French), it is because there is a congruent relationship between the product and the foreign language used. If the same advertisement were written with Russian as the foreign language, the relationship between the foreign language and the product would be incongruent because Russia is not typically associated with perfumes. Therefore, language must fit its context: As Firth (in Syamsuddin, 1992, p. 2) said, "Language is only meaningful in its context of situation."

The study revealed that African languages are taught in the USA, Europe and Japan, which demonstrates the important role played by African languages in the global economy. There is no evidence that African languages are used in television advertisements in these economies, but the opposite is true, that the English language is used or is dominant in African homes. This is because most African countries continue to use their former colonial language as the primary language of formal education (Brock-Utne, 2000). An important observation is that, in most African countries, education through the medium of the mother tongue may occur for the first few years of primary school, but the switch is then made to the medium of English. Some private or Model A schools use English as a medium of communication, thus eroding the possibility of using indigenous languages. Tanzania is one of the most notable exceptions to this, having used Kiswahili as the medium of instruction throughout primary school since 1969. In fact, until recently, there were very few primary schools in Tanzania that offered English as

a medium of instruction, and these English-medium schools primarily served the children of expatriates.

Malaysia is a diverse or multiracial and multilingual society, similar to South Africa, and Malaysians speak two or more languages. Bahasa Malaysia is the national and official language of the country, and also the medium of instruction in primary and secondary schools and public universities (Fattah et al., 2014). Fattah et al. (2014) established that many local and international firms in Malaysia employ the local Bahasa Malaysia language, as well as including elements of cultural norms in building their brand identity in a particular region. The perceived usability of the Bahasa Malaysia language increased when words used in a television advertisement campaign were conceived in the native language of consumers.

After reviewing the available literature, the current study found no past studies that examined the effects of English-language television advertising on consumers in the EC and WC townships. The researcher is convinced that the area of consumer behaviour has been well researched in the domain of marketing, but there is a dearth of information about language of communication in television advertisements. The ramifications of using a language that is not well-understood by consumers can be consequential to the brand in the long run (Fattah et al., 2014). Although the literature recognises the 11 official languages in South Africa, there is a yawning gap that should be closed to ensure that English-illiterate consumers are catered for. The study highlights that there are no efforts or demonstrated initiatives to use multilingualism in television advertising.

Three theoretical frameworks were adopted after the realisation that the study dealt with a complex and multifaceted problem. The complexities were brought about by the behavioural nature of consumers with the intention to act, the cognitive emotions that are evoked by what they see on television prompting them to act, and the language used by advertisers to attract their attention and evoke a desire to purchase a product/service. Based on the evaluation, attitude is concerned with the consumer's favourable or unfavourable perception of carrying out the behaviour and the consequences thereof (Boston University School of Public Health, 2016). Television advertisements contain voluminous information, which might be difficult to follow or understand because the time slots are short and, if consumers miss one piece of information, their attitude might be affected.

Humans are social beings, and normative pressures influence our decisions on things like how we vote, what we buy, and even what we watch on television (Manning, 2009). This means that, in populated societies such as the ones under investigation in this study, it is easy for neighbours to influence their peers on what to watch. A person's intention to perform a behaviour is the main predictor of whether or not they actually perform that behaviour. Stronger intentions lead to increased effort to perform the behaviour, which also increases the likelihood of the behaviour being performed (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Therefore, the Theory of Planned Behaviour was ideal to test the relationship between behaviour and intention. In addition, the flexibility of the TPB allowed the researcher to modify the model by including the moderators, advertising effectiveness and the English language.

Findings from the literature show that firms use advertising effectiveness to determine whether their advertisements are hitting the right mark with their audience and whether the firm is receiving a return on investment (Hall, 2002). In order to measure the effectiveness of advertising, the Advertising Response Model was used. It affords advertising experts and marketers a better understanding of how their advertising performs. Key variables measured by the ARM include brand recall, brand memory (Armstrong, 2016), advertisement liking (enjoyment, which is an emotional reaction to the brand), brand rating/predisposition, benefits offered by a brand (American Marketing Association, 2018), and persuasion to purchase or the consumer's interest (evoked by memory, recognition) in purchasing a product/service. The idea of communication of impact entails the processes of disseminating inspirational messages to the target audience and, finally, the product's attributes.

The study revealed that more than half of the global population is bilingual; therefore, advertisers are moving towards multilingual advertising (Grosjean, 2010). The tendency is intensified by immigration, tourism, studying abroad, and the media, all of which expose customers to different cultures, resulting in the emergence of bicultural customers. Advertisers are then forced to code-switch, that is, use mixed languages so that customers who understand two or more languages are targeted. For example, advertisers might adopt code-switching in the Eastern and Western Cape townships where the residents speak Afrikaans and Xhosa.

The Stern Model of Communication was also used in this study to clarify that parties to a communication process need to capture interactivity better, based on the re-categorisation of advertising. Johnson and Johnson (1990) asserted that the Stern Model of Communication is premised on written text. Given the context of the South African schooling system, there are

debates that the use of the English language is eroding indigenous languages. Thus, educators and learners find themselves trapped between a rock and a hard place. For example, subjects like Economics, Mathematics or Physics do not have native language names. Therefore, with the Stern Model of Communication, translators would be required.

Gaps identified in the theoretical frameworks adopted for this study include a lack of accurate predictability, failure to accurately measure advertising effectiveness, the need for an interactive network of advertisers, restrictiveness or exclusion of other factors, and neglect of emotional triggers. Given the extent of these gaps, this thesis developed an integrative theoretical framework (see Figure 3.8), which helped to explain the effects of English-language advertising in communities that are non-English speakers or use English as a second or third language. The integrative theoretical framework outlines the EC and WC consumer landscape, specifically the dominant languages and how the residents feel when English advertisements are flighted. The combined influence of the TPB, the Stern Communications Model and the Advertising Effectiveness Theory informed the three studies conducted in this thesis, resulting in its conclusions on the effectiveness of English-language advertising in the WC and EC townships.

In the first study, which was quantitative in nature and focused specifically on the TPB constructs, all 620 respondents were derived from the Black ethnic group because they made up the majority of customers in the WC and EC townships. In addition, their dominant language was Xhosa. Therefore, the approach was aligned with the research title and objective. Data collection was split into four cells. Cell 1 collected responses to English television advertising of Domestos; Cell 2 collected responses on Xhosa television advertising of Domestos; Cell 3 collected responses relating to English television advertising of Sunlight; and Cell 4 collected responses relating to Xhosa television advertising of Sunlight. Given the findings in all four television advertisements, this thesis concludes that Xhosa television advertisements garnered more positive responses than English television advertisements. This finding indicates that advertisers have a responsibility to introspect the choice of language used in television advertising.

The conclusion presented above was drawn from the research study's literature review. The conclusion related to the primary research question is summarised in the next subsection.

### **7.2.1 Research Question**

The primary research question for the study was:

*How does English-language television advertising affect illiterate or non-English consumer behaviour in Western and Eastern Cape townships?*

The five-point Likert scale was used in this thesis, with the minimum value (*strongly disagree*) and the maximum value (*strongly agree*) computed. The analyses determined respondents' degrees of agreement or disagreement with each construct. Mean values were computed as the measures of central tendency for this study, and standard deviation values were computed to measure the variance of responses to each variable. As explained by Hair et al. (2010a), the relationship between the mean and the standard deviation is that a small estimated standard deviation denotes that respondents' responses were consistent and that the response distributions lie close to the mean. Conversely, a large standard deviation indicates that the responses vary, making the response distribution values fall away from the mean of the distribution (Maziriri, Chuchu & Madinga, 2019). Moreover, the standard deviation value "should be less than 1 but it is recommended to at least include a value of less than 2 to ensure that there is no issue of outliers" (Drost, 2011, p. 87). The results in Table 5.2, Descriptive Statistical Results (English Domestos Advertisement), demonstrate that mean scores depict a collective inclination to both *disagree* and *neutral* positions.

### **7.2.2 Conclusions from Quantitative Findings**

Quantitative findings were presented under the auspices of Study 1, which was divided into two parts – the first was an analysis of language and intention to purchase using the TPB, and the second focused on language and advertising effectiveness. The overall sample was 620 respondents, all aged 18 years and above, who were isiXhosa first-language speakers. Table 5.1, Final Sample Description, summarises the demographic split of respondents.

The results for English advertising for Domestos shown in Table 5.3, Psychometric Properties of Measurement Scales (English Domestos Advertisement), range from 0.80 to 1 score values. These values are a testament to respondents' disagreement that English-language advertising is effective to non-English-speaking consumers. Four hypotheses were tested to determine whether respondents' attitudes, social norms, perceived behavioural control and intention to purchase had a significant impact on the brand, even if the advertisement was presented in

English. With reference to Hypothesis 1, attitudes to the brand were supported and had a significant impact on the intention to purchase Domestos, while Hypothesis 2 was not supported because they did not have a significant impact on intention to purchase Domestos. The results also showed that perceived behavioural control and intention to purchase were significant and influenced attitudes to intention to purchase the Domestos brand (Chinomona & Mofokeng, 2016).

The results shown in Table 5.6, Descriptive Statistical Results (Xhosa Domestos Advertisement), illustrate mean scores ranging between 1.21 and 2.76 (out of 5.0) computed for the examined constructs. The scores depict a collective inclination to the *agree* and *neutral* positions on the Likert scales. This means that respondents' behavioural intentions and attitudes to the Domestos brand were evoked after watching Xhosa advertisements. However, results from the tested hypotheses also showed that social norms had an insignificant influence on the respondents' intention to purchase the Domestos brand.

Results for English advertising for Sunlight were similar to the results of the English advertisement for Domestos. Results in Table 5.10, Descriptive Statistics (English Sunlight Advertisement), show mean scores ranging between 1.09 and 3.51 (out of 5.0) for all the computed constructs. The results in Table 5.13, Model Fit Results (CFA) (English Sunlight Advertisement), show an acceptable goodness-of-fit model. All the indicators met the acceptable thresholds of equal to or greater than 0.9 (Schreiber et al., 2010). Table 5.14, SEM Model Fit Indexes (English Sunlight Advertisement), results demonstrate that all the indexes were accepted, which means that respondents did not feel comfortable with the English-language advertisement for Sunlight. These results are similar to the findings of English advertisements for the Domestos brand.

Results from the study showed a higher response rate to the television advertisements flighted in isiXhosa than to the English advertisements. This was revealed in the two products chosen for the study. For all of the constructs studied in the study, mean scores ranging from 1.21 to 2.76 (out of 5.0) were obtained, as shown in Table 5.6, Descriptive Statistical Results (Xhosa Domestos Advertisement). These results show a general preference for the *disagree* and *neutral* positions on the Likert scales.

For this study, mean values were computed to measure central tendency, and standard deviation values were computed to measure the variance of responses on each variable. As explained by

Hair et al. (2010a), the relationship between the mean and the standard deviation is that a small estimated standard deviation (SD) denotes that respondents' responses were consistent and that the response distributions lay close to the mean.

The fourth dubbing pertained to Xhosa-language advertising for Sunlight. As was stated in earlier findings for the Domestos Xhosa advertisements, respondents were more comfortable, and hearing their native language used in a commercial advertisement evoked their emotions. In the Domestos and Sunlight advertisements in both languages, it was established that social norms had an insignificant influence on intention to purchase the brand. In Section 5.4.1, Results for Sunlight Advertisements in the English Language, the thesis established that the language used in an advertisement can serve as an attribute and medium of experience and thus influences customers' affective responses or intentions (Fattah et al., 2014). Furthermore, customers' emotional reactions to advertisements also affected their attitudes to the advertisement itself, and attitudes to an advertisement can alter behavioural intentions. Advertisers frequently use the English language because, globally, firms have adopted English as a business language. Many customers speak and understand English (Enfield, 2018). Because the English language is the official business language, people tend to become accustomed to the language, even if there is little understanding.

Advertisers frequently use English because it is assumed to be a language spoken or at least understood by consumers in large parts of the world. The role of advertising is to nudge, persuade and sometimes manipulate people to cooperate with the brand and for the potential users to democratically vote for it with their wallets in the marketplace and to have a relationship with the brand.

### ***7.2.3 Conclusions from Qualitative Findings***

Findings from the second study, conducted through four focus groups drawn from EC and WC townships, established that advertisements that stood out in participants' minds were those they considered funny and colourful but presented in the native language spoken by the consumers of the brand. Advertisements with high brand recall are easy to understand and relatable. Though participants acknowledged that the English language was widely used in television advertising, they felt that advertisements in the Xhosa language were more heart-warming, relevant, and even more emotive. Participants felt that Xhosa advertisements included them in

the marketing communication process. This was attributable to the fact that participants were conversant with and understood Xhosa better than English.

Interestingly, participants stated that deep-rural Xhosa advertisements would be difficult to understand, but the Xhosa language spoken in townships was relatively easy to understand. This posed challenges for advertisers who might have ambitions to use Xhosa television advertising. The majority of participants believed that Xhosa advertisements have many advantages, especially for their elders. All participants agreed that serious messages should ideally be communicated in Xhosa to increase ease of understanding and to make people feel included, and also agreed that people might act on the information because they understand the message. In addition, the use of the Xhosa language becomes a source of cultural pride. It is emotive, goes straight to the heart, feels like home, and makes Xhosa speakers feel included and have a sense of belonging; it is like your mother's unconditional love.

When the English language was used in television advertisements, participants indicated that they felt an emotional disconnection. This was particularly pointed out by Gugulethu Focus Group 1, in which it was said that emotions can connect or disconnect the customer from the advertiser. This viewpoint supported that of Machleit et al., (2000), who determined that advertisers should consider viewers and customers' emotions when they develop advertisements.

With reference to the expert interviews, the study established that experts mainly used vernacular language advertisements on radio, outdoor and print media as a way of reaching out to a larger audience. This supports Fattah et al. (2014), who stated that the use of a well-known language influences customers' affective responses or intentions. Participants agreed that the use of the English language in advertising does not necessarily alienate consumers because the majority of township consumers have a basic understanding of English. The majority of the experts strongly believed that an advertisement can still be effective in English and that it is difficult, costly and time-consuming to make over 11 permutations of the same advertisement to accommodate all official languages. Another challenge lies in translating an English concept into vernacular, where the message is at risk of being lost in translation due to a lack of cultural context and insight, thereby losing meaning and resonance (Brock-Utne, 2002).

The experts also indicated that there were challenges with creating vernacular television advertisements because much costly translation is required. This would be a strain for South

African firms with limited budgets because multiple advertisements would have to be created in different languages. There was consensus among all seven of the experts that it was advantageous to use vernacular languages in television advertising because the previously excluded audiences (rural) would be accommodated. The purpose of advertising is to inform and influence so that a message is clearly communicated (Participant E). Having analysed the research findings from all three studies, the researcher is convinced that the research question has been adequately addressed.

Participants indicated that advertisements with high recall stand out because they are not only easy to understand but also relatable, and the advertisers constantly refresh memory structures by flighting the advertisements regularly or frequently, so they are seen by many people, using high ARs (audience ratings) or GRPs (Gross Rating Points = Frequency x Reach).

Participants acknowledged that the bulk of television advertisements are in English, and their exposure to Xhosa advertisements is mainly on the *Umhlobo Wenene* radio station. When advertisements use Xhosa, the participants felt that the message was more heart-warming, relevant, and even more emotive. Television advertising is predominantly in English, and Xhosa advertisements are mostly run in radio African-language stations (RALs).

The views raised by the focus groups support what has been widely known, that SA, like the rest of the African continent, has relied on the English language for communication because English has been adopted as the global business language. When the advertiser repeats the message several times, the recipient of the message has ample time to compare and contrast the messages. The challenge that arises is the use of a language that is not spoken by a certain community ends up weakening the objective of communication.

The focus groups suggested several interventions: If using English in advertising, include more visuals (images and video) and less text or written copy. Participants stated that they did not want to work hard at trying to figure out what advertisements meant and so advertisements should not be complicated. There was also a sentiment that the advertising should have a language-appropriate setting. For example, English is more likely to be spoken in aspirational settings like suburbs than inside a shack or hut.

The language used in an advertisement can serve as an attribute and medium of experience. Thus, it influences customers' affective responses or intentions, and thoughts (Fattah et al., 2014). The participants did not assess language in isolation (Expert interviews). The findings

from the first study demonstrated that the use of Xhosa language advertising garnered more positive results than English-language advertising.

The top three challenges highlighted by the experts to creating more vernacular advertisements were budget constraints (it is expensive), a lack of DEI representation, and a lack of homogeneity in vernacular languages.

#### **7.2.4 Conclusions on Secondary Research Questions**

*RQ1: To what extent does the use of English versus Xhosa in an advertisement impact brand awareness?*

The study established that enjoyment or liking was evoked in consumers' minds instantaneously, resulting in a spontaneous emotional reaction to the brand. When consumers were exposed to Domestos television advertisements, they found it easy to identify the brand by the colour and shape of the Domestos toilet cleaner. Therefore, brand familiarity was key to enhancing their perceptual identification of the brand.

*RQ2: To what extent is advertisement liking (enjoyment) impacted by using English versus Xhosa in a television advertisement?*

A consumer's interest in purchasing a product or service is evoked by the memory, familiarity and recognition of the product. Advertisers use the AIDA approach to attract attention, generate interest and instil desire in consumers before a purchase action is concluded. Advertising exposure impacted research participants' perceptions of the toilet cleaner.

*RQ3: To what extent is Persuasion (Buying Interests) impacted by using English versus Xhosa in a television advertisement?*

People tend to engage with content that is relevant to them: entertaining, educational, or informative. Involvement measures the extent to which the viewer engages with the advertising, which is crucial to advertising success.

*RQ4: To what extent is Involvement impacted by using English versus Xhosa in a television advertisement?*

Advertisers have to get the right messages across using the right media for the right audience for the message. However, with television advertising, communication seems to be one-way

because the advertiser does not have a feedback mechanism to ascertain if the advertisement is effective or not. The only way to assess the effectiveness is through the sales volumes of a brand.

### **7.3 Contributions of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of English-language television advertising on non-English-speaking consumers in the EC and WC townships. Research participants and respondents were drawn from the Gugulethu and Khayalitsha townships. The researcher hypothesised that creating English television advertisements directed at South African consumers for whom English is a second or third language has limitations and significantly reduces the effectiveness of the advertising strategy. Given the context of the research findings and conclusions, this thesis has made significant contributions in a variety of ways, which are outlined in the sections below.

#### **7.3.1 *Originality Value***

Many South African (and global) marketers have been engaging with the concept of consumer behaviour without giving specific attention to English-language television advertising. When research is conducted, it should generate new ideas or present a new discovery that adds to knowledge or theory development. These new ideas result in the originality value of this thesis. This is the first attempt to measure the effects of English-language television advertising on non-English-speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape townships. The use of multiple theories helps to understand a phenomenon in its entirety. This thesis is original and has not been conducted before in the context of South African townships. Thus, value addition comes in the form of new insights that might help future researchers and advertisers to reconsider their advertising strategies.

#### **7.3.2 *Theoretical and Methodological Contribution***

This study tested existing theory with the aim of enhancing or altering the theory and generating research questions and propositions for future studies. The methodology contribution focused on combining quantitative advertising testing with traditional qualitative communication-testing methods. Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007, p. 1283) and Corley and Gioia (2011, p. 12) reasoned that theory contribution either involves building a new theory or testing existing theory, both incremental and revelatory, and should have utility (be practically and theoretically

useful). Therefore, a major methodological contribution of the thesis was combining and testing quantitative and qualitative advertising methods.

The major theoretical contribution of this study was the development of an integrative framework (Figure 3.8) and modification of the TPB theory (Figure 3.4), to which Ajzen (1991) encouraged adjustments and which is open to the inclusion of additional predictors. This general contribution underpins a more detailed exploration of the theoretical contribution to our understanding of each aspect of the model and the role that language plays in a context like South Africa.

The study was original by creating knowledge through the following:

- i. Past studies have examined the constructs of the TPB, Stern Model of Communication and Advertising Effectiveness Theory separately and have failed to address the challenge of using the English language in television advertising. Because English is used globally as a business communication language, it has become the norm that every advertiser uses it without considering the level of literacy of the consumers exposed to the advertisements. This thesis examined the various elements or constructs in the three models as a whole so as to understand the effectiveness of English-language advertisements.
- ii. The literature in the marketing discipline, specifically the communication element, has extensively discussed the importance, budgets and effectiveness of advertising without recognising the audience that watches and responds to television advertising. Discussions in the literature claim that not enough attention has been paid to how advertisers develop multiple advertisements in different languages to cater for consumers who do not understand English and only understand vernacular languages. Results from the three studies confirm and address the claims in the literature; therefore, it was worthwhile to conduct this study.
- iii. The findings also demonstrate that television advertising is a common communication tool; however, advertisers seem not to have paid attention to the fact that the use of the English language disconnects their customers from their brands. Given the results and recommendations provided in this study, a paradigm shift is required now for advertisers to consider non-English-speaking consumers, especially in countries where diverse languages are spoken.

### ***7.3.3 Multidisciplinary Approach Contribution***

The complex nature of the study emanates from a combination of multiple disciplines: theories from three different disciplines (psychology, consumer behaviour and sociology) were combined. In order to generate new knowledge and insights in the marketing discipline, marketing scholars advocate a multidisciplinary approach (Heeks & Bailur, 2007). By drawing theories from other disciplines, this thesis contributes to the multidisciplinary approach to marketing enquiry, which has been a clarion call by marketers globally to adopt (Walsham, 2012). Of note is the integration of the theories to explain and understand the effectiveness of English-language advertising; thus, a multidisciplinary approach has emerged as a major contribution of the thesis.

### ***7.3.4 Practical Contribution and Managerial Implications***

The study will help practitioners better understand the use of the mother language (L1) in advertising and how to improve key advertising metrics, such as ease of understanding, attention and intention to purchase. Other metrics included are liking, enjoyment, branding recall, message recall, persuasion, and awareness (spontaneous and prompted). Another major contribution to knowledge is adding African voices and insights into advertising, communication effectiveness and efficiency that are currently dominated by Western literature and voices.

The study has utility (practically and theoretically) in three ways: First, practically, the study is useful for practising marketers and creatives who apply their trade in a country with 11 official languages, predominantly Black, where the television medium still matters yet is dominated by the English language. Each piece of communication is intended to reach a diverse audience and either refresh memory structures and persuade and nudge the potential user or consumer to buy and use a certain product and service. Until now, there has been no scientific evidence on the use of the English language in television advertising in South Africa, or the rest of the African continent, and its effect on key advertising metrics, such as advertisement recall, brand recall, main-message recall, liking and intention to purchase. This study will help marketers and creatives be far more deliberate, intentional and proactive when deciding on a language to use in a television advertisement to help achieve brand–brief OKRs. This might also help indirectly promote the language diversity and inclusivity that are so badly needed by a nation with a fading rainbow.

## 7.4 Recommendations for Practice

Both the literature review and the primary research findings concluded that the English language is widely adopted by many firms globally as an official business language. Therefore, it became apparent that advertisers are using the language on the assumption that many township consumers understand the English language. Given the recent diversity and inclusion (D&I) initiatives, such as Un-Stereotyping and All-In, championed by global multinationals Unilever and Google, respectively. Consumer activism around D&I is on the rise, and users are demanding inclusivity/multilingualism and a sense of belonging in content creation across all media channel platforms. Clients and agencies need to become more deliberate, intentional and proactive in creating stories that embrace DEI principles. The use of mono-models that adopt global advertisement formulas or theories to understand advertising effectiveness does not give a clear understanding of advertising effectiveness, and excludes those who already feel marginalised by the privileged class. This thesis, therefore, recommends the adoption of multiple strategies and models to obtain a holistic picture by testing various constructs simultaneously (see Figure 3.8, Synthesis of Theoretical Frameworks).

After reviewing the literature, the researcher found no evidence that advertisers were making or had made efforts to develop television advertisements using multiple languages for customers in the EC and WC townships where this study was conducted. Given the dearth of such information, this thesis recommends that advertisers should be concerned with such reports and proactively create advertisements using multiple languages. This would be viewed by customers as a positive response, given the results from this study, which demonstrate that liking, ease of understanding, enjoyment, and intention to purchase significantly improve when advertisements are in Xhosa.

The researcher acknowledges that adopting this multilingual approach to creating advertisements will not be easy because it can be costly and there are other factors to consider, such as translation from the English language and whether the translations retain the same meanings. The other concern likely to be faced by advertisers is that they would have to create advertisements for every community that speaks a different native language to ensure inclusivity. Nevertheless, key recommendations from the findings are as follows:

#### ***7.4.1 Include Language in the Project Brief***

The project brief guides creative and media. It is important to deliberately and proactively make language inclusion mandatory, not an afterthought. If language diversity and inclusion are not mandatory in the project brief up front, they will not metamorphose into the creative.

#### ***7.4.2 Allocate 5%–15% of All Brand Campaign Budgets to Language and Translation***

To improve language inclusion and multicultural practices, companies like Google have allocated 15% of their top-tier brand campaign budgets to reach multicultural audiences. Agencies and clients have short-term targets to achieve and they always default to ‘proven’ when choosing a language, which is English. It is important for CMOs to create space for teams to experiment and fail fast. This can be done by allocating a certain percentage of the budget for agencies and client teams to explore languages and test effectiveness.

#### ***7.4.3 Avoid Direct Translation from English to Xhosa***

When direct translation is used, certain forms, concepts and figures of speech do not translate well. For this reason, the client and agency should consider investing in hiring a linguist, or using the services of linguists per campaign. Otherwise, for all campaigns, it is advisable that the team (client and agency) create an ‘advertisement inclusive marketing council’ made up of staff and their friends and relatives who speak, read, write and understand multiple South African languages. The team should focus on all identity-centric categories: language, gender, LGBTQA+, sexuality, race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status.

#### ***7.4.4 Bilingual and Multilingual Television Advertising Works***

Make people in advertisements speak the way township or rural people speak: In the townships, people converse bilingually or multilingually. ‘Multilingual’ speech occurs when people use two or more languages. In Western Cape and Eastern Cape townships, people speak slang ‘tsotsitaal’ (for example, five tiger = R50, Mandela = money, Vati = water, braMzi = Brother Mzi), as well as Sotho, Xhosa, Afrikaans and English, interchangeably. Some have two dominant languages (Xhosa and English or Afrikaans), and others use multiple languages.

#### ***7.4.5 Ensure the Team Working on the Campaign Is Diverse***

To reduce miscommunication and increase inclusion, the agency and client should, from the start of the campaign, include in the brief the requirement that the team working on the campaign must be diverse so as to ensure that the piece of communication reflects the consumers they are selling to. Ideally, the team should include the under-represented languages and talent, with a voice to educate, inform, and culture-add so that ideas can benefit from diverse perspectives. If the client is not diverse, it would be best to partner with Black-language-experienced creators who are allowed to be co-owners of the work and have an equal voice during the creative process.

#### ***7.4.6 Marketers Should Learn to Discern When to Use English, Xhosa or Xhonglish (Mix)***

Deciding to use Xhosa without more careful consideration is also problematic. As proven in the Domestos advertisement, using Xhosa alone does not necessarily improve ease of understanding and intention to purchase. More technical scientific advertisements might still be acceptable if done in English.

#### ***7.4.7 Build an Inclusive Languages Library***

Compile for the industry an open-sourced language-library list of the terms most used when speaking Xhonglish, township slang, and Xhosa terms from townships and rural areas. The list should be constantly updated and refreshed by both client and agency, in partnership with university language departments or language student interns, contractors or vendors. For example, Google has a platform called the Tenor Inclusivity Library, an expression platform that makes it easy for people to find and share GIFs, stickers across Messages, WhatsApp, and social platforms, and they work hard to improve the user experience for identity-centric queries like Black, gay, women, and disability. The creative judgement process, from brief through pre-production to production and post-production, should have a diversity and inclusion cheat sheet, toolkit or checklist that includes language to help those making and approving the advertisement refresh their memories and not unintentionally exclude anything.

#### ***7.4.8 Measure, Analyse and Act by Implementing Creative Audits and Partner Surveys***

Whatever is measured, gets fixed and improved and enhances learning while increasing accountability. To increase a culture of accountability and also promote great diverse and inclusive creative work, publicising data helps the team to shame themselves in public and also into action. The CMOs and their teams must make a deliberate effort to pre-test at least 5%–30% of the television campaigns: English vs. Xhosa or English vs. Xhonglish to evaluate the strength of the creative and make sure it delivers better ROI. There are now rapid television advertisement tests done by Kantar and, with their support, the client or agency can set up and launch their own advertisement tests on demand. Companies like Facebook, Unilever, Procter and Gamble, and Google do internal and external creative audits to measure inclusion across many dimensions, including language in their campaigns, in partnership with credible and reputable institutions like the Unstereotype Alliance, Geena Davis Institute, ANA's #SeeHer Gender Equality Measure (GEM), AIMMs Cultural Insights Impact Measure, and the Kantar Millward Brown Inclusion Index.

#### ***7.4.9 Use a Mix of Dubbing, Language Replacement and Subtitling***

Dubbing by replacing English with Xhosa voice-overs and mixing Xhosa with English is still the most cost-effective tool available to advertisers who normally adopt their global mother brand creative content and have very little room to change the advertisement. It is also cost-effective for clients who want to geo-locate their content but use the same piece of creativity using different languages to appeal to each province's audiences who normally speak a specific language. Dubbing is used by Netflix, Hollywood, Disney, Pfizer and other great multinational brands. There are empirical studies proving that it is effective in increasing conversion rates, lift in impressions, and higher levels of engagement and does not weaken creative content and delivery. Subtitling Xhosa advertisements with English subtitles also extends the advertisement reach and audience and is cost-effective.

#### ***7.4.10 Avoid Language as a 'Woke Washing' Tool***

Adding Xhosa for the sake of it might offend the same audience the brand is trying to attract and retain. Do not force-fit Xhosa where it is not relevant or needed for the sake of superficially

appearing ‘beyond-English-language woke’. You might unintentionally end up losing customers and weakening brand equity and trust.

#### ***7.4.11 Avoid Stereotyping Xhosa (or Any Other Language or Culture)***

Africa does not only equal baobab trees, the Big Five or poverty; there is more to African diversity. Xhosa-ness is the same; therefore, it is important not to portray Xhosa-speaking characters in only one way, thereby reinforcing negative tribal prejudices. There are many ways to be Xhosa, Zulu, or Sotho, and many ways to speak Xhosa. All these should come out strongly, such as various skin tones, different professions, STEAM careers, accents, CEOs, same-sex parents and relationships, men as stay-at-home dads, men as responsible fathers, all ages and sizes, class, women as independent, trans Xhosa women, non-binary femmes, people who are communal, ambitious and comfortable leading others, neurodiverse and with physical disabilities. Ensure the work represents all diversity.

#### ***7.4.12 Action Beyond Language***

Consumers demand to see authentic diversity in action. The brands should not be seen to be appropriating languages to grow users, usage, brand and revenue without giving back to that community. Google Arts and Culture has many language initiatives, one of which is for San and Khoi Languages, in partnership with the Endangered Language Alliance. These initiatives help preserve and promote languages, and archive forgotten or disappearing languages. South Africa is wrestling with mother-tongue education and, if the brand really wants to do good, promoting and preserving South Africa’s once-marginalised languages is a good cause to champion.

### **7.5 Limitations of the Research**

It is possible to encounter limitations when conducting a study of this magnitude. These limitations or shortcomings could be methodological or researcher-related (Saunders et al., 2019). In many instances, the researcher is confronted with influences beyond their control. When faced with limitations, the research methodology and conclusions can be affected (Creswell, 2014). Creswell (2012) and Chigada (2021) stated that limitations can be used to demonstrate the researcher’s critical thought, focus on the research problem, and review appropriate and relevant literature and methods for studying the problem. In this section, the

researcher acknowledges the limitations, so that future research can avoid encountering the same conditions.

Romm and Ngulube (2014) caution researchers against simply listing limitations because doing so can undermine the validity of the research, leaving readers wondering whether the limitations had an impact on the findings and conclusions. Limitations necessitate a critical, all-encompassing assessment and interpretation of their impact. This thesis identified methodological and researcher limitations, and these are discussed in the following section.

### ***7.5.1 Methodological Limitations***

The first methodological limitation of this study was the absence of prior research on the effectiveness of English-language television advertising in the EC and WC townships. The theoretical underpinnings of the literature had to be drawn from past studies to support the present, and it was a challenge to synthesise ideas so as to generate new knowledge. However, had there been previous research in this area, it would have been futile to conduct a similar study because there would not have been any value addition. Prior studies provide the basis on which to explain and understand the problem under investigation. Therefore, without prior studies, the researcher used existing literature that was comparable to the current study in an attempt to build new theories and knowledge (Herman & Edwards, 2014). Most importantly, the inclusion of theoretical frameworks from other domains helped to overcome the absence of past studies.

The research was conducted at a time when the country was in a Covid-19 hard lockdown, but Kantar Millward Brown, a research agency that had extensive experience in research studies of a similar nature, had the facilities and tools for online research, which supported social distancing and helped reduce viral infections. They provided a sample frame of respondents willing to participate virtually in the research study, and a mobile online survey that only allowed individuals who qualified to be invited to participate (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014, p. 37). In view of their substantial, accurate and comprehensive profile of each potential participant, the database was considered admissible for use as the sampling frame for this study.

The other limitation faced in this study was the absence of a unitary list of the entire population of non-English-speaking South Africans living in the EC and WC townships to determine the sample size. Larger samples are typically required for statistical tests to ensure proper representation and generalisation to a larger population. To mitigate the absence of a unitary

list of the entire population, the researcher used multi-methods, resulting in three distinct studies conducted simultaneously. While Kantar Millward Brown was conducting the survey, the researcher was actively involved in the processes to have a first-hand understanding of how the data were collected and analysed.

### **7.5.2 Researcher Limitation**

The major researcher limitation experienced in this study was the ability to access participants in the physical space because South Africa was in a hard lockdown when data were collected (Herman & Edwards, 2014). It was difficult to approach and engage people without exposing the participants to the Corona-2019 virus. In the future, researchers can mitigate such limitations by using readily available online telephonic tools and webinars with experts; it can be assumed that most of the experts use these online teleconferencing platforms.

Second, accessing experts at a time that suited them was a huge challenge; these individuals' work schedules were tight; therefore, sending them emails or making telephonic calls proved difficult. In future, researcher limitations could be avoided by identifying the sample elements and approaching these experts well in advance so that tentative consent and permission are granted. When the actual interviews are carried out, it would be a follow-up process with minimum efforts to obtain approval.

Since the studies were conducted in townships where the researcher grew up, the use of the Xhosa language was not a hindrance because that was the researcher's native language.

## **7.6 Suggestions for Future Research**

Suggestions for future research are derived from the findings and limitations of this study. The following recommendations are made:

- i. This study adopted a multi-method approach where both qualitative and quantitative data sets were gathered. A questionnaire was administered to respondents with a limited understanding of the English language; therefore, their views or responses relating to English-language dubbing may not be truly reflective of their opinions. Future research studies involving respondents with little understanding of a particular language should be minimised because that might not yield the desired results. This study, therefore, recommends that future studies of this or a closely related nature

should use expert and focus-group interviews where participants are asked questions in a vernacular language they understand so that researchers can probe for clarity.

- ii. Past studies have adopted and applied the theoretical frameworks separately and have not examined how each of the constructs could measure the effectiveness of English-language television advertising to consumers who were illiterate or spoke English as a second or third language. This study integrated frameworks in order to better understand the problem at hand. For future research, it is suggested that advertisers adopt the integrated framework to test the effectiveness of the English language in communities that speak languages other than Xhosa; that is, in other countries where English is spoken as a second or third language. Researchers will be able to compare and contrast the findings from those studies with the findings of the current thesis.
- iii. The conceptual model developed in this study could be validated by using multiple cases and more research participants, communities or countries. English is not only spoken in South Africa; therefore, it would be interesting to see the results of such studies. This can increase the validity and reliability of research findings from a larger population. Research on English-language advertising effectiveness should be conducted to provide insights to advertisers and other stakeholders with a vested interest in marketing communication. Being the first study to combine three different theoretical frameworks to understand an issue that might have been overlooked makes the findings interesting and challenging for future researchers. The foundation laid by this study will challenge past and potential future studies to situate marketing communication with the right trajectory of the marketing discipline.
- iv. Since this study only tested the linear TPB relationships, future studies should consider testing the moderating role of language on the TBP model. This would be a significant contribution by extending the theory of TPB.
- v. The study established that user behaviour significantly influenced purchase intentions towards a specific brand. However, the nexus was that customer emotions were evoked by the stimuli in the messages communicated in the television advertisement. Therefore, another important topic that should be interrogated in future research is the effects of television advertisements on affective emotions. The discussion presented in this study revealed that the message and language in a television advertisement influenced behavioural intentions towards action. This study did not fully interrogate the content of the advertisements. Thus, future research could focus on this area.

- vi. Given the context of advanced technological developments and the feasibility of translation software, advertisers could explore such technologies and embed them in the advertising strategy. This thesis is cognisant that advertising budgets are stringent but, for future competitiveness and the need to remain relevant to their markets, firms could invest in technologies to mitigate alienating their customers. The business environment is dynamic and intense competition is pushing firms towards an innovative and entrepreneurial paradigm shift. A longitudinal study could be conducted to cater for the changes that are occurring in the advertising space.

## **7.7 Final Conclusion**

This research journey started in 2017 with the development and defence of a research proposal. The idea of analysing the effectiveness of English advertising was evoked by discussions with childhood friends and relatives after watching several television advertisements within a short space of time. Sooner rather than later, the researcher applied and enrolled for this PhD journey. It has not been easy. With a desire for personal growth, and to make meaningful contributions to the marketing discipline and obtain a PhD from a reputable university, the journey commenced and, today, the obstacles have been overcome. The proposal clearly outlined the roadmap for this study. At the conceptualisation phase, the ideas were not hazy but, in due course, the problem statement became clearer. In Chapter 1, the thesis provided the contextual setting, objectives, and hypotheses for a better understanding of the research problem.

Chapter 2 of the thesis focused on reviewing the literature from diverse scholarship to elucidate the concepts of television advertising in the confines of consumer behaviour. It was important to look at what other scholars had said or argued in their studies to arrive at their findings, which synthesised and corroborated ideas put forward for the present study. In that process, the researcher generated new ideas and knowledge from facts and information gleaned from other studies. Reviewing other works made it apparent that past studies had mainly concentrated on advertising effectiveness without considering the language used in advertising and how that language affects consumers who neither speak nor understand the language.

The study was situated in a specific scholarly discourse using appropriate theoretical frameworks: the TPB, Advertising Effectiveness Theory and Stern Model of Communication. These theories were explained, and the researcher rationalised how they helped better explain and understand the problem at hand. In Chapter 4, the plan of action and procedures used to

gather, analyse, interpret and use research data were explained. A pragmatic philosophical stance was adopted for this study, and a multi-method approach helped the thesis gather qualitative and quantitative data in a single study, enhancing the validity and reliability of the findings. Three studies – a survey, focus-group discussions and expert interviews – were conducted, resulting in the triangulation of data collection, analysis, interpretation and discussion. Chapter 5 of the study presented and discussed the survey results. In the focus groups, respondents watched advertisements of the Domestos and Sunlight brands in English and Xhosa to ascertain which language garnered better responses. It was established that more positive responses were recorded for the Xhosa television advertisements than for the English advertisements. In Chapter 6, the focus-group and expert interview results were interpreted and discussed. The results showed that participants were more comfortable watching Xhosa television advertisements. The results of all three studies confirmed that English television advertisements in EC and WC townships were not effective because the communities did not understand the language. This demonstrates that the advertisements did not trigger any emotions in the consumers because of the disconnect between the advertisement and the intended recipients of the message.

Having looked at the journey traversed to the point of submitting this thesis for examination, there are some lessons learned in this study. The first is that, when one decides to pursue doctoral studies, one should not be discouraged but look forward; the journey is painful but rewarding at the end of the study. Second, one has to realise that new ideas and knowledge are generated when one immerses oneself in literature and publications. Finally, conducting a study of this magnitude requires commitment, dedication and engaging people who have travelled the same journey to gain insights into the intricacies of succeeding in the journey. There is always light at the end of the tunnel, irrespective of how difficult it might be. The journey has come to an end.

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# APPENDICES

**APPENDIX A**  
**QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE**  
**(TRANSCRIBED FROM DIGITAL**  
**VERSION)**

<b>Description</b>	Quantitative Questionnaire
<b>PHD Project</b>	English -Xhosa Adverts

KEY:

*Blue italics* = Instructions to user (delete before sending to client using the Clear User Notes macro)

CAPITALS = Instructions to Programmer

**Bold** = Used to emphasise words in question response

CAPITALS WITHIN QUESTIONS OR ANSWERS = User must choose (or insert) relevant word/branding

HIGHLIGHTING = text that may be changed without Creative Development Program Experts' approval

User can delete these questions without Creative Development Program Experts' approval

= Facial Coding Questions (boxed to enable deletion **in exceptional cases only**)

GREY highlight = Wording used for Facial Coding app - only to be used as back up if apple update break the way facial coding works on IOS devices

{#\text\inserts.complete brandName}	= Complete Brand name	Domestos

{#\textInserts.productField}	= Product field	Toilet cleaner
{#\textInserts.parentBrand}	= Parent brand  (if no parent brand this is Complete brand name)	Domestos

GENERAL PROGRAMMING NOTES

EACH QUESTION APPEARS ON A NEW SCREEN UNLESS OTHERWISE STATED (AND APART FROM THE STANDARD BEGINNING QUESTIONS)

ABSOLUTELY NO HORIZONTAL SCROLLING IS ALLOWED

ALSO AVOID USE OF VERTICAL SCROLLING WHEREVER POSSIBLE

PLEASE ENFORCE A RESPONSE TO EACH QUESTION UNLESS OTHERWISE STATED.

USE DEFAULT ERROR MESSAGES UNLESS OTHERWISE STATED.

STANDARD CLOSE SCRIPT AT ALL RECRUITMENT QUESTIONS AND QUOTAFULL SCRIPT AT ALL QUOTA CONTROL QUESTIONS *panelDetails.endText.screenout /panelDetails.endText.quotaout:*

These are all the questions we have for you today. Thank you for your time.

Click 'Submit' to finish.

SUBMIT

CLOSE SCRIPT FOR RESPONDENTS WHO DON'T QUALIFY IMMEDIATELY (TECHNICAL SCREEN OUTS) *panelDetails.endText.techout:*

Unfortunately the survey is closed.

Click 'Submit' to finish.

SUBMIT

DEVICE RESTART

Oops! We're sorry, but this survey cannot be taken on this device. Please try the same link using a different device

SET QMOBILE: QMOBILE = PC/LAPTOP IF KANTARDEVICETYPE = PC/LAPTOP.

QMOBILE = TABLET/SMARTPHONE IF KANTARDEVICETYPE = LARGE TABLET, MEDIUM TABLET, SMALL TABLET, OR SMARTPHONE WITH TOUCH

SET QSMARTPHONE: QSMARTPHONE = PC/LAPTOP/TABLET IF KANTARDEVICETYPE = PC/LAPTOP/ NETBOOK, LARGE TABLET OR MEDIUM TABLET.

QMOBILE = SMARTPHONE IF KANTARDEVICETYPE = SMALL TABLET/ SMARTPHONE WITH TOUCH

INTRODUCTION

Welcome!

Thank you for taking part in this survey

We are interested to hear your opinion on TOILET CLEANER  
Please read the questions carefully and provide clear and honest answers, as rewards are subject to the quality of your responses. Do not speed through the survey as that would not count as a valid response.

This survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete and you will be rewarded for your completed survey. Please complete the survey in one session. If you close your browser you will not be able to complete the survey.

In line with data protection laws, the results will only be used for statistical purposes and any personal information will be deleted once no longer needed. For more details please refer to the Kantar Privacy policy, which can be found at [www2.kantar.com/za-privacy-cawi.pdf](http://www2.kantar.com/za-privacy-cawi.pdf)

Click '>' to begin.

**Scripter notes:** Ensure that the URL provided is a clickable link from within the survey.

**START: Start Time Numeric**

**Not back | Min = 0 | Max = 9999 | Dummy**

NEW SCREEN

**AVQUALITY**

We would like you to watch a short video to check that you can see it and hear it.

Before pressing the 'play' button please turn up the volume.

NEW SCREEN

Press the play button.






**SHOW ONE OF THE FOLLOWING VIDEOS**

**VCAT\_ADOG.MP4**

**VLION\_AROOSTER.MP4**

**SEEVIDEO**

Which of these animals did you **see**?

				
Cat	Dog	Elephant	Lion	Rooster

**ADD** None of these






ONE CODE ONLY. SHOW CLICKABLE IMAGE OF ANIMAL WITH TEXT BELOW IMAGE. RANDOMISE RESPONSES, ANCHOR NONE OF THESE AT THE BOTTOM OF THE LIST.

IF SHOWN VCAT\_ADOG.MP4 CLOSE IF THE RESPONDENT DOES NOT SELECT 'CAT' AT SEEVIDEO.

IF SHOWN VLION\_AROOSTER.MP4 CLOSE IF THE RESPONDENT DOES NOT SELECT 'LION AT SEEVIDEO.

**HEARVIDEO**

Which of these animals did you **hear**?

				
Cat	Dog	Elephant	Lion	Rooster

**ADD** None of these

ONE CODE ONLY. SHOW CLICKABLE IMAGE OF ANIMAL WITH TEXT BELOW IMAGE. RANDOMISE RESPONSES, ANCHOR NONE OF THESE AT THE BOTTOM OF THE LIST.

IF SHOWN VCAT\_ADOG.MP4 CLOSE IF THE RESPONDENT DOES NOT SELECT 'DOG' AT HEARVIDEO.

IF SHOWN VLION\_AROOSTER.MP4 CLOSE IF THE RESPONDENT DOES NOT SELECT 'ROOSTER' AT HEARVIDEO.

NEW SCREEN

RECRUITMENT

AGE

Please type in your age...

TYPE IN

SHOW BOX. LIMIT TO 2 DIGITS. CLOSE IF NOT 18-40. IF 18-40 SKIP TO SEX.

Do not wish to answer ~ SHOW EXACT AGE REFUSAL DISPLAY SCREEN

EXACT AGE REFUSAL DISPLAY SCREEN

Sorry! We need your exact age for you to continue. Please click '>' to be taken back to the previous screen. If you select 'Do not wish to answer' then the survey will close.

AGEBANDS

18 to 24

25 to 40

NEWGENDER (GENDER\_INCLUSIVE)

What best describes your gender?

Male

Female

RANDOMISE

ETH. ETHNIC GROUP

OPTIONAL

We are a proud Rainbow Nation! That is why we would like to know, are you....?

Black

Coloured

Indian/Asian

White

RANDOMISE: CONTINUE ONLY IF CODE 1"BLACK" IS SELECTED

LAN. HOME LANGUAGE

OPTIONAL

What is your home language?

English

Afrikaans

IsiZulu

IsiXhosa

XiTsonga

IsiNdebele

Siswati

SeSotho

SePedi

SeTswana

TshiVenda

Other

DO NOT RANDOMISE CONTINUE ONLY IF CODE 4 "IsiXhosa IS SELECTED

L2. SECOND LANGUAGE

OPTIONAL

What, if any, is your second language?

English

Afrikaans

IsiZulu

XiTsonga

IsiNdebele

Siswati

SeSotho

SePedi

SeTswana

TshiVenda

Other

DO NOT RANDOMISE.

PRV. PROVINCE

OPTIONAL

Which province of South Africa do you live in?

Eastern Cape

Free State

Gauteng

KwaZulu – Natal

Limpopo

Mpumalanga

North West

Northern Cape

Western Cape

DO NOT RANDOMISE . CONTINUE ONLY IF CODE 9 "WESTERN CAPE" IS SELECTED

DWL. DWELLING TYPE

OPTIONAL

How would you best describe the area you live in?

Inner-city

Suburbs

Townships

Rural

DO NOT RANDOMISE . CONTINUE ONLY IF CODE 3 "TOWNSHIPS" IS SELECTED

TSP. TOWNSHIPS

Where do you live?

Khayelitsha

Gugulethu

Langa

Nyanga

Mfuleni

Other specify

DO NOT RANDOMISE .PLEASE MAKE THE OTHER AN OPEN RESPONSE SPECIFY CODE.

ATT1

CORE

How would you rate the following statements?

There are too many ads on TV

Sometimes the ads are better than the TV programmes

I've seen some really clever TV ads recently

I prefer watching ads in my home language

I feel English ads are easy to understand

My culture has a lot of pride about our language

Agree strongly

Agree slightly

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree slightly

Disagree strongly

RANDOMISE STATEMENTS

---

**FCTYPE** Specify which FCTYPE(S) will be used for this survey in the box below. When collecting multiple samples (e.g. main/augment/boost) please specify how each sample will be routed. Please make sure you specify how respondents should be routed for overlap cases. (e.g. Main Only - FCTYPE = 1, Main and Augment - FCTYPE = 1, Augment Only – FCTYPE = 4

FCINCENTIVE	LANGUAGE/ MARKET	SAMPLE SUPPLIER			
		LifePoints	Supplier 2	Supplier 3	Supplier 4
English UK	On/Off	On	Off	Off	Off
	FCINCENTIVE TEXT	200 points			
Market 2	On/Off	Off	Off	Off	Off
	FCINCENTIVE TEXT				
Market 3	On/Off	Off	Off	Off	Off
	FCINCENTIVE TEXT				
Market 4	On/Off	Off	Off	Off	Off
	FCINCENTIVE TEXT				

IF FCTYPE=4 SET USEFC=FALSE, AND SET FCQUAL=FALSE, SKIP TO MAIN

IF FCTYPE=1, 2, OR 3, RUN THE AFFECTIVA GET\_CAPABILITIES SERVICE AND RECORD THE RESULTS TO THE DATA:

FC\_RECOMMENDED\_METHOD: WEBRTC, RECORD\_AND\_UPLOAD, FLASH OR AFFDEX\_RESEARCH

FC\_VERSION: VERSION #

FC\_CAN\_DO\_FACIAL\_CODING: TRUE OR FALSE

SET VARIABLES AND ROUTE RESPONDENTS BASED ON THE TABLE BELOW

KANTARDEVICETYPE	FC_CAN_DO_FACIAL_CODING	FCTYPE	ROUTING
PC/LAPTOP	TRUE	1, 2, OR 3	SET USEFC=TRUE, CONTINUE
PC/LAPTOP	FALSE	1 OR 3	SET USEFC=FALSE, AND SET FCQUAL=FALSE, TERMINATE
PC/LAPTOP	FALSE	2	SET USEFC=FALSE, AND SET FCQUAL=FALSE, SKIP TO MAIN
TABLET, SMALL TABLET/LARGE PHONE, PHONE	TRUE	1, 2, OR 3	SET USEFC=TRUE, CONTINUE
TABLET, SMALL TABLET/LARGE PHONE, PHONE	FALSE	1 OR 3	SET USEFC=FALSE, AND SET FCQUAL=FALSE, TERMINATE
TABLET, SMALL TABLET/LARGE PHONE, PHONE	FALSE	2	SET USEFC=FALSE, AND SET FCQUAL=FALSE, SKIP TO MAIN

OPTINA

CORE

During this survey we will show you a TV ad. While you watch the ad, we would like to use the camera on this device to capture your response. The video will be secure and will only be used for research purposes; it will **not** be made publicly accessible.

By recording people, our research partners Kantar and Affectiva Inc can understand more about how people react. The video will be analysed **by computer** and your results will be mixed with those from other people who take part in this study. With your permission, researchers from Kantar, Affectiva and the research client may view the video to check everything is working correctly and to understand more about how people react. [Click here for privacy information.](#)

To say thank you for agreeing to be recorded we would like to offer you (INSERT FCINCENTIVE TEXT).  
HIDE IF FCINCENTIVE = Off

SHOW IF FC\_RECOMMENDED\_METHOD = AFFDEX\_RESEARCH

It will be necessary to install a free app on this device to capture your response. You can remove the app after the survey or keep the app for future surveys. If the app is currently installed on this device it won't be necessary to reinstall.

ALL

Is it ok for us to record you?      The video will **not** be publicly accessible.

Yes - and it's ok if researchers view my video (INSERT FCINCENTIVE TEXT)      ~      OPTINA=  
1

Yes - but no person should view my video (INSERT FCINCENTIVE TEXT) ~ OPTINA=  
2

No - I do not wish to be recorded (Standard points) ~ OPTINA=  
3

OPTINA =	ROUTING
1 or 2	SET FCQUAL = TRUE AND SKIP TO MAIN
3	CONTINUE TO OPTINB

OPTINB

CORE

Surveys that use your camera are easy and safe.

It's not a problem if you're not sure how to use your camera. With your permission, the survey will automatically detect and activate it. After that you just follow a few easy on screen instructions. The camera section of the survey is short and painless and only lasts a minute while you view an ad. After that it's just a normal survey.

Videos are analysed by computer and mixed with those from other people. Only your face will be recorded and the computer doesn't care what you're wearing or if you've brushed your hair. The videos are secure and used for research purposes only, they are not made publicly accessible. Researchers cannot view your video without your permission which you can grant or deny within this survey. [Click here for privacy information.](#)

SHOW IF FC\_RECOMMENDED\_METHOD = AFFDEX\_RESEARCH

The app is free, easy to install and will only be used within the survey. After the survey you can keep the app for future surveys or delete it.

ALL

Is it ok for us to record you?

Yes - and it's ok if researchers view my video (INSERT FCINCENTIVE TEXT) ~ OPTINB=1

Yes - but no person should view my video (INSERT FCINCENTIVE TEXT) ~ OPTINB=2

No - I do not wish to be recorded (Standard points) ~ OPTINB=4

FCTYPE =	OPTINB=	ROUTING
, 2 or 3	1 or 2	SET FCQUAL = TRUE AND SKIP TO MAIN
or 2	4	SET FCQUAL=FALSE AND SKIP TO MAIN
	4	CLOSE

NO WARM UP QUESTIONS

**1 - STANDARD KANTARPLAYER**

ADINTRO

The ad we'd like you to watch will be shown on the next page. Depending on your connection speed, it may take a few seconds to load.

Please be patient, we really want your opinion of this ad.

NEW SCREEN

KANTARPLAYER playvideo

Press the play button.

PLAY THE CLIENT TEST AD ONCE USING STANDARD KANTARPLAYER



NEW SCREEN

We would like you to watch the ad one more time.

PLAY THE CLIENT TEST AD ONCE USING STANDARD KANTARPLAYER



SKIP TO Q6 ENJOYMENT

---

PRE-ENJOYMENT TEXT

NEW SCREEN

ENJOYMENT

Q6

CORE

How much would you enjoy watching this ad each time you see it on television?

A lot

Quite

Wouldn't mind

Not much

Not at all

ONE CODE ONLY

ACTIVE INVOLVEMENT

Q7/8/9

CORE

Please select one word from each of these three lists that applies most to the ad.

Pleasant

Interesting

Boring

Irritating

Soothing

Distinctive

Dull

Unpleasant

Gentle

Involving

Weak

Disturbing

#### CLICKABLE TEXT

DISPLAY ALL 3 LISTS ON ONE SCREEN HORIZONTALLY FOR DESKTOP, VERTICALLY FOR MOBILE IN ORDER SHOWN. ONE CODE ONLY PER LIST.

KEEP SAME WORDS IN EACH LIST OF 4 WORDS – RANDOMISE ORDER OF WORDS WITHIN EACH LIST

#### STANDARD BRANDING

Q11a

CORE

Thinking about the ad you've just seen for DOMESTOS, which one of these phrases applies to this ad?

You couldn't fail to remember it was for DOMESTOS

It is quite good at making you remember it is for DOMESTOS

It is not all that good at making you remember it is for DOMESTOS

It could have been for ANY BRAND OF TOILET CLEANER

It could have been for almost anything

ONE CODE ONLY.

---

BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION

BRAND USAGE

F13

CORE

Select the phrase which applies to your USE OF DOMESTOS

USE DOMESTOS most often

SKIP TO F14a

USE DOMESTOS regularly

USE DOMESTOS from time to time

SKIP TO F14b

TRIED DOMESTOS in the past

Heard of DOMESTOS but never TRIED IT

SKIP TO F14c

Never heard of DOMESTOS before

ONE CODE ONLY

PERSUASION USER

F14a

CORE

How will the ad affect your USE OF DOMESTOS?

Strongly encourages me to continue USING DOMESTOS ] SKIP TO Q32

Encourages me to continue USING DOMESTOS ]

Makes no difference ]

SKIP TO Q32

Makes me less likely to continue USING DOMESTOS ]

ONE CODE ONLY. IF CODE 1 IS SELECTED AT F13, ALL CODES SELECTED AT F14a MUST SKIP TO Q32

PERSUASION TRIALLIST

F14b

CORE

How will the ad affect your USE OF DOMESTOS?

Makes me much more likely to consider CHOOSING DOMESTOS again ] SKIP TO Q32

Makes me a little more likely to consider CHOOSING DOMESTOS again ]

Makes no difference

SKIP TO Q32

Makes me less likely to CHOOSE DOMESTOS again

ONE CODE ONLY

PERSUASION NON TRIALLIST

F14c

CORE

How will the ad affect your USE OF DOMESTOS?

Makes me much more likely to TRY DOMESTOS in the near future

SKIP TO Q32

Makes me a little more likely to TRY DOMESTOS in the near future

Makes no difference

SKIP TO Q32

Makes me less likely to TRY DOMESTOS in the near future

ONE CODE ONLY

---

PERCEIVED UNDERSTANDING

Q32

CORE

How easy was it to understand what was going on in the ad?

Very easy

Quite easy

Quite hard

Very hard

ONE CODE ONLY

CREDIBILITY OF INFORMATION

Q34

CORE

How strongly do you agree or disagree that what the ad puts across about DOMESTOS is believable?

Agree strongly

Agree slightly

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree slightly

Disagree strongly

ONE CODE ONLY

BRAND DIFFERENCE

Q36

CORE

How strongly do you agree or disagree that the ad makes you think this brand is really different from others?

Agree strongly

Agree slightly

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree slightly

Disagree strongly

ONE CODE ONLY

**AFFINITY (LOVE/HATE SLIDER)**

Q57N

CORE

Having seen the ad, how do you feel about DOMESTOS?

SHOW RESPONSE ON A 1-10 POINT SLIDER SCALE. SHOW BLACK 'X' IMAGE ON LEFT WITH 'I hate it' ABOVE IMAGE AND NUMBERS. SHOW RED HEART RIGHT WITH 'I love it' ABOVE THE IMAGE AND NUMBERS.

SLIDER SHOULD START AT MIDPOINT OF THE SCALE. SHOW STANDARD SLIDER BAR NOT BRAND LOGO.

I love it – RIGHT HAND SIDE

I hate it – LEFT HAND SIDE

**MESSAGE CHECK**

OP36

CORE

Having seen the ad, how likely is it that this message will stick in your mind?

*MessageCheck1* DOMESTOS prevents stains in your toilet

*MessageCheck2* DOMESTOS kills all known germs

*MessageCheck3* DOMESTOS is determined to keep South Africans safer

Very likely

Quite likely

Probably wouldn't

Definitely wouldn't

SHOW AS DYNAMIC GRID. BLANK ADJACENT CARDS. AUTO ADVANCE AND BACK BUTTON ENABLED. RANDOMISE STATEMENT ORDER. ALIGN RESPONSES HORIZONTALLY. ONE CODE ONLY PER STATEMENT.

BEHAVIOUR.

AB. How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements

I make a special effort to buy DOMESTOS

When I have a choice I usually buy DOMESTOS

Agree strongly

Agree slightly

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree slightly

Disagree strongly

RANDOMISE STATEMENTS

ATTITUDE

AT. How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

DOMESTOS is a brand I trust

DOMESTOS is a good quality brand

DOMESTOS is worth what it costs

DOMESTOS is my favourite brand

Agree strongly

Agree slightly

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree slightly

Disagree strongly

RANDOMISE STATEMENTS

SOCIAL NORMS

SN. How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements

Many people around me buy DOMESTOS

I feel social pressure to buy DOMESTOS

The people who I listen to could influence me to purchase DOMESTOS

Agree strongly

Agree slightly

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree slightly

Disagree strongly

RANDOMISE STATEMENTS

PERCEIVED BEHAVIOURAL CONTROL

PB. How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements

I believe I have the financial ability to purchase DOMESTOS

I see myself as capable of purchasing DOMESTOS In the future

DOMESTOS is generally available in the shops where I do my shopping

Agree strongly

Agree slightly

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree slightly

Disagree strongly

RANDOMISE STATEMENTS

BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION

BI. How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements

I intend to start / continue buying DOMESTOS

I will consider switching to DOMESTOS

I definitely want to purchase DOMESTOS when I next shop.

Agree strongly

Agree slightly

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree slightly

Disagree strongly

RANDOMISE STATEMENTS

LITERACY

LIT1: UNDERSTANDING

How would you rate your level of English understanding?

1: Excellent

2

3

4

5: Weak

LIT2: SPEAKING

How would you rate your level of spoken English?

1: Excellent

2

3

4

5: Weak

ADSPB

CORE

Did you have any problems with the ad playback at the beginning of the survey?

Yes

No

NEW SCREEN

END SCREEN : panelDetails.endText.complete

You have completed the survey. Thank you for your time. You can access Kantar's website for additional information on our data privacy policy including complaints procedure, how to contact the data protection officer or request removal of your personal information.

Click 'Submit' to finish.

SUBMIT

**IntEnd: End Time Numeric**

**Not back | Min = 0 | Max = 9999 | Dummy**

SPD\_DEF: SPEEDSTER DEFINITION (DO NOT DELETE)

CORE. (DO NOT DELETE)

DO NOT DELETE THIS QUESTION: It is used in the background script for panel quality-control purposes

**APPENDIX B**  
**QUALITATIVE FOCUS GROUP**  
**DISCUSSION GUIDE**

## Research Objectives

- To explore deep rooted feelings towards copy in English vs. Xhosa and understand their processing of the adverts – for example do they prioritise auditory or visual stimuli in different adverts depending on use of language
- To understand consumer perceptions of languages in advertising and their responses and preferences towards the selected adverts

## Group Schedule

GRP	DATE	TIME	REGION	RACE	GENDER	AGE	LANGUAGE
1	04 Nov	4pm	Gugulethu	Black	Mixed	25-35	Xhosa speaking [1 <sup>st</sup> language] and an understanding of English [2 <sup>nd</sup> or 3 <sup>rd</sup> language]
2	04 Nov	6.30pm	Gugulethu	Black	Mixed	36-45	
3	05 Nov	4pm	Khayelitsha	Black	Mixed	25-35	
4	05 Nov	6.30pm	Khayelitsha	Black	Mixed	36-45	

**Note:** This document serves as a guide to the moderator. The discussion may not follow in exactly the same flow; or questions may be asked in a different way during the actual discussion. The moderator may paraphrase and / or change the flow of the discussion to suit the group dynamics and / or context / culture where the group is held if it better addresses the research objectives

**MOD:** Switch on voice recorder and read out project name and group number

## **1. Introduction and Warm Up 10 min**

**Objective:** The objective of this section is to introduce participants to the group process, to explain how the group will work and to allow participants to acclimatise to the environment

**MOD:** Introduce self to the group and explain the following:

- Group duration (2 hours)
  - Confidentiality
  - Viewing and audio recording
  - Speak one at a time
  - Need for honesty and openness
  - No wrong answers
  - Switch off cell phones and manage all other external distractions
- 
- Briefly introduce yourselves and tell me more about you [name, what you do for a living, family set up, and hobbies]

## **1. Perceptions and Attitudes to language in advertising 20 min**

**Objective:** To understand consumer perceptions of languages in advertising

- Were going to talk a lot about adverts during todays discussion. Firstly, please tell me **which ads stand out for you at the moment?** These could be ads you've seen on TV / OOH or radio ads that you have heard recently?
  - For each ad mentioned, ask:
    - Can you **describe** the ad to me please?
    - What makes this ad stand out fo you? What makes it **memorable**?
    - What was the **message** of the ad?
    - What **language** was the ad in?
- What makes adverts **stand out** for you? What in the advert makes you want to pay attention to it?
- What about the **language** used? Does this have any **impact** on you?
  - If an advert is in **Xhosa**, do you tend to pay more attention to it? Why/why not?
  - Do you tend to **enjoy the ad more/less/the same if it is Xhosa**? Why do you say this?
  - Do you feel that the **storyline and messaging** in the advert are **easier for you to follow** when in Xhosa? Why do you say this?
  - Do you **remember ads better** if in English or Xhosa? Why do you say this?
  - Are there any **Xhosa adverts** that you have seen / heard that really stand out for you?
    - For each mentioned, probe:What makes this ad stand out?
    - If the ad was in **English**, do you think it would have the **same impact** / you would enjoy it as much? Why / why not?

## 1. Advertising Evaluation 90 min

**Objective:** The objective of this section is to gauge response the selected TV ads

**MOD:** I'm now going to show you some adverts – you may / may not have seen them recently, and I'd like us to discuss them. I will show you each ad twice – 1 in English and 1 in Xhosa, then I'd like us to disjcuss your thoughts

### Language rotation

Grp 1	Grp 2	Grp 3	Grp 4
English	Xhosa	Xhosa	English
Xhosa	English	English	Xhosa

## Spontaneous reaction

- What thoughts came to mind as you were watching this?
- Was there anything that stood out for you? Why?
- Was there anything that you particularly enjoyed? Why?
- Was there anything that you didn't like? Why?
- What words would you use to describe this idea? How does it make you feel? Explore and probe 'feeling' words
- Would it stand out amongst other adverts? What makes you say that? Can you give me examples?
- If it were an ad, would it stand out amongst other ads? What makes you say that? What aspects particularly would stand out?

**Mod: Show ad in alternative language and probe:**

## Understanding and Effectiveness:

- Do you like the ad better in English or Xhosa? Why?
  - Do you think it is better to have the ad in English or Xhosa? Why? **(Mod: probe ATTITUDE and reasons that have led them to having this attitude fully)**
- Which one do you understand better – English vs Xhosa? **(Mod: explore reasons for response)**
  - Does anyone feel different? Why?
- Does your **understanding and enjoyment** of the ad differ when it is English / Xhosa? **(Mod: probe fully)**
- Will you **remember** the ad better in English vs Xhosa? Why is that?
- Will the Xhosa ad make you want to buy the product more / less / the same? Why do you say this? **(Mod: probe response fully)**

**REPEAT FOR REMAINING ADS**

**Check for further questions from client**

**Thank participants and close**

**APPENDIX C**  
**EXPERT INTERVIEWED LIST**

**CLIENTS - CMOs - Chief Marketing Officer**

Name ( race/gender)	Title and Organisation	Number of Years
Khaya Dlanga (b/m)	CMO - Rain	15yrs +
Lethepu Matshaba (b/f)	VP-CMO - Unilever	30yrs +
Greg Moloko ( b/m)	MD- Khaya FM	30yrs +
Thulani Sibeko (b/m)	CMO -Standard Bank Group	25yrs +
Sydney Nhlanhla Mbhele (b/m)	CMO- Sanlam Group	26yrs +
Andrea Qaye (b/f)	CMO - ABinBevMiller	25yrs+
Heidi Braure (w/f)	CMO -	30yrs +

**CREATIVES - AGENCIES - CCO - Chief Creative Officer**

Name	Title	Organisation/ Agency	# of Years
Pepe Marais ( w/m)	Co-Founder + CCO	Joe Public	30yrs +
Xolisa Dyeshana (b/m)	CCO	Joe Public	18yrs +
Alistaire Mokoena (b/m)	CEO	Ogilvy	27yrs +
Bridgette Johnson ( w/f)	CCO	WICK	28yrs +
Peter Case ( w/m)	CCO	Ogilvy	30yrs+
Rob MacLennan (w/m)	CCO + Co-Founder	King James II	30yrs+
Suhana Gordhan (i/f)	CCO	FCB Africa	20yrs +
Tseliso Rangaka (b/f)	CCO	Ogilvy CPT	25yrs+
Nkabiseng Motau (b/f)	Co-Founder _ CCO	Think	14yrs+
Nathan Reddy (i/m)	Co-Founder + CCO	Grid Worldwide	30yrs+
Fran Luckin (w/f)	CCO	Grey Africa	25yrs +
Justin Gomes (w/m)	CCO	FoxP2	27yrs +
Neo Mashigo (b/m)	CCO	M&C Saatchi &Abe	28yrs+
Grant Sithole ( b/m)	CCO	Avatar	18yrs +

**ADVERTISING RESEARCH AGENCY**

<b>Name</b>	<b>Title</b>	<b>Agency</b>	<b>#years experience</b>
Charles Foster	CEO, Chief Brand ZA	Kantar Insights	33yrs+
Ivan Morake	CEO	Kantar Millward Brown	30yrs+
Natalie Botha	Chief Insights	Kantar	25yrs+

**APPENDIX D**  
**ETHICS APPROVAL**



## Faculty of Commerce

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UCT Commerce Faculty Office

26/06/2020

Mzamo Masito  
School of Management Studies  
University of Cape Town  
REF: REC 2020/06/021

**Use of English Language in TV Advertising : Its impact on Illiterate and non English speaking consumers in Western Cape Townships.**

We are pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved. Unless otherwise specified this ethical clearance is valid until 30-Jun-2021 .

Your clearance may be renewed upon application.

Please be aware that you need to notify the Ethics Committee immediately should any aspect of your study regarding the engagement with participants as approved in this application, change. This may include aspects such as changes to the research design, questionnaires, or choice of participants.

The ongoing ethical conduct throughout the duration of the study remains the responsibility of the principal investigator.

We wish you well for your research.

2020.06.26  
22:14:25 +02'00'

Jacques Rousseau  
Commerce Research Ethics Chair  
University of Cape Town  
Commerce Faculty Office  
Room 2.26 | Leslie Commerce Building

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Website: <https://www.commerce.uct.ac.za/Pages/Ethics-in-Research>

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**APPENDIX E**  
**DOMESTOS ADVERTISEMENT SCRIPT**  
**(ENGLISH & XHOSA)**

# DOMESTOS ENGLISH

**MVO:** What makes Domestos unstoppable?

It's determination to keep South Africa's homes safer.

By not only preventing stains but also killing germs.

It's helping keep one million South African school children safer,

by educating them about good toilet hygiene habits.

It's three thousand germ kill tests carried out every week.

It's killing all known germs dead.

**Domestos. Unstoppable.**

# DOMESTOS XHOSA

**MVO:** Yintoni eyenza i- Domestos ingabi madolwanzima?

Kukuzimisela kwayo ukugcina amakhaya oMzantsi Afrika ekhuselekile.

Hayi nje ngokuthintela amabala amdaka kuphela kodwa ikwa bulala neentsholongwane

Inceda ukugcina isigidi sabafundi kweli loMzantsi Afrika bekhuselekile,

Ngokubafundisa iindlela zokugcina izindlu zangasese zicocekile.

Ngamalinge ovavanyo okubulala iintsholongwane ayi three thousand awenziwayo rhoqo ngeveki.

Ibulala zife fi zonke iintsholongwane ezaziwayo.

**Domestos. Unstoppable.**

**APPENDIX F**  
**SUNLIGHT ADVERTISEMENT SCRIPTS**  
**(ENGLISH & XHOSA)**

## SUNLIGHT ENGLISH

**FVO:** Cleaning this chakalaka off isn't going to be easy.

**MVO:** Don't worry now you can remove grease fast.

**MVO2:** Haaa but we're plastic?!

**ANNCR:** Now we've got Sunlight Lemon 100, it cuts through grease fast, even on plastic.

Sunlight Lemon 100, tough on grease even on plastic.

## SUNLIGHT XHOSA

**FVO:** Akuzukuba Lula ukuhlamba eli bala limdaka le chakalaka.

**MVO:** Ungakhathazeki ngoku unako ukususa amabala amafutha ngephanyazo.

**MVO2:** Haaa kodwa likwi plasiki?

**MVO:** Ngoku sine Sunlight Lemon 100, ekhucula amafutha ngephanyazo, nkqu nakwi plastiki.

**ANNCR:** Sunlight Lemon 100, imelana namafutha nkqu nakwi plastki.

**APPENDIX G**  
**EXPERT INTERVIEWS GUIDE**

## DISCUSSION GUIDE – EXPERT INTERVIEWS

### Moderator briefing:

This type of interview is an extremely difficult ‘get factor’ – these high-profile respondents have limited time in their day to share – and we are more likely to get depth of information out of them if we steer the conversation in the right direction and simply allow them to talk.

With that in mind, if you could simply set the scene by presenting the general concept that:

- English advertising is being used by 90% of marketers, whilst the majority of South Africans are non-English speaking.

Simply allow them to comment on this as a thought and see where they go with this topic.

If the conversation allows for it:

- explore deep rooted feelings and experiences within marketing / their career that could help us unpack the resistance to change this way of thinking
- explore any specific examples that they may have encountered within their career on the topic of language within campaigns
- ask about experience with translating from English into other languages if the opportunity presents itself
- suggest to them that there might be differences and nuances within languages / amongst the youth and the elderly

In short, for 20 minutes just gather as much of their experience / thoughts on this topic as possible.

Enjoy!

# **APPENDIX H**

## **STATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS**



Edu-Vibes: Research, Training and Consultancy (PTY) LTD

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Bergbron

Johannesburg, 1712

Email: euginemaziriri@gmail.com

08 August 2022

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that, I, the undersigned, have done the statistical analysis for the PhD thesis done by David Mzamo Masito.

The title of the thesis is:

**The effectiveness of English-language advertising on illiterate or non-English speaking consumers in Western and Eastern Cape Townships**

The interpretation of the statistical results rests with the author of the dissertation.

Yours truly,



Dr Eugene T. Maziriri PhD

Email: euginemaziriri@gmail.com