
LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

Investigating Language Attitudes towards English Loanwords in
Dutch Advertisements



MA Thesis

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Table of Contents

| | |
|---|----|
| Table Of Contents | 1 |
| Tables and Figures..... | 3 |
| 1. Introduction | 4 |
| Overview | 4 |
| 1.1 Literature Review | 4 |
| 1.2 Research Variables | 6 |
| 1.3 Research Gaps | 6 |
| 1.4 Research Questions | 7 |
| 1.5 Thesis Overview..... | 8 |
| 2. Literature Review | 9 |
| Introduction | 9 |
| 2.1 English as a Global Language | 9 |
| 2.2 Language Contact between English and Dutch..... | 10 |
| 2.2.1 Historical Framework..... | 10 |
| 2.2.2 Defining a Loanword..... | 11 |
| 2.2.3 Types of Loanwords | 11 |
| 2.2.4 Types of Borrowing..... | 12 |
| 2.2.5 Motivations for Language Borrowing..... | 13 |
| 2.3 Language Use in Dutch Media | 13 |
| 2.4 Language Attitudes..... | 14 |
| 2.5 Research Variables | 15 |
| 2.5.1 Age | 15 |
| 2.5.2 Gender | 16 |
| 2.5.3 Language Ability | 17 |
| 2.6 Research Questions | 18 |
| 2.7 Research Hypotheses..... | 18 |
| 3. Methodology | 20 |
| Introduction | 20 |
| 3.1 Data Collection Method | 20 |
| 3.1.1 Participants | 20 |
| 3.1.2 Corpus | 20 |
| 3.1.3 Data Collection Material | 22 |
| 3.1.4 Questionnaire Content | 23 |
| 3.2 Procedure..... | 25 |

| | | |
|--------|--|----|
| 4. | Results | 26 |
| | Introduction | 26 |
| 4.1 | Participants | 27 |
| 4.2 | Analysis of the chosen loanwords | 28 |
| 1.2.1 | “Shape” | 28 |
| 4.2.2 | “Eyecatcher” | 30 |
| 4.2.3 | “Singles” | 31 |
| 4.2.4 | “Tickets” | 32 |
| 4.2.5 | “Make-over” | 33 |
| 4.2.6 | “Fashion” | 34 |
| 4.2.7 | “Looks” | 35 |
| 4.2.8 | “Design” | 37 |
| 4.2.9 | “Comeback” | 38 |
| 4.2.10 | “Shoppen” | 39 |
| 4.3 | Open Questions | 40 |
| 4.3.1 | Importance of English Proficiency | 40 |
| 4.3.2 | Use of English in Dutch advertisements..... | 41 |
| 4.3.3 | Participants’ use of English loanwords | 42 |
| 5. | Conclusion..... | 43 |
| | Introduction | 43 |
| 5.1 | Main Findings..... | 43 |
| 5.2 | Discussion | 44 |
| 5.2.1 | Attitude and Gender | 44 |
| 5.2.2 | Attitude and Age..... | 45 |
| 5.2.3 | Attitude and Proficiency | 46 |
| 5.2.4 | Attitudes and Loans with Dutch Near-equivalents..... | 47 |
| 5.2.5 | Motives for Using Loanwords..... | 48 |
| 5.2.6 | Limitations..... | 49 |
| 5.3 | Implications for Future Research | 49 |
| 5.4 | Conclusion..... | 50 |
| | Bibliography | 51 |
| | Appendices | 54 |

Tables and Figures

Tables

| | | |
|------|--|----|
| 3.1 | Corpus of English loanwords | 21 |
| 4.1 | Multiple comparisons test of proficiency by age | 27 |
| 4.2 | Language preference <i>shape</i> by gender and age | 29 |
| 4.3 | Language preference <i>eyecatcher</i> by gender and age | 30 |
| 4.4 | Language preference <i>singles</i> by gender and age | 31 |
| 4.5 | Language preference <i>tickets</i> by gender and age | 32 |
| 4.6 | Language preference <i>make-over</i> by gender and age | 33 |
| 4.7 | Language preference <i>fashion</i> by gender and age | 34 |
| 4.8 | Language preference <i>looks</i> by gender and age | 35 |
| 4.9 | Language preference <i>design</i> by gender and age | 37 |
| 4.10 | Language preference <i>comeback</i> by gender and age | 38 |
| 4.11 | Language preference <i>shoppen</i> by gender and age | 39 |
| 4.12 | Responses towards the necessity of English loanwords in Dutch advertisements | 41 |

Figures

| | | |
|------|---|----|
| 2.1 | Baker's six determinants of language attitudes | 15 |
| 3.1 | Example of drag-box questions in the second section of the questionnaire | 24 |
| 3.2 | Example of an open questions in the second section of the questionnaire | 24 |
| 4.1 | Analysis participants' discourse audiences where the English language is employed | 28 |
| 4.2 | Word analysis of <i>shape</i> | 74 |
| 4.3 | Word analysis of <i>eyecatcher</i> | 74 |
| 4.4 | Word analysis of <i>singles</i> | 75 |
| 4.5 | Word analysis of <i>tickets</i> | 75 |
| 4.6 | Word analysis of <i>make-over</i> | 76 |
| 4.7 | Word analysis of <i>fashion</i> | 76 |
| 4.8 | Word analysis of <i>looks</i> | 77 |
| 4.9 | Word analysis of <i>design</i> | 77 |
| 4.10 | Word analysis of <i>comeback</i> | 78 |
| 4.11 | Word analysis of <i>shoppen</i> | 78 |
| 4.12 | Results of respondents' English loan usages divided by gender and age | 43 |

1. Introduction

Overview

The English language has influenced many languages, among which Dutch (Crystal, 2001). For many years, English has had a major influence on the Dutch language and has been increasingly used in various domains in the Netherlands (Ridder, 1995; Gerritsen, Korzilius, van Meurs & Gijsbers, 2000). The domains that have been influenced mostly are those of education, business and advertising (Ridder, 1995; Edwards, 2014; Gerritsen, Korzilius, van Meurs & Gijsbers, 2000). One of the motives for incorporating English words into Dutch sentences in these domains is to appeal to younger audiences. Ridder (1995) stated that young audiences respond more favourably towards the use of English loans, and also argued that younger people use English loans more regularly than older audiences (p. 49). However, as a result of increasing exposure to the English language in the 20th and 21st centuries, it would be interesting to investigate the differences between the attitudes of younger and older audiences towards the use of English in Dutch sentences. Research on language attitudes towards the use of English in various languages has already been conducted by researchers like Baker (1995), Hornikx, van Meurs & de Boer (2010) and Gerritsen, Korzilius, van Meurs and Gijsbers (2000), which all motivated me to conduct similar research as well.

Having said that, this thesis will investigate how Dutch people respond to the use of English in Dutch advertisements and what influences their language attitude. The variables this thesis researched were age, gender and proficiency. Investigating these variables would show whether there is a relation between age groups, male and female language attitudes, as well as one's proficiency level and language attitudes. The data were obtained by means of an online survey for which a corpus of ten Dutch advertisements containing English loanwords was compiled; the advertisements were taken from various folders designed for a wide audience.

1.1 Literature Review

The motivation to do this research came after noticing how often certain brands actually use English loanwords in their (Dutch) advertisements. English has become a popular language in the Netherlands, and has in some cases completely replaced the use of Dutch in the domains of pop culture, education, commerce and advertising (Hornikx, van Meurs & de Boer, 2010; Ridder, 1995). The key inspirations for the framework of this research were Baker's (1992), Gerritsen *et al.*'s (2000), Onysko's (2004) and Hornikx, van Meurs & de Boer's (2010) research. All aforementioned authors investigated language attitudes and possible variables that could influence those attitudes; the most salient variables were age, proficiency and gender. Even though language attitude research has been abundantly investigated, it is relatively new as a research topic in the Netherlands. Therefore, my main incentive for wanting to conduct language attitude research was to examine what Dutch people's attitudes were towards the use

of English loanwords and to investigate what affects those attitudes. The next paragraphs will shortly discuss the all the examined variables central to this particular research.

Firstly, Hornikx, van Meurs & de Boer (2010) and Gerritsen *et al.* (2000) conducted research on the attitudes of Dutch speakers towards the use of English in brand slogans. The first research focused mostly on the comprehension (proficiency) and the latter focused on the age and gender variables as well. The outcome was that one with a higher comprehension of the English language showed a more positive attitude towards the use of English. Baker (1992) also found evidence of a relationship between proficiency and attitudes in his research of Welsh people towards the use of English.

Secondly, one of the most salient variables found in various literature was age. Eckert (1998), Baker (1992; 1995), Gerritsen *et al.* (2000), Ridder (1995), Chambers (2009) all discovered a trend, in which younger people responded more positively towards the using of (English) loanwords as opposed to older people. It was explained that younger audience is also more prone to use innovative linguistic forms due to the extensive exposure to both languages and a wide circle of acquaintances (Chambers, 2009, pp. 184 & 189; Ridder, 1995, p. 49; Gerritsen, Korzilius, van Meurs & Gijbers, 2000). In addition, evidence was found that attitudes seemed to decrease with age, which can be explained by the fact that older people are more conservative in the language that they use and prefer the type of language that they knew as the standard (Eckert, 1995).

In terms of gender, literature has shown that women respond differently towards language usages than men; the general trend being that women have a wider linguistic repertoire than men which results in a more flexible language use (Cameron & Coates, 1988) and women tend to produce prestigious language (Romaine, 1984: p.113; Trudgill, 1983). On the other hand, it was also argued that women tend to stay closer to the standard form, whereas men often use language that is more deviant from the standard language form (Parks and Robertson, 1998; Trudgill, 1983; Lakoff, 1975).

In investigating language preferences, Onysko & Winter-Froemel's (2011) theory on catachrestic and non-catachrestic loans (See section 2.4.2) was also examined. These types of loanwords can justify what people's language preferences are, and whether people consider loanwords to be necessary or unnecessary. In short, catachrestic loans refer to loans that introduce a new concept that is missing in the native or recipient language, whereas non-catachrestic loans refer to loans that have a near-equivalent in the recipient language (Onysko & Winter-Froemel, 2011, p. 1555). When words are non-catachrestic, people may feel that there is no need to use the loans as there is an appropriate alternative available in their native tongue, which may consequently also influence one's attitude. Therefore, catachresis is mainly relevant in answering the question *what* type of loanword one prefers, after which the *why* to language borrowing will be examined as well. The answer to *why* people borrow loanwords can be explained by Onysko's (2004) six motivations for borrowing loanwords. The data obtained in this research were compared to these motivations, which could provide answers to what caused people to have such attitudes and use/not use loanwords.

1.2 Research Variables

As earlier sections have revealed, the variables examined in this research will be age, gender and proficiency. The gender variable will look at the dichotomy between the attitudes of men and women towards the use of English loanwords in Dutch advertisements. The loanwords examined in this research are taken from various Dutch advertisements and they all have Dutch near-equivalents. Using non-catachrestic loanwords enables me to investigate whether people consider the English loanwords to be unnecessary, or if they perceive the words to be necessary regardless of their Dutch near-equivalents. The age variable will be concerned with possible discrepancies among age groups. To investigate the influence of age on attitudes, participants of this research are categorised in three age groups, namely 18-30, 31-50 and 51+. Then, finally, the proficiency variable will aid in investigating whether one's level of proficiency is relevant in their language attitude. If results show that there is a relation between one's proficiency and language attitudes, this would rule in favour of comprehension being a salient variable with regard to language attitudes as well.

Further research will shed light on whether there is a link between catachresis and attitudes. Research on catachresis was done by Onysko & Winter-Froemel's (2011) who provided a model in which they identified two types of loanwords: catachrestic versus non-catachrestic loans. An additional interest is to inquire *why* people prefer one form over the other, which will explain the motive behind making a certain lexical choice. People were asked to share their opinions about the use of the selected loanwords in this research. Their answers were then compared to Onysko's (2004) six motivations for borrowing loanwords. In short, these motivations (Onysko, 2004, pp. 62-63) explain what may cause people to borrow loanwords. The first, semantic motivation, refers to loans which are adopted as result of new products as a result of a missing semantic equivalent in the recipient language. Next, stylistic motivations may refer to loans that are used as a means of lexical variation, which only applies to catachrestic loanwords. Euphemistic borrowing applies to the kind of borrowing where taboos and derogatory connotations are avoided by using loans that evoke less negative feelings. Emotive borrowing, which is most common in advertisements, stands for the motivation to borrow as a result of prestige and wanting to show a hip educated and modern image. Social motivation links to the use of loanwords to create a sense of belonging or identity, in which outsiders will not be able to decipher the use or meaning of loanwords. Finally, the motivation of convenience states that people opt for the use of loanwords because of the brevity of English loanwords and because English loanwords are often morphologically simpler. Consequently, with exception of the semantic motivation, Onysko's other five motivations may possibly explain *why* participants borrow the selected loanwords.

1.3 Research Gaps

In language attitude research, considerable attention has been paid to how strong one's language attitude is in relation to age, gender and proficiency variables, one of which was Baker (1992) who researched

the attitudes of Welsh people towards the use of English loanwords. In his quantitative research, he used a questionnaire in which Likert Scale type questions were used. Similarly, much research has been done on language attitudes and what influences attitudes in the Netherlands, however, very little research has been done on investigating why people have particular attitudes towards English, which makes it difficult to support results with literature.

Nevertheless, Hornikx, van Meurs and de Boer (2010) conducted research that focused on the influence of comprehension on language attitudes among other variables. Their research did have relevance for this particular research, even though they focused on the use of English in slogans, which resulted in a research gap. As this thesis was not concerned with attitudes towards slogans but focused on language attitudes towards the use of English in Dutch advertisements, not much background information was found with regard to this particular research domain. To solve this gap, other research was consulted that conducted similar research in other languages as well.

Another gap was presented in Onysko & Winter-Froemel's (2011) research, who proposed that catachresis can influence what type of loans are preferred. This was used as one of the key inspirations for this research, however, due to the novelty of catachresis it may not be a fully supported concept yet. As all loanwords that were researched in this thesis had a Dutch near-equivalent, the focus was really to examine if there were any trends in attitudes towards non-catachrestic loanwords. This research attempted to examine whether catachresis has an influence on the type of loanwords that are preferred and tried to find motives to explain people's attitudes towards the types of loanwords.

1.4 Research Questions

The main aim and main research question of this thesis is to investigate how Dutch people respond to the use of English in Dutch advertisements and what affects their attitudes. Further research questions that will be answered are:

1. Is there a difference in attitudes towards English loans in Dutch advertisements between men and women?
2. Is there a difference in how age groups perceive the use of English loanwords in Dutch advertisements?
3. Is there a relationship between one's proficiency and language attitude?
4. What determines the attitudes of the participants towards the use of English loans in Dutch advertisements?

The hypotheses for these research questions are based on the available literature and will be more elaborately discussed in chapter 2, section 2.7.

1.5 Thesis Overview

The first chapter has presented this thesis in a nutshell and introduced the topic and the research questions. The second chapter will elaborate on the literature review and theories that were used for this research as well as include background information related to the researched variables. Further information on the methodology and the steps taken to obtain data will be discussed in the third chapter. The results drawn from this research will be discussed in the fourth chapters, whereas, the fifth – and final – chapter will be concerned with concluding and discussing the results as well as providing limitations and implications for future research.

2. Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter will elaborate on literature that is relevant to this research. Topics that will be discussed in this chapter are first of all, English as a Global language (2.1) and language contact between English and Dutch (2.2). In section 2.2 a historical framework as well as the definitions and types of loanwords and motivations for borrowing will be discussed. Furthermore, this chapter will also discuss the language used in Media (2.3), as well as an elaboration on language attitudes (2.4) and research variables (2.5). Finally, the last two sections will present the research questions (section 2.6) and the research hypotheses (section 2.7).

2.1 English as a Global Language

“Language exists only in the brains and mouths and ears and hands and eyes of its users” (Crystal, 2003, p. 7). In Crystal’s words, a language is not a mere set of words designed for communication- we are language and when we communicate, we use more than just our mouths. The English language stands out as there are more non-native speakers than there are native speakers, which Crystal (2003) identified as striking considering that only one out of four speakers is native speaker. The reason why English is spoken by so many non-natives is due to the fact that English has become a *lingua franca* in the past century. Crystal asserts that the notion of *lingua franca* intended for international purposes has strongly emerged ever since the mid-20th Century (p. 12). A possible definition of a *lingua franca* is “a world language whose speakers communicate mainly with other non-native speakers, often from different L1s than their own” (Jenkins, 2006, p.140). Seidlhofer (2005) supplements Jenkins’s definition by stating that a *lingua franca* is a language which enables communication between “speakers with different first languages” (p. 339). Furthermore, Doughty (2013) reported in *The Daily Mail* that the popularity of English amongst non-native speakers will continue to increase as he argued that the use of other possible *lingua francas* has decreased (source: Daily Mail Online, published 27 Oct, 2013).

Crystal (2003) insists that a global language has to have a certain aspect of power. He provides Latin as an example. According to Crystal, Latin was not a global language “because the Romans were more numerous than the people they subjugated. They were simply more powerful” (p. 7). After the Roman Empire was defeated, Latin was given another purpose in certain lexical domains, which maintained its existence and importance in daily life. When Latin slowly got replaced by other languages, it lost its purpose which ultimately resulted in language death. Nowadays, Latin is still learnt by some that need to know Latin for specific purposes, but it is otherwise a dead language. Crystal explains that if a language loses its power-base, it does not have a future in international communication, which is the complete opposite case for English. Due to its sudden rise in the fields of politics,

communication and trade, English has gained the role of a global language and thereby became a *lingua franca*.

English has not always had the role of *lingua franca*. It was not until after the late 17th century that English started spreading. Trudgill and Hannah (2013) note that the English language spread due to expansion, settlement and colonization. As a consequence of those events, non-natives became exposed to the English language, which marked the importance of non-natives to learn the English language as well. According to Trudgill and Hannah, English owed a great deal of its increasing power to demographic and geographical expansion, as well as the events of colonisation and trade. In addition, Melchers and Shaw asserted that colonization and trade placed more significance on the English language as it was needed for economical and also political purposes. Melchers and Shaw (2011) emphasise that in those days language spread was “led by military action and the formation of empires” (p. 6). Furthermore, it was language contact that made it possible for non-native English people to learn the English language, in most cases by means of creoles and pidgins (Trudgill & Hannah, 2013, pp. 9-13).

2.2 Language Contact between English and Dutch

This section will be concerned with explaining the historical background of language contact between Dutch and English (2.2.1). Next, paragraphs will focus on identifying what a loanword is (2.2.2), after which types of loanwords (2.2.3) will be elaborated on as well as language borrowing (2.2.4). Finally, it will present six motivations (inspired by Onysko, 2004) to borrow loanwords (2.2.5), which in turn will serve to explain why people use loanwords or choose to reject them instead.

2.2.1 Historical Framework

Language contact between Dutch and English has not always been significant linguistically in history. Van der Sijs (1996) stated that not much of the language contact that occurred between the 8th and 19th centuries was of importance as the Dutch language was not much affected by this contact. Blok (cited in van der Sijs, 1996) asserted that the sea between the Netherlands and England formed a barrier, which led to a better collaboration between France and the Netherlands with as result that French influences on the Dutch language were more prominent at that time (van der Sijs, 1996, p. 302).

It was not until the late 19th century that English exerted a more prominent influence on the Dutch language. Furthermore, the late 19th century also marked the British influence on trade and industrial innovations. However, it was not until the Second World War (henceforth referred to as WW2) that the Dutch language received an influx of English loanwords (ibid, p. 303). Whilst English-speaking soldiers resided in the Netherlands, Americans and Brits had to find a way to communicate with Dutch citizens, thus marking the necessity of a *lingua franca*. According to van der Sijs (1996) English had become the

language of the liberators in the WW2 (p. 303), with as result that English was associated with freedom, with as consequence a more sympathetic and positive attitude towards the use of English.

Next to the importance of English during the war, English seemed to have become an important necessity in terms of foreign affairs and political matters. Van der Sijs (1996) mentions that English was the key to the establishment of the European Union. After the emergence of the European Union, another turning point arose towards the late 20th century with the beginning of the Information Age, especially as many innovative words got adopted in Dutch without a semantic equivalent available. In other cases, where semantical equivalents were available, some still preferred to adopt the English variant. It is interesting how this kind of language attitude is triggered and what makes us want to use or reject a loan. In a time in which we work, communicate, entertain and advertise by means of electronic devices, and in most cases internationally as well, English proves to be a very effective language. With growing exposure to English and pop culture, an influx of more English loanwords has entered the Dutch language in the fields of advertising, technology, business and entertainment (van Meurs, 2010, p.45).

2.2.2 Defining a Loanword

Where there is language contact, there is language change. Crystal (2006) stated that language contact refers to any type of contact between languages and dialects, which results in linguistic changes, among which growth of loanwords, mixed languages (creoles and pidgins) and bilingualism. The language change this research is concerned with is lexical borrowing, which according to Crystal (2006) is the most common type of language influence where loanwords were adopted in a recipient language. Haspelmath (2009) defines a loanword as a word that entered the lexicon of one language at some point in history as a result of language borrowing (p. 36). Most striking in language borrowing is that cultures respond differently towards the use of loanwords, which also culminates in different attitudes (Crystal, 2011, p. 68). Crystal divided people's language attitudes into two groups: one positive and the other negative. People who welcome loanwords often consider loans to be a source of lexical enrichment, whereas people who disapprove of the use of loans consider them an attack on the native lexicon and language values (Ridder, 1995, p. 48; Crystal, 2011, p. 68). In addition, Ridder (1995) states that younger people use English loans on regular basis, whereas older people tend to feel impressed by the use of English loans and use them much less frequently (p. 49).

2.2.3 Types of Loanwords

For this research, two types of loans were examined, namely catachrestic and non-catachrestic loans. Before these terms were coined, Pail and Tappolet made the distinction between necessary and luxury loans (in Onysko & Winter-Froemel, 2011, p. 1551). Winford (2003) explains that necessary loans are often adopted in a language to fill gaps in the lexicon and introduce finer distinctions that are not available in the native lexicon. As opposed to necessary loans, luxury loans are words that have a

semantic near-equivalent in the recipient language, which are used because they carry prestige and are considered fashionable. Pail and Tappolet's necessary and luxury loans were criticised by Onysko & Winter-Froemel as they felt that the terms 'neces' and 'lux' were problematic considering that these were only relevant in semantic domains. Consequently, Onysko & Winter-Froemel created the concept of catachrestic and non-catachrestic loans. Catachrestic loans are generally characterised as words that "introduce a new concept into a language (...) [with] no alternative ways to designate the new concepts, (...) [and] thus represent the "normal" way of speaking" (Onysko & Winter-Froemel, 2011, p. 1555). Non-catachrestic loans, on the other hand, generally refer to loans that have a near-equivalent in the recipient language.

This research is concerned with the attitudes towards non-catachrestic loanwords. The non-catachrestic loanwords selected for this research coexist with their near-equivalents, indicating that both forms are at the disposal of Dutch speakers. In case of non-catachrestic loans, people will have to choose between a Dutch or English word and if a choice has been made, this thesis is interested in the reason behind this choice.

2.2.4 Types of Borrowing

There are three types of borrowing that Haspelmath and Tadmor (2009) identified, namely cultural borrowing, core borrowing and therapeutic borrowing. Firstly, cultural borrowing refers to the type of borrowing where a new concept is introduced in the recipient language. Furthermore, cultural borrowing refers to words that have no available near-equivalent in the recipient language, which can be considered parallel to borrowing catachrestic loanwords. Considering that this type of borrowing constitutes the act of borrowing loanwords that introduce new concepts and which do not have any near-equivalents in the recipient language, no focus was given to this type of borrowing. Secondly, core borrowing refers to borrowing where a meaning is duplicated. The duplication can constitute two things: the first being that a word may replace an earlier word that has fallen out of use or a word that coexists with a native word that carries the same meaning. Haspelmath and Tadmor (2009) also added that core borrowing occurs because of the prestigious nature of certain loanwords (p. 50). This type of borrowing is concerned with non-catachrestic loans, which is what this thesis will predominantly focus on. Finally, therapeutic borrowing refers to adopting loanwords when the original word becomes unavailable (Haspelmath & Tadmor, 2009, p. 50). Therapeutic borrowing is divided into two subcases where the first refers to borrowing a loanword due to word taboo in the recipient language. Haspelmath and Tadmor argues that some languages have taboos in terms of their lexicon, for which a language may acquire parts of another language's lexicon to prevent the use of any taboo-words. The second case would be to avoid homonyms, which suggests that words are borrowed to distinguish words and to prevent a homonymic clash (2009, p. 50). Even though therapeutic borrowing is least relevant to this particular research, it does correspond to Onysko's (2004) euphemistic motivation for language borrowing, which will be elaborated on in the next section.

2.2.5 Motivations for Language Borrowing

When a particular language choice is made, it can be assumed that there was a reason to prefer the use of that particular word. Onysko (2004) investigated the attitudes and motivations of Germans towards the use of Anglicisms in German, with as consequence that he provided an overview of six motivations, which he claimed could explain the motives for preferring the use of English in German.

Onysko's (2004) first motive was that of semantic motivation. This type of motivation refers to loans that introduce new concepts, which have no semantic alternatives in the recipient language (p. 62). Again, as this research will focus only on loanwords that have a Dutch near-equivalent, semantic motivation will not be applicable. The stylistic motivation, on the other hand, refers to the fact that people use loans to vary their lexical choices (p.62). Furthermore, euphemistic motivation explains the motivation where taboos are prevented by adopting loans that have less derogatory connotations than the native equivalent (p.62). This corresponds to the therapeutic type of borrowing, where the sole motivation is to avoid the use of taboos or negative connotations. Then, the emotive motivation refers to contexts in which the incentive is to use loans that are perceived hip, trendy, educated and modern, which according to Onysko (2004) is most often employed in German advertisements (p.62). Moreover, a motivation can also be for social purposes as loanwords can be used to create a sense of belonging or identity. This social motivation is also said to advocate implicit language as Onysko (2004) states that outsiders of that particular speech group will be unable to understand the message (p.62). Finally, Onysko refers to the motivation of *convenience*, where he draws attention to loanwords that are morphologically simpler, which makes English loans easier/shorter to use than its Dutch near-equivalent (p.62).

2.3 Language Use in Dutch Media

Ever since the Media Act was included into the Dutch Constitution, (social) media have been free and independent (source: the Government of the Netherlands website). Article 7, which regulates rights regarding media, states that freedom of speech and press is insured (source: the Dutch Constitution website), with as only exception that all forms of advertisements that are compromising for minors are excluded from this freedom of press act.

The Media Act, as elaborate as it is prescribed in the Constitution, does not mention anything about a particular standard language. Using the Dutch language in Dutch advertisements would sound logical as a standard, but it seems that English language use is becoming more common in Dutch advertisements. Edwards (2014) expresses that Dutch commercials and advertisements include more English, resulting in either fully or partially English advertisements.

Prior research on the use of English in Dutch advertisements was done by Gerritsen (1996, cited in Edwards, 2014), who stated that language used in the media has changed over the past few decades. In her research, Gerritsen collected advertisements from various national newspapers and magazines

from 1994 and examined the use of English loanwords in those advertisements. Then a decade later, Gerritsen repeated her research and examined the use of loanwords used in advertisements in 2004, and ultimately compared the use of English in advertisements from both times (Gerritsen *et al.*, 2007). Her findings showed that only 20% of the collected advertisements in 1994 were fully or partially in English, which had risen up to 81% in 2004 (Gerritsen *et al.*, 2007). This is also supported by Ridder (1995), who states that English has been used much more often in Dutch Media (p. 49). Alongside an increase in the use of English in advertisements, an increase in English comprehension was observed by Edwards (2014) as well. Edwards (2014) expressed that Gerritsen *et al.*'s research also concluded that overall understanding of the English loans among their participants had grown from 51% in 1994 to 80% in 2004. (Edwards, 2014, p. 53). Therefore, numbers show a notable increase in the amount of English that is used in advertisements as well as an increased understanding of the English language, which can also influence one's language attitude towards borrowing English loans.

2.4 Language Attitudes

One of the general definitions of attitudes is “a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects” (Sarnoff in Garrett, 2010, p. 20). However, McKenzie (2010), Baker (1992) and Sarnoff (1970) express the complexity of defining the term ‘attitude’ as each research field constitutes a different definition of attitudes. Baker (1992) states that “in the life of language, attitudes to that language appear to be important in language restoration, preservation, decay or death” (p. 9). As attitudes are also linked to one's behaviour and desires, it would be difficult to take into account all possible definitions in this research. Having said that, Allport (1954) associated language attitudes with a “learned disposition to think, feel and behave toward a person (or object) in a particular way” (as cited by Garrett, 2010, p.19). Here Allport touches upon the notion that language attitudes are interlinked to certain ideologies that communities may have and are taught to all people in that community.

Allport's argument suggests that social environment exerts a big influence on one's attitude, and may influence whether something is perceived negatively or positively by an individual and a community. Haddock and Maio (2004) state that attitudes are not necessarily expressed in either negative or positive feelings, but that they “may subsume both positivity and negativity” (p.1). McKenzie states that such language ideologies have become “a central concept in sociolinguistics in recent years (...)to understand (...) where there is language variation and language change” (p. 20). Interestingly, ideologies, just as attitudes, may change when “social conditions and dynamics, policies and attitudes change as well” (Yagmur, p.4).

Consequently, attitude shows to be a valuable factor in sociolinguistic research as it can “predict a given linguistic behaviour: the choice of a particular language in multilingual communities, language loyalty, language prestige” (Melander, 2003, p. 2). This research does not intend to research whether

attitudes are alike or not, but it will be concerned with whether there is a link between salient factors and language choice and attitudes instead.

Most relevant research that was done on language attitudes were Baker (1992, 1995), Ridder (1995), Gerritsen, *et al.* (2000) and Hornikx, van Meurs & de Boer (2010). All the above mentioned research focused on investigating determinants that influence one's language attitude. He identified six determinants, of which some have also been researched in the other mentioned research projects. Baker found that each of the variables in Figure 2.1 had a particular influence on one's language attitude (Baker, 1992, p.45); three of these determinants will also be examined in this research, namely that of gender, age and language ability (proficiency). Finally, Figure 2.1 suggests that all the given variables influence language attitudes either directly or indirectly. Furthermore, Figure 2.1 also illustrates that language attitudes can also influence one's language ability. Baker asserts that language attitude and language ability should be considered a two way cause where both are outputs of his model, as one's language ability can influence one's language attitude, whereas one's language attitude may influence one's language ability as well.

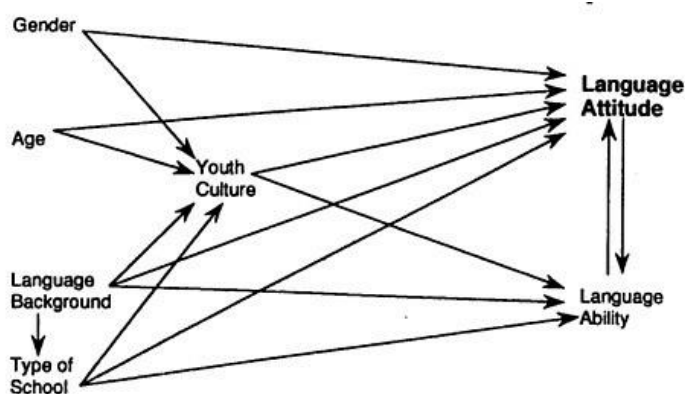


Figure 2.1: Baker's (1992) six determinants of language attitudes

2.5 Research Variables

This section will shed light on the influence of the language attitude determinants on the basis of previously conducted research. The general structure is to discuss each variable separately, in which the influence of age (section 2.5.1), gender (section 2.5.2) and language ability (section 2.5.3) will be explained on the basis of findings of previously carried out research. As this research will not examine any of the other determinants displayed in figure 2.1, these will not be elaborated on.

2.5.1 Age

Age has proven to influence attitudes because people have different perspectives towards language use depending on the life stages they are in. Chambers (2009) expressed that different life stages represent a sociolinguistic influence on our language. He explained that children speak like their peers, indicating

that their language does not correspond to what their parents and other authoritative figures perceive as desired language (Chambers, 2009, p. 170). The adolescent life stage “marks transition to independence” (p. 181) and also involves exposure to many different linguistic variants as result of being exposed to a wider circle of acquaintances (p.184). The young adult stage is where language norms are stabilised and language preferences are established (p. 189). After this particular life stage, they may alter their language preferences, but not radically. Therefore, most influence of age on language attitudes are the younger ages, whereas from young adulthood onwards, language attitudes are more less stabilised.

According to Gerritsen *et al.*'s (2000) research, evidence was found that age groups proved to have a significant influence on people's language attitudes. Their results included a more positive attitude for the younger age groups, whereas the older groups were visibly less progressive towards the use of English loans. Similarly, Baker (1992) discovered in his research that attitude declined with age, which corresponded with Eckert's (1998) view that people became increasingly conservative with age. This conservatism also suggested that older generations would be less tolerant towards language innovations and change. Having said that, Baker (1992) found that his older participants became increasingly indifferent about the use of language innovations and responded less progressively towards English loans. After further analyses, Baker stated that it is not age that distinguished one's attitude, but the socialisation process that people find themselves in at a particular time in their lives. In that respect Baker and Chambers show to have similar tendencies towards explaining the relation between age and attitude by approaching it in terms of life stages. In this, Chambers and Baker both agree that the adolescent stage is most likely to result in one's favourable attitudes to language innovation as a result of exposure to a wider linguistic variants.

2.5.2 Gender

Gender in language attitude research is mostly concerned with the differences that may occur between the language produced by men and women. Baker (1992) concluded that girls tended to react more favourably to language change as opposed to men in his research. However, these findings only showed significant differences in only one age category (10-15 year olds), which could highlight the point that was made earlier about the socialisation groups. However, on the socio-psychological level, there were some differences observed in the type of language females utter as opposed to men and how behaviour links to their speech.

Lakoff (1975) reported that the language men use is often more assertive than the language uttered by females. Furthermore, Parks and Robertson (1998) and Trudgill (1983) also indicated that women were more keen on using the standard language, as opposed to men who show to use language more deviant from the standard (Lakoff, 1975). Furthermore, Romaine asserted that “women are clearly more concerned with pressure exerted by local norms and asserting their status within the social structure” (1978, p. 156), and that “women consistently produce forms that are nearer to the prestige norm” (1984,

p.113; Trudgill, 1983). According to Cameron and Coates (1988) women are “stylistically more flexible and tend to develop a wider linguistic repertoire than men” (p. 13). This could indicate that women show more acceptance towards loanwords as opposed to men. Carli (1990) also asserted that women tend to be more polite in their speech and to use fewer swearwords. Even though Carli’s research did not show anything particularly relevant to language attitudes, she did mention that women tend to use language that exhibited more emotional and social behaviour than men did. This could suggest that women use more desired language depending on the interlocutor(s) in that speech community. However, in a more recent research conducted by Gerritsen *et al* (2000), results showed no significant correlation between language attitudes and gender, as men and women responded more or less similarly towards the examined loanwords (p. 23). Therefore, looking at socio-cultural behaviour of both males and females could provide more in-depth information about how gender may influence language attitudes. It would be very interesting to see whether there is actually a correlation between one’s gender and one’s language attitude.

2.5.3 Language Ability

Another variable studied in this research that may affect one’s language attitude is the language ability the people have in a particular language. Language ability corresponds to language proficiency and comprehension of the English language. According to Baker (1992), there is evidence that language ability and attitude are closely interlinked. Many people could identify with the feeling of frustration caused by a lack of understanding in a language. Such a language gap could cause for a negative feeling and low self-esteem towards a language (Ito, 2008, p. 89). On the other hand, people that do understand the message of a different code will be less likely to feel this frustration because there is no language gap that has to be overcome (Ito, 2008, p. 89). Minimalising this gap has become increasingly essential and necessary as this is an era where Social Media enable us to communicate with people all over the world. This language gap is similar to the notion of comprehension and language ability. The latter feature was a focal point in Hornikx, van Meurs and de Boer’s research of 2010. They conducted research on English language use in Dutch commercials and advertising in which they focused on the factor of comprehension. They asserted that a high comprehension of the participants equalled appreciation of the use of English, which was also claimed by Gerritsen *et al* (2000). Consequently, with a lack of comprehension, people tended to be less appreciative towards the use of English loanwords. As part of their research, Hornikx, van Meurs and de Boer asked people about the use of English slogans. Their results showed that people mostly preferred the use of English in the case of easy slogans, whereas Dutch was visibly preferred in case of more difficult English slogans, which was also supported by Baker (1992) who stated that attitudes tend to be more favourable if people are more proficient in a language. As this can also be a good motive for people to react more negatively or positively to the use of English in Dutch commercials, it would be interesting to discover whether and to what extent comprehension affects one’s attitude.

2.6 Research Questions

Even though English is a global language, there is an extent to which people appreciate its use in particular contexts. The aim of this research is to investigate how Dutch people respond to the use of English in Dutch advertisements and what affects their attitudes to English loanwords. The purpose of testing these variables is to see if there is a relationship between the language attitudes and these three language attitude determinants. In addition, attention will also be given to examine *why* participants have particular language preferences. Next, a few sub questions were designed in addition to the main question of this research. The sub questions that will be addressed are the following:

1. Is there a difference in attitudes towards English loans in Dutch advertisements between men and women?
2. Is there a difference in how age groups perceive the use of English loanwords in Dutch advertisements?
3. Is there a relationship between one's proficiency and language attitude?
4. What determines the attitudes of the participants towards the use of English loans in Dutch advertisements?

2.7 Research Hypotheses

This particular section will be concerned with providing hypotheses for all five research questions that are central in this research. Each research question, and thereby the hypothesis, is discussed separately and a prediction will be made as to what the outcome of these research question will be.

2.7.1 How do Dutch people respond to the use of English in Dutch advertisements and what affects their attitudes?

There are mixed views on how Dutch people perceive the use of English in the Dutch language. Ridder (1995) states that Dutch people may consider English to be useful, whereas others may believe that the adoption of English loans is completely unnecessary (p. 44). Therefore, there is not a clear model that explains the attitudes of Dutch people in terms of language borrowing. Other literature indicated that attitudes are influenced by one's age or life stage, in which younger people are more appreciative towards the use of English loans as a result of the extensive exposure to English they have had from a young age. Thus, on basis of the consulted literature on the age variable, the main hypothesis will be that most of the participants will generally have positive attitudes towards the use of English in Dutch advertisements, whereas older people are often more reserved towards borrowing loanwords.

2.7.2 Is there a difference in attitudes towards English loans in Dutch Advertisements between men and women?

The literature that was consulted for this research all expressed that women tend to use a different type of code or language than men. Where men are known to deviate from the standard, women tend to use the standard form. Furthermore, women also have a tendency of using prestigious forms, which in some cases can be deviant from their own native language. Gramley (2001), van der Sijs (2005) and van Meurs et al (2007) consider English as a prestige language in the Netherlands. In that respect, one could expect that women will be more open towards using English than men.

2.7.3 Is there a correlation between attitudes and age?

General trends observed were that younger audiences respond more positively towards the use of loanwords as opposed to older generations. In this, Baker (1992) found that attitude declined with age, which Eckert (1998) claimed that older generation speakers would be more prone to negativity as result of increasing conservatism. Based on the literature reviewed, the general expectation will be that younger generations will be considerably more positive towards the use of loanwords as a result of being more exposed to prestigious and trendy language use than older generation speakers who will be less appreciative as result of their tendency to retain their own native tongue.

2.7.4 Is there a correlation between one's proficiency and attitudes?

As discussed in 2.5.3, it seems that proficiency plays a rather big role in accepting the use of a English loanwords. Therefore, it can be assumed that if one's comprehension is sufficient enough to understand the use of this donor language, attitudes will also be more positive. However, as English has been increasingly exposed to Dutch people, and loanwords will be those that are frequently used, the expectation will be that a lack proficiency will not have a negative effect as most of the selected loanwords will be known. Therefore, the assumption is that comprehension will not have an evident influence on one's language attitudes.

2.7.5 What determines the attitudes of the participants towards the use of English loans in Dutch advertisements?

This thesis focuses solely on the use of non-catachrestic loanwords that are of the core and therapeutic types of language borrowing. Therefore, all loanwords in this research are in fact, supererogatory, this investigation, which enables me to investigate what the attitudes are of people towards the use of such non-catachrestic loans. Furthermore, the six motivations for borrowing loanwords will also be compared to the results obtained in this research. It is difficult to hypothesise a possible outcome, as there is little theory or research available that allows for any concrete expectations. However, as English is considered a prestigious language, it could be expected that people prefer these loans as result of emotive borrowing.

3. Methodology

Introduction

This section will discuss the methodology of this research, and the procedure of gathering data. This research focused on attitudes towards English loanwords, which required an English loanword corpus. A corpus was compiled by selecting English words that occurred in Dutch advertisements. Data for this research were obtained by means of a questionnaire, which consisted of open questions, ranking and grading questions as well as drag-box questions. The participants, corpus and questionnaire will be discussed in section 3.1. A step-by-step procedure of this research will be discussed in section 3.2. Finally, section 3.4 will discuss the way data was gathered, approached and ultimately analysed.

3.1 Data Collection Method

This section is divided into four sub-sections, focusing on the participants (3.1.1), corpus (3.1.2), data collection materials (3.1.3) and finally, the questionnaire content (3.1.4).

3.1.1 Participants

The aim was to have a minimum of at least 50 participants as I did not want the sample to be too small. In researching the influence of age, four age groups were designed to examine whether there were any discrepancies between the age groups <18, 18–30, 31–50 and 51+. To ensure reliable results, it was made sure that there was an balanced sample of male/female participants, as well as an balanced sample of participants in the age groups.

The questionnaire was spread via Facebook and email. In the distribution process, people functioned as a networking system as potential participants were requested to forward the questionnaire to their friends, family, colleagues and other people that may have been interested in participating. All of the gathered data about the participants was processed anonymously due to ethical reasons. Therefore, the identity of the participants that took part in this research remained anonymous. Even on the occasion that answers or opinions were mentioned in this research, any sensitive or personal information was omitted

3.1.2 Corpus

A corpus was compiled to investigate the language attitudes of men and women in different age groups. The corpus consisted of ten Dutch advertisements containing non-catachrestic English loanwords (see Table 3.1). The reason for focusing only on such loanwords was because this enabled qualitative research on what the attitudes were towards the use of these words, and whether participants would use the words in their own spoken or written discourse. Furthermore, if there was no lexical gap, one could always argue that English is the only option. This is often the case in the field of technology, as many English words that were adopted into the Dutch language do not have a proper Dutch equivalent. Having

said that, this is where catachresis comes in: would you opt to use a foreign word if your native tongue has a similar word that is equally accepted and used? Considering that this research examined non-catachrestic loanwords, all participants had to make a choice between the use of English loanwords, or that of their Dutch near-equivalents. A more interesting question was *why* people made such language choices. Therefore, it was essential to select loanwords with Dutch near-equivalents in researching what people's motives were in making their language choices.

The loanwords that were selected for this corpus were taken from various sources. Most of the words were taken from printed sources and some were taken from online sources. The advertisements taken from print sources originated from weekly folders that people get delivered at home and free newspapers that many people across the country have access to every day. The advertisements that were used in this research were meaningful and real life advertisements. In other words, these advertisements were genuinely distributed to people with the objective to pursue their target audience to purchase their products. Firstly, in order to make a product valuable and desirable to target audiences, marketers had to make sure that the language effectively appealed to a wider audience. Secondly, as these were real advertisements, the advertisements proved to have a wide reach in terms of distribution: all advertisements were available online and were shared and communicated in various ways and were also delivered at home in printed form. Another motivation for selecting such advertisements was the fact that these were taken from trusted brands. Finally, to prevent any gender bias, many of these words were gathered from neutral advertisements aimed at both men and women.

| | English loanwords | Dutch equivalent (taken from Van Dale Online Dictionary) | Source |
|----|-------------------|--|---|
| 1 | Shape | Vorm | Hema folder, 7-19 April 2015, p. 28 |
| 2 | Eyecatcher | Blikvanger | Idee van KARWEI online folder April 2015, p. 30 |
| 3 | Singles | Vrijgezellen | e-Matching, website |
| 4 | Tickets | Kaartjes/kaarten | METRO, Wednesday April 1 2015, p.17 |
| 5 | Make-over | Opfrisbeurt | BOL.COM online folder, 31.3-23.4 2015, p.2 |
| 6 | Fashion | Mode | H&M, website |
| 7 | Look | Uiterlijk | Zalando, website |
| 8 | Design | Ontwerp | Superkeukens ,26.1 – 01.2 2015, p. 10-11 |
| 9 | Comeback | Terugkeer | BOL.COM online folder, 31.3-23.4 2015, p.16 |
| 10 | Shoppen | Winkelen | V&D online folder, 25.4-10.5 2015, p. 14 |

Table 3.1: Corpus of English loanwords

Table 3.1 lists all loanwords that were focused on in this research. As mentioned before, all loanwords have a Dutch near-equivalent, which was also listed in Table 3.1. The translations were taken from the *van Dale Online Dictionary* (updated 2015). The table also included information about where the loanwords were found as the folders were listed as well. All these advertisements were relatively recent as all of these advertisements were distributed in the year 2015.

3.1.3 Data Collection Material

The most convenient manner of data collection for this research project was by means of an online questionnaire. Block (in Mallinson, Childs & van Herk, 2013) states that even though face-to-face communication can be useful in research, electronically mediated questionnaires are becoming more common and effective as people have increasingly more access to electronic devices (computer, laptops smartphones). There are many advantages to using a survey or questionnaire to obtain data. Firstly, such questionnaires can collect ‘‘a large amount of data in a relatively short space of time’’ (Mallinson, Childs & van Herk, 2013, p. 131). Considering the lack of means and time to request face-to-face participation, this way allowed me to reach more people in a faster and more accessible manner. Secondly, each participant gets the same information and is requested to respond to the same stimuli, which avoids the notion of bias or unequal treatment. The questions are the same, and only with exception to the open questions, participants were restricted to limited answering options, with the opportunity of adding any missing elements. Another advantage would be the fact that the researcher does not have to be physically present to do the questionnaire. Furthermore, people can engage in the questionnaire at their own leisure or convenience. They will not be forced to partake at a particular time, but are able to participate when they have free time, which makes it a less conscripted activity. Moreover, previous experiences with this particular online questionnaire program have shown that settings allow participant to pause their questionnaire for a maximum of seven days. This means that participants who started the questionnaire and shut down the browser before having finished can resume their questionnaires at a later point as well.

However, there are also limitations to using an online questionnaire. A general limitation of questionnaires is the length: it cannot be too long, but also not too short. Too long questionnaires can risk participants losing interest halfway through the questionnaire, whereas too short questionnaires may risk insufficient data, as well as random and unreliable answers. Secondly, questions need to be formulated clearly to prevent any misconceptions as this may result in unreliable answers as well. Considering that this questionnaire also involved self-assessment, it was important to realise that the obtained information about the participants’ language use may be subjective. As many people do not even consciously realise they are using English loanwords, it will be difficult to ask their opinion about the use of these words. Therefore, people may have struggled in answering the question as to why they use English loans instead of their Dutch equivalent. Given all the limitations, and advantages, the design of this particular research was done in such a way that it took all the limitations in consideration.

Furthermore, I felt that the advantages outweighed the limitations to such an extent, that even though it was good to be aware of the pitfalls, none of these limitations affected this research considerably.

3.1.4 Questionnaire Content

The questionnaire (see Appendix A, p. 54) that was used for this research was mostly based on Baker's questionnaire used to investigate the attitudes of Welsh people towards English. The questionnaire designed for this research was divided into three sections. Section 1 focused on demographic information and the background of the participants, namely their age, educational background and nationality. Other questions that were asked were concerned with the participants' proficiency in the English language, and to identify speech groups they use the English language with. To prevent any confusion about what this use exactly entailed, the participants were informed that 'the use of English' focused on borrowing on lexical level as well as using complete English sentences. The participants were requested to drag the presented speech groups to the box if they ever use(d) any English loans whilst communicating with those groups. They were also able to add four extra speech groups in case participants wished to add a missing speech group. There was another question which asked the participants to self-assess their level of proficiency in English and Dutch. This question was essential in order to research if one's proficiency influences language attitudes. Participants were able to select a grade between 0 and 10, where 10 reflected 'fully competent' and 0 refers to 'incompetent'.

The second section introduced the participants to the selected advertisements. Firstly, participants were asked to read the advertisement and to focus on the use of loanword X. Secondly, they were asked to assess the use of loanword X as opposed to the Dutch near-equivalent Y that was taken from the *Van Dale Online Dictionary* (last updated 2015). For this, participants were given a selection of thirteen positive and negative values which they could choose to explain their language attitudes towards the loanword X (for an example of this question, see Figure 3.1). To select the values, participants were asked to drag the desired values to the box, which was repeated for all ten loanwords. The reason for selecting a drag-box question format was to give participants the freedom to answer and be inspired by the given values to give a good in-depth portrayal of their perceptions towards the use of the English loanwords. Participants could choose as many of these values as they pleased. Consequently, participants could share their attitudes towards the use of the English loanword in that particular context. To prevent that participants could not share their thoughts as a result of missing values, they were given the opportunity to add up to four extra values.

What is your opinion of the use of 'X' as opposed to the Dutch alternative 'Y' in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of 'X'. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

| Items | Loanword X |
|------------------------|------------|
| Effective | |
| Ineffective | |
| Professional | |
| Unprofessional | |
| It is easy | |
| Unnecessary | |
| Allows for variation | |
| Undesired language use | |
| Sounds good | |
| Does not sound good | |
| Adds something | |
| Desired language use | |
| Hip | |
| Innovative | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |

Figure 3.1: Example of drag-box questions in the second section of the questionnaire

Finally, the second question tested whether participants only ‘liked’ the occurrence of the loanwords, or whether they actually use them as well. Participants were requested to make a choice between either the loanword X or Dutch near-equivalent Y in a similar context (see Figure 3.2). This question allowed more in-depth information with regard to whether participants actually accept and integrate the words and use them. Such questions cannot only be answered by means of lists or ranking questions as that would limit the participants’ answers substantially. As this was an open question, participants are given more freedom to explain their opinions and thoughts. Consequently, this question provides an answer to *why* participants feel the way they do.

Which of the two words would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

Figure 3.2: Example of an open questions in the second section of the questionnaire

The third section provided the participants with three open questions. These questions were designed to gain information about the participants’ perceptions about the English language. The first question asked participants to share their thoughts about the necessity to be proficient in the English language. This provided information about the participants’ perceptions on the necessity to learn English. The second question focused on the use of English in Dutch advertisements. The purpose of this question was to see whether participants felt that the use of English loanwords (as opposed to the

native lexicon) was useful or unnecessary and most importantly, why they felt that way. Finally, the third question in this section asked participants if they ever used any of the ten loanwords from the second section in their own conversations. Furthermore, participants were asked to share the motivations for using or not using (a selection of) the loanwords. All in all, the third section of the questionnaire was committed to obtain information on the ‘*what*’ and ‘*why*’ aspect of attitudes: what the attitudes were and why participants had a particular attitude to the loanwords.

3.2 Procedure

As online questionnaires are more convenient in terms of distribution I made use of QUALTRICS.com, which is a website that allows one to design, distribute and analyse online questionnaires for free. All people that partook in this online questionnaire were given a respondent number to prevent data being analysed more than once. Furthermore, QUALTRICS.com also showed the start and end time of a questionnaire on the results page, as well as how long the participant took to complete the survey. This was convenient in the piloting stage as it showed how long it took the pilot-participants to finish, and was also useful in terms of evaluating the length of the questionnaire as it showed whether other participants were able to finish within the piloted time. Once a questionnaire was completed, it was made available as an online file, which could be downloaded in PDF format. Furthermore, QUALTRICS also had an analysis function, which meant that data could be analysed digitally. The disadvantage of the QUALTRICS analysis method was that it only analysed the data on basis of one variable. Therefore, analyses had to be done manually, for which several analysis materials were created. In analysing the data for this research, a few steps were taken in transforming rough data into clear results, tables and figures.

After the questionnaire was completed by participants, the first step was to note the most important personal information data onto a Participant Summary Sheet (see Appendix B, p. 68). On this summary sheet only a selection of the first section of the questionnaire was listed, namely gender, age, nationality, proficiency of their Dutch and English, education level and the particular speech groups participants speak English with. This made further analyses easier as all important participant data was listed in one table, instead of 60 separate sheets of paper. Bell (2010) supported this by stating that summary sheets are useful to list data systematically and in an organised way (p. 212). Furthermore, in looking at the significance of comprehension on one’s language attitude, SPSS analysis was done on the proficiency grade that participants assigned themselves. The SPSS analysis in this research was a one-way ANOVA test which showed correlations between age groups and proficiency grades. Even though the proficiency grades relied on self-assessment, they still indicated how participants felt about their own level of English and might have shown trends based on the proficiency levels. Finally, as the rest of the questionnaire was not concerned with how strongly participants felt about the English loanwords, any additional SPSS analysis was not possible due to a lack of grading questions.

The second step was to look at the participants' answers of the second section of the questionnaire. For this second section another Summary Sheet (see Appendix C, p. 70) was made. This Summary Sheet Second Section (SSS2), was advantageous as it saved paper (the original questionnaire was 17 pages) and displayed the results of the individual participants in an orderly fashion. In organising SSS2 sheets, six piles of ten responses were made that distinguished age and gender (three male and female piles). The SSS2 sheets were useful in that they summarised all information of the participants onto one sheet of paper. As further analysis procedures of these questions were rather extensive, I elaborated on the procedure in the next paragraphs.

The results of the first question was analysed with three summary sheets: one for male results with separate age groups (see Appendix D, p. 71), one for female results with separate age groups, and one that distinguished on age groups only (see Appendix E, p.72). As this section was concerned with ten loanwords, each loanword was analysed on a separate sheet. The values that were given by the participants were listed on the summary sheet by means of tally marks. The male and female Summary Sheet was also divided into groups, which made it easy to combine the tally marks from both sheets onto the Summary Sheet that looked only at the age groups. In this particular section, figures and tables were essential in portraying the differences between men and women, as well as the difference between different age groups.

The second question of the second section of the questionnaire was analysed by means of a tally mark table as well. The second question was concerned with the preference between English loan X and Dutch near-equivalent Y. Here participants were also requested to include a short motivation for their preference. All preferences conveyed by the participants were counted, after which the numbers were put into a separate table to show appreciation of the loanword. This table was also divided in age and gender groups, which made it easy to analyse both gender differences as well as age differences.

Finally, the last section of the questionnaire comprised three open questions of which the answers were copied onto the SSS2 sheet. In analysing all three questions a distinction was made between gender and age groups to draw clear conclusions. All answers to the questions on the SSS2 sheet were reviewed and reported on separately in essay format without the aid of tables and figures. Furthermore, as these answers contained the participants' motivations to accept or reject certain loans, as many of these motivations were reported to be as accurately in the results as possible.

4. Results

Introduction

This chapter deals with displaying the results that were required in order to answer the research questions in the following chapter. This chapter discusses results in the same order the questionnaire was structured. First, the participants' results are discussed in section 4.1, after which acquired results of the

loanword analyses (specifically focusing on the second section of the questionnaire) are examined in section 4.2. Finally, section 4.3 presents results of open questions of the questionnaire. Each question and loanword are discussed separately.

4.1 Participants

In total, sixty participants partook in this survey, which consisted of thirty male and thirty female participants. Each gender group was divided into three equally balanced age groups of 10: 18-30, 31-50 and 51+. The aim was also to involve an “under 18” group in this research, but unfortunately there were no participant responses that fit this age group. Participants were asked a set of questions about their own personal details, including nationality, age and highest completed education level (see Appendix B, p. 69). In order to answer one of the research questions, this questionnaire involved a self-assessment question of the participants’ English proficiency. To examine statistical significance in these proficiency assessments, a one-way ANOVA test was done. Results of the one-way ANOVA are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Multiple comparisons of participants’ English proficiency means categorised by age

| (I) Age Groups | (J) Age Groups | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|----------------|----------------|-----------------------|------------|------|-------------------------|-------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| 18-30 | 31-50 | ,500 | ,494 | ,572 | -,69 | 1,69 |
| | 51+ | 1,250* | ,494 | ,037 | ,06 | 2,44 |
| 31-50 | 18-30 | -,500 | ,494 | ,572 | -1,69 | ,69 |
| | 51+ | ,750 | ,494 | ,290 | -,44 | 1,94 |
| 51+ | 18-30 | -1,250* | ,494 | ,037 | -2,44 | -,06 |
| | 31-50 | -,750 | ,494 | ,290 | -1,94 | ,44 |

Table 4.1 suggested that there was a statistically significant difference between age groups as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F=3.243, p = .046$). A Tukey post-hoc test revealed that the comprehension grades showed a significant difference between the 18-30 group ($7.4, \pm 1.3, p=.037$) and 51+ group ($6.15, \pm 1.7, p=.037$). There were no statistically significant differences between the 18-30 and 31-50 groups, nor were there any significant differences between the 31-50 and 51+ groups.

Furthermore, participants were also requested to identify any audiences they use the English language with. The purpose of this question was to examine whether participants use English loans in their own spoken discourse, and more importantly, who they use the English language with. Results indicated that most people use English when communicating via Social Media (40). Furthermore, participants also regularly used English when communicating with people at work (36) and friends (28). As participants were presented with a set of given audiences or interlocutors, there were also six

participants that added vacation, as they speak English when communicating with people during their holidays abroad. This demonstrated the necessity to be proficient at the English language for international purposes. As participants were able to supplement any missing discourse audiences, all supplemented audiences were preceded by an asterisk (*) in Figure 4.1.

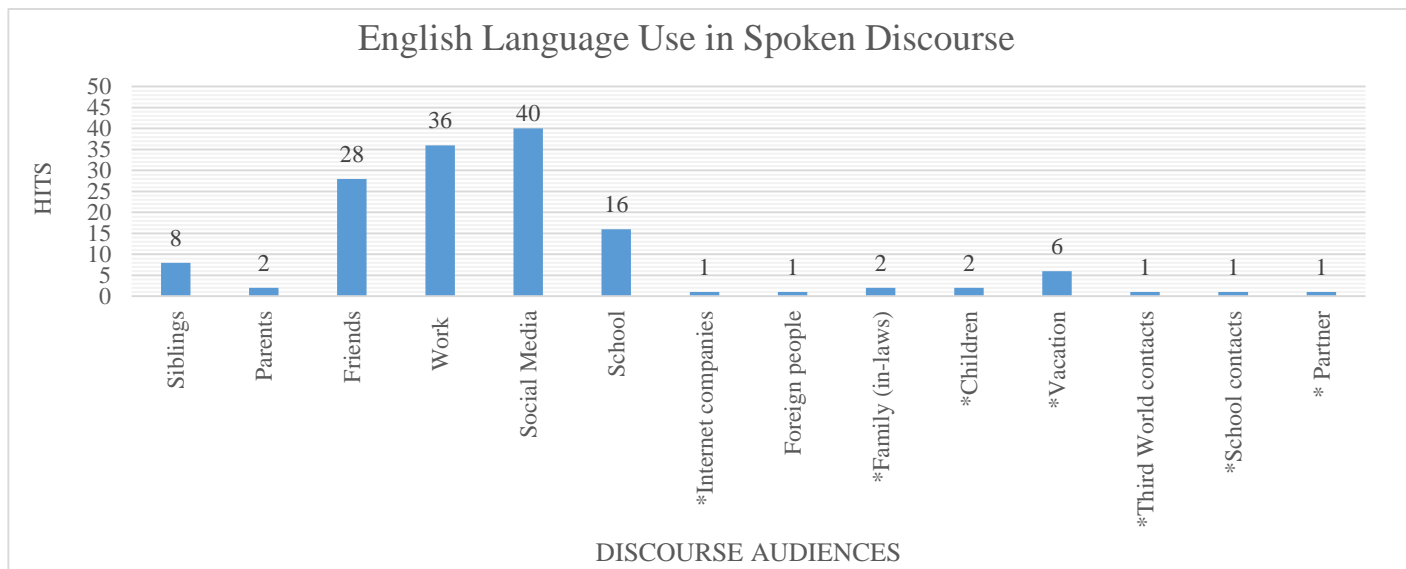


Figure 4.1: Analysis participants' discourse audiences where the English language is employed

4.2 Analysis of the chosen loanwords

This section will elaborate on the findings found in the second section of the questionnaire. Each of the ten loanwords are discussed separately, identifying any striking and relevant findings. The general structure is to first discuss what the particular language preferences were of the participants, followed by an account of values explaining the participants' attitudes towards the English loanwords. The values given by participants were also integrated into separate figures (1 figure per loanword), which have been added to the appendix.

1.2.1 "Shape"

Table 4.2 demonstrates that a total of 28 participants preferred the English term "shape", whereas 30 participants preferred the Dutch term "vorm". There were also two participants who were unable to state a preference, which as result was itemised as a "?". In terms of gender, results demonstrated that 18 men and 10 women preferred the English loan. Therefore, results indicated that there was a slight difference based of gender, even though it is not a very conspicuous one. Most striking discrepancies based on gender are found in the male and female 18-30 and 51+, in which women prefer the Dutch "vorm", whereas men generally prefer the English loan "shape". Age, on the other hand, proved to be a more influential variable, as there were considerable discrepancies between the different age groups.

Table 4.2 suggests that especially the 51+ groups showed negative attitudes towards “shape” (3), whereas 17 participants preferred the Dutch variant over the English one, highlighting the relationship between conservatism and disapproval of loanwords in older generations as described by Eckert (1998) in section 2.5.1.

Table 4.2: Language attitudes towards the use of “shape” and “vorm” shown by age and gender

| | Age | Shape | Vorm | ? |
|--------|-------|-------|------|---|
| Male | 18-30 | 9 | 1 | |
| | 31-50 | 8 | 2 | |
| | 51+ | 1 | 9 | |
| Female | 18-30 | 5 | 4 | 1 |
| | 31-50 | 3 | 6 | 1 |
| | 51+ | 2 | 8 | |
| | Total | 28 | 30 | 2 |

When participants were asked to assign values to the use of “shape” as opposed to “vorm” in a particular context, participants expressed mixed feelings (see Figure 4.2, Appendix F, p 74). The value ‘hip’ was mostly chosen by women (13), whereas men mostly appreciated the fact that “shape” ‘sounds good’ (9), is ‘effective’ (9) and ‘hip’ (9). All these feelings correspond to Onysko’s (2004) emotive motivation, as this motivation reflects the hipness of the English language. Further results indicated that participants (men: 8; women: 6) felt that “shape” allowed for variation, which corresponded to Onysko’s (2004) stylistic motivation for borrowing. Other results indicated that men were more concerned with the practical perspective of language use, as they preferred the English loan due to its effectiveness. The second most popular value was ‘unnecessary’ (men: 7; women: 10), which was rather contradictory as this is a negative value, whereas ‘hip’ is often perceived as positive. Strikingly, ‘hip’ was used to state negative feelings as well. Five women (18-30: 1; 31-50: 2; 51+: 2) expressed that the reason they avoid using “shape” is just because it is (overly) hip and older generations might not understand the meaning of this loanword. Therefore, ‘hip’ conveyed both negative and positive attitudes.

In terms of age, two negative values showed to be more strongly expressed in the 51+ groups. For ‘unnecessary’ language use, four out of five hits for this value stemmed from men from the 51+ category. A similar case occurred for the ‘does not sound good’ variable, where four out of six hits were given by women from the 51+ group. This again links back to Eckert’s perspective on age and attitudes mentioned in section 2.5.1.

4.2.2 “Eyecatcher”

Judging by the results shown in Table 4.3, 27 participants preferred “eyecatcher” as opposed to 33 participants who favoured “blikvanger” in this particular context. Results showed that there is a rather equal distribution of preferences in terms of gender; however, it seems that the male 51+ group showed more favouritism towards “blikvanger” (10, as opposed to women: 5), which indicated that the age variable once again showed more prominent differences in attitudes. Of the 51+ group, four men argued that “eyecatcher” had little additional value as opposed to its Dutch near-equivalent. Additionally, six participants (men: 1 from each age group; women: 3 from 18-30) who were in favour of “blikvanger” commented on the fact that “eyecatcher” was used in a very unusual and syntactically problematic sentence. They felt that due to the use of the loanword, the sentence did not flow well, with as consequence that participants preferred the use of “blikvanger”.

Table 4.3: Language attitudes towards the use of “eyecatcher” and “blikvanger” shown by age and gender

| | Age | Eyecatcher | Blikvanger |
|---------------|--------------|------------|------------|
| Male | 18-30 | 7 | 3 |
| | 31-50 | 4 | 6 |
| | 51+ | 0 | 10 |
| Female | 18-30 | 6 | 4 |
| | 31-50 | 5 | 5 |
| | 51+ | 5 | 5 |
| | Total | 27 | 33 |

Contrastingly, men from the 18-30 group preferred the English variant, expressing that “eyecatcher” is more appealing and has a different meaning than the Dutch equivalent would have in this context. Others have stated that “eyecatcher” sounded trendier, and consider the use of English desirable in marketing, especially as younger generations like the use of trendy and hip language. This also in agreement with Ridder’s point on the fact that English loans are most often used by younger generations. Furthermore, this also shows agreement with Onysko’s emotive motivation.

Further results have shown a rather mixed attitude towards “eyecatcher”. The most outstanding values were ‘sounds good’, which was given 20 hits, and ‘unnecessary’ which received 17 hits (see Appendix F, Figure 4.3, p.74). This suggested that a considerable number of participants have shown to be both positive, and negative towards the use of “eyecatcher”. This also shows in Table 4.3, as the majority preferred the Dutch alternative, even though this number was not much higher than the number of participants who preferred the English loan. Other popular values were ‘effective’ (10) and ‘undesired language use’ (10), once again pointing towards the contrasting views on the use of “eyecatcher”.

Possible gender discrepancies were only found for ‘undesired language use’ (men: 7; women: 3) and ‘effective’ (men: 7; women: 3). Here, men from the 51+ group tended to be more negative, indicating again that even though there is a slight gender difference, age seems to play a bigger role in language attitudes in this case. Considering the fact that proficiency grades were also lowest in the 51+ age group, one could also argue that the lack of understanding caused more negative associations, which is in agreement with Hornikx, van Meurs and de Boer’s (2010) point on the influence of proficiency on one’s attitude.

4.2.3 “Singles”

Table 4.4: Language attitudes towards the use of ‘singles’ and ‘vrijgezellen’ shown by age and gender

| | Age | Singles | Vrijgezellen |
|---------------|--------------|-----------|--------------|
| Male | 18-30 | 8 | 2 |
| | 31-50 | 7 | 3 |
| | 51+ | 9 | 1 |
| Female | 18-30 | 9 | 1 |
| | 31-50 | 8 | 2 |
| | 51+ | 8 | 2 |
| | Total | 49 | 11 |

Table 4.4 reveals that the vast majority of participants preferred the use of “singles” (49) as opposed to the Dutch alternative “vrijgezellen” (11). Both men and women have expressed that “singles” is more modern, and sounds better. These values pointed towards a recurring trend of an emotive motivation for borrowing, as that type of motivation was also found in the previously discussed loanwords. Furthermore, proponents of the English term argued that “singles” is a fully integrated and well-known term in the Dutch vocabulary and stated that the English term is more convenient as “singles” is a shorter word to say. The notion of brevity corresponds to Onysko’s convenience motivation for borrowing as well. In addition, they also associated ‘vrijgezel’ with archaic language use and associate ‘singles’ with positive connotations, whereas ‘vrijgezel’ is associated with a more negative meaning. For example, some men (2) and women (5) have expressed that one is ‘single’ when they are willingly without partner, whereas ‘vrijgezel’ is associated with being ‘without partner’ regardless of the desire to be alone or in a relationship. Having said that, this finding also corresponded to Onysko’s euphemistic motivation, as well as Haspelmath’s (2009) notion of therapeutic borrowing, as participants consider “singles” a more positive and less loaded option than its Dutch equivalent. These answers were also in agreement with Ridder’s point on hip language and its appeal to younger generations. Contrastingly, in this particular case older generations also preferred the use of “singles” and expressed that they felt that “vrijgezellen” was considered too old-fashioned. Consequently, results

indicated that older generations considered “singles” to be a fully integrated word in the Dutch vocabulary, which culminates in a more tolerant attitude towards the use of “singles”.

Other results have shown that men responded more positively towards the use of “singles” as opposed to “vrijgezellen”. The data shown in table 4.4 and Figure 4.4 (see Appendix F, p. 75) show slightly contrasting results, as women preferred the use of “singles”, but Figure 4.4 displayed that women sported a less positive attitude towards the use of “singles” in this particular context. For example, men scored 21 in ‘sounds good’, whereas women only scored 12. Similarly for ‘effective’, men scored 15 whereas 4 women identified “singles” as effective in this context. Therefore, women have regularly shown to score lower than men in positive variables for this particular term. Contrastingly, women have also supplemented two variables which were intended as positive variables. Therefore, in terms of gender and age variables, results did not present any conspicuous discrepancies as both men and women as well as young and old age groups have responded positively towards the use of “singles”.

4.2.4 “Tickets”

Table 4.5: Language attitudes towards the use of ‘tickets’ and ‘kaarten’ shown by age and gender

| | Age | Tickets | Kaarten |
|--------|-------|---------|---------|
| Male | 18-30 | 9 | 1 |
| | 31-50 | 9 | 1 |
| | 51+ | 8 | 2 |
| Female | 18-30 | 9 | 1 |
| | 31-50 | 6 | 4 |
| | 51+ | 6 | 4 |
| | Total | 48 | 12 |

Most men (26) have expressed to favour “tickets”, as opposed to four men who stated to prefer “kaarten”. Table 4.5 showed that women generally responded positively as well, however, not as positively as men. Especially women from the 18-30 group show a strong preference for the English loan, whereas other female age categories showed a decrease in preferences for “tickets”. Proponents of “tickets” felt that the loanword sounded better (11, of which 6 men), was catchier (1) and also more modern (2). Therefore, these values corresponded with Onysko’s emotive motivation as well. The most dominant argument was that “tickets” was a fully integrated term, which was agreed upon by 6 men (18-30: 2; 51+: 4) and 9 women (18-30: 2; 31-50: 4; 51+: 3). Another argument was that the presented advertisement was concerned with an international band and an international concert in Vancouver, which according to 8 (male: 5; female: 3) participants justified the use of an English term. The opponents of “tickets” felt that this was a good example of unnecessary borrowing (3) as the Dutch

term sufficed as well. Furthermore, 3 participants (of which 2 women) felt that an overuse of English would harm the Dutch language and that English words were only appropriate if they added an additional value that the Dutch alternative missed. The fear of language deterioration was also mentioned by Ridder (1995) and Crystal (2011, p. 68), who proposed that many Dutch people considered English as a language threat as result of the increasing influence of English on the native tongue.

Further analysis showed that participants regarded this loanword as well-accepted and well-integrated in the Dutch language (11) (see Figure 4.5, Appendix F, p. 75). Even though men and women generally did not score much differently, results did indicate that women were more critical of the use of this particular loanword. Women scored 6 for ‘unnecessary’ and 2 for ‘unprofessional’, whereas men did not have any hits in these values. Men generally scored higher for positive values, such as ‘professional’(11), as opposed to 6 for women and ‘sounds good’(19), as opposed to 11 for women.

4.2.5 “Make-over”

Table 4.6: Language attitudes towards the use of ‘make-over’ and ‘opfrisbeurt’ shown by age and gender

| | Age | Make-over | Opfrisbeurt | ? |
|--------|-------|-----------|-------------|---|
| Male | 18-30 | 7 | 2 | 1 |
| | 31-50 | 7 | 3 | |
| | 51+ | 3 | 7 | |
| Female | 18-30 | 6 | 4 | |
| | 31-50 | 5 | 4 | 1 |
| | 51+ | 4 | 6 | |
| | Total | 32 | 26 | 2 |

Results indicated that there are mixed attitudes to the use of “make-over”, as there is not really a clear preference for either the English “make-over”, or the Dutch “opfrisbeurt”. This may point towards the fact that “make-over” coexists with “opfrisbeurt” as results show no clear preference between either the English loan or its Dutch equivalent. Nonetheless, according to the numbers shown in Table 4.6, participants conveyed a slight preference towards the English variant. Striking is that the difference between attitudes is not one of gender, but again of age. Both 18-30 and 31-50 groups have expressed a (slight) preference for the English variant (men: 14; women: 11). Of these two age groups, there were also one man and one woman unable to select a preference, which were listed as a ‘?’. Both men (9) and women (5) commented on the fact that the meaning or value of make-over is much stronger than its Dutch equivalent. Other arguments in favouring ‘make-over’ were that it sounds better (men: 2; women: 6), hipper (men: 1; women: 1), attracts more attention (men: 2; women: 2), and is more modern than “opfrisbeurt”. Consequently, evidence for another account of emotive motivation was found on basis

of the given values. Contrastingly, a recurring argument for women (4) in choosing “opfrisbeurt” is that “make-over” is often associated with people undergoing a transformation, whereas this advertisement referred to new home interior. Other arguments in favour of the Dutch near-equivalent were that “make-over” was already used too frequently, and that the Dutch word sufficed as well. The 51+ groups, on the other hand, have expressed a stronger preference for the Dutch variant (13). This also supports the notion that this word has not fully integrated into the Dutch language yet.

Previously discussed findings in respect to “make-over” have eliminated the notion that gender was a strong reason for attitudinal differences. Hence, Figure 4.6 (see Appendix F, p. 76) also did not reveal much in terms of gender differences, with the values ‘effective’ and ‘professional’ as outliers. ‘Effective’ scored a 9 by men (18-30: 3; 31-50: 4; 51+: 2) and only 5 by women (18-30: 1 ; 31-50: 3; 51+: 1). For “make-over”, there is only a four-point difference, which is not substantial enough a difference to claim that there is a relationship between age and attitudes. For ‘professional’, however, especially men from the 18-30 (5) and 31-50 groups (4) felt strongly about the professionalism of the English loanword, as opposed to only two women (31-50 and 51+) who considered English useful in terms of professionalism. In this particular case, there is evidence that in terms of age and gender there was a notable difference. Finally, other high-scoring values were ‘sounds good’(19), ‘it is easy’ (10), ‘professional’ (12), ‘adds something’ (11), but contrastingly, also ‘unnecessary’ (10). Thus again indicating that these participants felt mixed attitudes in terms of acceptance and whether participants felt “make-over” fits in this context as opposed to the Dutch version.

4.2.6 “Fashion”

Table 4.7: Language attitudes towards the use of ‘fashion’ and ‘mode’ shown by age and gender

| | Age | Fashion | Mode | ? |
|---------------|-------|---------|------|---|
| Male | 18-30 | 8 | 2 | |
| | 31-50 | 7 | 3 | |
| | 51+ | 3 | 7 | |
| Female | 18-30 | 10 | 0 | |
| | 31-50 | 6 | 3 | 1 |
| | 51+ | 5 | 5 | |
| | Total | 38 | 21 | 1 |

Table 4.7 displayed that there was a preference (38) for the use of “fashion” as opposed to Dutch “mode”, which was only chosen by 21 participants. In the female 31-50 group, one participant was not able to choose between the English or Dutch words, hence its listing as a ‘?’. With respect of previously discussed loanwords where there were strong differences between the 51+ and other age groups, this

loanword has shown similar results in the male 51+ group. Where men of the 18-30 (8) and 31-50 (7) groups were generally appreciative of the use of “fashion”, this appreciation rapidly decreased in the 51+ group (3). An explanation for this drop was that men (5) generally felt more comfortable with the Dutch term as they felt that the English word did not add anything additional to this particular context. For women, Table 4.6 showed a very strong preference (10) in the 18-30 group, which dropped by 4 hits in the 31-50 group. The female 51+ group had an even balance between opponents and proponents of “fashion”, which in turn pointed towards a more positive attitude as opposed to men from this age category. Therefore, in terms of age, it was observed that men became increasingly negative with age, whereas women were generally still positive about the use of “fashion”.

Other observations did not show any clear differences or outliers in terms of findings. Based on the figure 4.7 (see Appendix F, p.76) it could be argued that women responded less positively for ‘effective’ (3, men: 6) and ‘professional’ (5, men: 10). The only discrepancy in terms of negative attitudes is visible for ‘unprofessional’ as women (4) felt more strongly about this particular variable than men (1). However, this is not enough evidence to state that women are necessarily more negative, as men also responded to negative values (‘unnecessary’: 4; ‘undesired’: 4). On the other hand, results have shown that women and men both agreed on the fact that the use of “fashion” was ‘hip’ (men: 9; women: 12), which is, once again in agreement with Onysko’s emotive motivation. Therefore, results have shown that even though men and women score differently, they both score somewhat similarly in positive and in negative values, pointing towards the fact that there are no real outstanding or striking results on basis of gender.

4.2.7 “Looks”

Table 4.8: Language attitudes towards the use of ‘looks’ and ‘uiterlijk’ shown by age and gender

| | Age | Look | Uiterlijk | ? |
|--------|-------|------|-----------|---|
| Male | 18-30 | 10 | 0 | |
| | 31-50 | 9 | 1 | |
| | 51+ | 4 | 6 | |
| Female | 18-30 | 10 | 0 | |
| | 31-50 | 8 | 1 | 1 |
| | 51+ | 4 | 5 | 1 |
| Total | | 45 | 13 | 2 |

As Table 4.8 suggests, there was a strong inclination for the English word “look” (45) as opposed to its Dutch near-equivalent “uiterlijk” (13). Two women were unable to choose between the Dutch and English word, hence its notation as a ‘?’. Therefore, results have shown that participants were generally in favour of the English word. The most conspicuous result for this particular loanword was that the 18-

30 and 31-50 age groups – regardless of gender – responded rather positively, whereas the 51+ group has shown a sudden change in language preferences yet again (see Eckert in section 2.5.1). This sudden decrease of appreciation has been a recurring result for many of the discussed loanwords so far, including this one. In turn, this draws attention to the fact that there were hardly any differences in gender, but age has yet again shown to be an affective factor of one’s language attitude. Having said that, at least 7 participants (of which 4 female) in the 51+ groups have argued that the Dutch word “*uiterlijk*” sufficed, and sounded better. Two participants (1 man, 1 woman) have also stated that Dutch people should be prouder of their own native tongue, and should not just resort to loanwords when this is not necessary (see Ridder in section 2.3).

In contrast to the previously given analysis of “looks”, Figure 4.8 (see Appendix F, p. 77) demonstrated that there are prominent differences in attitudes in terms of gender. In general, the values ‘effective’ (16), ‘sounds good’ (18) and ‘hip’ (17) scored high, which indicates that participants borrowed out of emotive motivation. However, even though there is not that big of a difference between male and female hits for the last two mentioned values, there is a very prominent gender preference to be observed for ‘effective’. According to Figure F.7, only 3 women felt that “looks” was effective, whereas 13 men felt that this value was most prevalent in case of “looks”. However, other results have shown that whereas women were positive (7) about the fact that the English word added something to the overall context, men felt that this was not necessarily the case (4). Similarly for the value “undesired language use” where 6 men felt that “looks” was inappropriate as opposed to one woman who shared this feeling. Even though some of the values showed clear gender differences, it seems that gender generally does not provide enough evidence as a determining factor for one’s language attitude. Age on the other hand has yet again shown to consist of notable differences. First, the most positive age group was 18-30 who were very adamant about the fact that it ‘sounds good’ and that it is ‘hip’ language use. Secondly, the 31-50 group showed to be slightly more negative towards the use of “looks” compared to the 18-30 group, but remained generally positive. For example, these participants scored 7 in ‘hip’, felt that the English word ‘added something’ to the overall context (5) and felt that its use was effective (6) and sounded good (4). Finally, the 51+ group was not as positive about the use of “looks”. They felt that “looks” was ‘unnecessary’ (4), ‘undesired language use’ (5) and felt that it ‘did not sound good’ (7). These numbers demonstrate that there again seems to be a link between attitudes and age, in which older generations were less appreciative towards this particular English loanword.

4.2.8 “Design”

Table 4.9: Language choices towards the use of “design” and “ontwerp” shown by age and gender

| | Age | Design | Ontwerp | ? |
|--------|-------|--------|---------|---|
| Male | 18-30 | 10 | 0 | |
| | 31-50 | 7 | 3 | |
| | 51+ | 3 | 7 | |
| Female | 18-30 | 7 | 2 | 1 |
| | 31-50 | 8 | 2 | |
| | 51+ | 5 | 4 | 1 |
| | Total | 40 | 18 | 2 |

The majority of the participants (40) favour the use of “design” over the use of its Dutch near-equivalent “ontwerp” (18). Two female participants were unable to choose between either variants, with as result that these were listed as a “?”. Judging by the results in Table 4.9, there is not much evidence of gender differences, however, age again presented itself as a salient influence on language attitudes. Numbers have shown that the 18-30 group was most positive towards the use of “design”, in which men responded more positively (10) than women (7). The following group showed similar attitudes, even though attitudes slightly decreased in the male group (7). The 51+ groups, on the other hand, showed another sudden change of heart as the majority of the men (7) favoured the Dutch word “ontwerp” more. The female 51+ group also showed a decline in number of preferences with respect to “design” (5), but still had a rather balanced distribution of preferences (design 5; ontwerp 5). Therefore, it could be said that even though the male 51+ group indicated a considerable difference, this was more or less due to the influence of age rather than gender as the female group also decreased in attitudes but to a lesser extent. The drop that occurred in the 51+ groups can also be attributed to the increasing conservatism as described by Eckert (1998) and Baker (1992) (see section 2.5.1).

Further analysis has shown that attitudes towards “design” were quite equal in both male and female perspectives. The most popular values for “design” were ‘effective’ (17), ‘professional’ (24), ‘sounds good’ (20) and ‘hip’ (15). These attitudes indicated that borrowing occurred as result of emotive motivation. In this, a rather equal balance between male and female hits can be found in Figure 4.9 (see Appendix F, p. 77), apart from ‘effective’ (men: 11; women: 6) and ‘professional’ (men: 16; women: 8). Some popular negative values were ‘unnecessary’ (men: 4; women:5) and ‘undesired language use’ (men: 5; women:1). Nevertheless, the hits for negative values can be neglected as these were rather low in comparison to the earlier mentioned positive values. However, the aforementioned statement did not eliminate the fact that there are still negative attitudes towards the English loan; it just highlighted that

these differences did not stem from one's gender but age group as it were mostly the older generation participants (12 hits) that expressed negative attitudes towards "design".

4.2.9 "Comeback"

Table 4.10: Language attitudes towards the use of 'comeback' and 'terugkeer' shown by age and gender

| | Age | Comeback | Terugkeer | ? |
|--------|-------|----------|-----------|---|
| Male | 18-30 | 8 | 2 | |
| | 31-50 | 9 | 1 | |
| | 51+ | 7 | 3 | |
| Female | 18-30 | 7 | 3 | |
| | 31-50 | 5 | 3 | 2 |
| | 51+ | 5 | 5 | |
| | Total | 41 | 17 | 2 |

Based on the numbers presented in Table 4.10, overall data showed that the majority of participants preferred the use of "comeback" (41), in contrast to the 17 remaining participants that claimed to use the Dutch word "terugkeer" in this particular context. Two women from the 31-50 age group could not make a choice, hence its notation as "?". Consistent with findings presented in 4.9, it showed that there was a difference in terms of gender and in age. Men tended to be more positive and open to the use of "comeback" in all age categories, claiming that "comeback" was an accepted term in the Dutch language (8), worked well in combination with other loanwords such as touch, look and trend (2) and generally sounded better to them (7). Women in the 18-30 category were also positive (7), which suddenly decreased with age. Even though there was a slight decline in the female 31-50 group (from 7 to 5), this stabilised as the 51+ group also had 5 hits in favour of "comeback". Therefore, women showed a less positive attitude towards the English loanword in comparison to men.

In accordance with results presented in Figure 4.10 (see Appendix F, p.78), the use of "comeback" evoked mixed feelings. Most popular values were 'effective' (13), 'sounds good' (15) and 'hip' (16). Even though these values were all positive, the negative variable 'unnecessary' also scored high (11). As opposed to previously discussed loanwords where gender had little influence on participants' attitudes, there was a disparity concerning male and female attitudes towards the use of 'comeback'. Firstly, men (6) felt more strongly about the professional value of "comeback". Women, on the other hand, scored low on the professional value, but were more positive about the lexical variation (4) this loan offered. This indicated that next to finding evidence of emotive borrowing, the notion of lexical variation indicated that stylistic motivation was also a reason for borrowing the English loan "comeback". However, Figure 4.10 also showed that women were less positive in case of positive

values, but also more negative with negative values. For example, only 4 out of 13 hits for ‘effective’ were female, and 9 out of 11 hits for ‘unnecessary’ were female as well.

4.2.10 “Shoppen”

Table 4.11: Language attitudes towards the use of ‘shoppen’ and ‘winkelen’ shown by age and gender

| | Age | Shoppen | Winkelen |
|--------|-------|---------|----------|
| Male | 18-30 | 9 | 1 |
| | 31-50 | 8 | 2 |
| | 51+ | 2 | 8 |
| Female | 18-30 | 9 | 1 |
| | 31-50 | 5 | 5 |
| | 51+ | 4 | 6 |
| | Total | 37 | 22 |

Even though “shoppen” is a word that is heard very often in advertisements, commercials, radio or any other media form, data have shown a mixed appreciation for this word. Based on the overall results, it seems that there is a neutral attitude towards the use of “shoppen”. The trend in many of the selected loanwords is that gender does not provide as strong relations with attitude as age, which is also the case for “shoppen”. Results demonstrated that the older the participants were, the more negative the use of “shoppen” was considered to be. According to Table 4.11, the three most positive age groups were the male and female 18-30 groups and the male 31-50 group. Arguments in favour of the use of “shoppen” were that the loan was a well-integrated word in Dutch vocabulary (8), it generally sounded better (5) and sounded more modern (3), hipper (3) and appealing (3) than “winkelen”, again providing a link to the emotive motivation for borrowing. Furthermore, 3 participants expressed that the use of more English loanwords in this advertisement has brought them to believe that “shoppen” sounded better in this particular context. Further analysis showed a dichotomy between male and female attitudes in the 31-50 group as the majority of the male group still preferred “shoppen” (8), even though the female group had a balanced preference between either terms (5-5). Two women asserted that “winkelen” still sounded more natural and better, whereas “shoppen” was considered to be too hip. Finally, the majority of the 51+ groups selected “winkelen”. Their explanations showed that they preferred to maintain their own native words (5) and felt that the use of “shoppen” was overly hip and had no additional value (1). Therefore, they did not see the point of using an English term where the Dutch term sufficed. Furthermore, they felt that because we live in the Netherlands, we should use more of our own lexicon without having to resort to other languages without any apparent reason (4). One participant even claimed that “shoppen” sounds tacky and almost vulgar. It should also be added that men preferred the use of “winkelen” more than the 51+ group than women from this age group.

The participants responded positively towards the use of “shoppen” (see Figure 4.11, Appendix F, p. 78). The most popular values were ‘hip’ (21), ‘it is easy’ (19), ‘sounds good’ (14) and ‘effective’ (11). The gender distribution in the aforementioned values did not show any substantial differences. However, further analysis into the hits per age group showed that variables such as ‘effective’ (7-3-1), ‘sounds good’ (8-4-2) and ‘hip’ (8-10-3) displayed sudden decreases with age. In case of a negative value such as ‘unnecessary’, there was an increase visible with age: 18-30 and 31-50 had 2 hits, whereas 51+ had dropped to 6. Similarly for ‘does not sound good’, which started with 2 hits in both 18-30 and 31-50 groups and increased to 5 hits in the 51+ group. Based on these findings, age has shown to be a salient determinant of language attitudes yet again.

4.3 Open Questions

This section will briefly discuss all findings from the third – and final – section of the questionnaire. Each question will be elaborated on separately in which most striking and salient findings will be mentioned.

4.3.1 Importance of English Proficiency

Apart from four respondents, all participants agreed on the necessity of a good proficiency in English. Those four responses comprised arguments that English is unnecessary to master (male, 51+) and as long as we know some basic English and understand the frequently used words, that should be enough (2 women, 18-30). The remaining participants expressed the opinion that being proficient in English is not a choice but a necessity, due to the fact that the Netherlands is very small and our language does not extend beyond the country’s borders. In total, 31 men (18-30: 13; 31-50: 8; 51+: 10) and 38 women (18-30: 11; 31-50: 15; 51+: 12) argued that being proficient in English is essential for communication purposes in national and international sense. Therefore, to enable communication in (Social Media and other online communication portals) and outside this country, English is the main language to be proficient in as this is the global lingua franca (see Crystal, 2003; Seidlhofer, 2005 in section 2.1). Four male participants answered that English was often used in advertisements and literature (18-30: 1; 31-50: 2; 51+: 1), and was the language that addressed technical innovations (1 male, 18-30; 1 female, 51+), which made a good understanding of English beneficial and indispensable. Contrastingly, the male and female 51+ groups sport a less positive attitude towards learning English for communicational purposes in and outside the Dutch borders. Strikingly, it was the 51+ groups that felt that English has become not only a second language in the Netherlands (male, 3), but that English lexical items are increasingly adopted in the Dutch language (female, 2), highlighting the fact that the English language is gaining importance in the Netherlands.

4.3.2 Use of English in Dutch advertisements

Table 4.12: Responses towards the necessity of English loanwords in Dutch advertisements

| | Age | Not unnecessary | Unnecessary | Indecisive |
|--------|-------|-----------------|-------------|------------|
| Male | 18-30 | 9 | 1 | |
| | 31-50 | 6 | 2 | 2 |
| | 51+ | 3 | 7 | |
| Female | 18-30 | 7 | 1 | 2 |
| | 31-50 | 6 | 2 | 2 |
| | 51+ | 5 | 5 | |
| | Total | 36 | 18 | 6 |

Table 4.12 showed a chart containing all answers regarding the necessity of English loanwords in Dutch advertisements. Results have indicated that the general trend of linking age to language attitudes applied to this question as well.

Firstly, results suggested that nine out of ten males and seven out of ten women from the 18-30 group have indicated that they felt that English words were necessary. Their motivations were that in some cases English words sounded catchier, were more modern, were hipper, and covered more semantically as opposed to their Dutch near-equivalent. Three female participants felt that national and international companies take advantage of the increased use of English to appeal to a broader audience. Results also showed that English appealed more to younger audiences, which was also a group that Ridder (1995) identified as the group that often use English loanwords (see section 2.5). The two missing hits belonged to the female 18-30 group as a result of ambiguous answers. One woman argued that whether English is necessary strongly depends on the audience: a young audience may accept English use, whereas older audiences may not.

Finally, in the 31-50 and 51+ age groups differences were most visible in terms of age and gender. In agreement with Table 4.12, men and women sported identical numbers of proponents and opponents of using English in Dutch advertisements. What should be added though, was that men were more positive in the 18-30 group (9 as opposed to 7 for women), which meant that there was a bigger attitude drop for the men (3) than women (1) in the 31-50 age group. There were also two men and two women from the 31-50 group who were indecisive about the necessity to use English loans in Dutch advertisements as these participants felt that the most appropriate language use depended on the audience, product and context. Furthermore, in the 51+ age group differences were visible in terms of age, as well as in gender. For men, Table 4.12 showed that the six proponents of English loanwords in Dutch advertisements dropped to three, whereas the number of opponents increased from two to a seven.

In the female group proponents of English loans dropped by one point, whereas the number of opponents increased from two to five. These results demonstrated that attitudes towards the use of English in Dutch advertisements became increasingly negative with age.

4.3.3 Participants' use of English loanwords

Even though many participants were judgmental towards the use of the provided English loanwords in earlier sections, participants actually expressed that they never realised how frequently they used these loanwords themselves. Overall results indicated that there were important differences based on age and gender.

Firstly, consistent with the findings presented in Figure 4.11, participants from the 18-30 age group claimed to frequently use at least three of ten loanwords. By frequently I included all loanwords that were selected seven or more times. Men were most positive and claimed to use “singles” (7), “tickets” (8), and “design” (8) most frequently. Women, on the other hand, used “singles” (10), “tickets” (10), “make-over” (7), “design” (7), “comeback” (7) and “shoppen” (10). Based on these results, women stated to use more loanwords than men in the 18-30 age group. The most dominant reason for using these particular loanwords was because many of these words were already integrated in the Dutch language, and these words were so frequently used in the media that it was very easy to blindly adopt and reproduce the loanwords.

Secondly, results from the 31-50 age group showed a decreased use of the ten loanwords. Men only claimed to use “tickets” (7), whereas women claimed to regularly use “singles” (7), “tickets” (7), and “shoppen” (8). In terms of gender, results indicated that women used more loanwords as opposed to men.

Finally, as opposed to the other age groups, there were no loanwords that got more than seven hits in the 51+ group. For the female group, “design” got most hits (6), whereas the male group claimed to use “tickets” (5) most often. When looking at the overall number of hits in Figure 4.12, a general trend was visible in which the amount of hits decreased with age. As men tended to use these words less frequently, their motivations were that they sometimes use these words, but also avoid these words if the use of English loans hindered communication. Furthermore, one woman expressed that she uses English words as little as possible, and speaks English only when necessary. Another woman also claimed that she almost actively avoids using these words as she feels too insecure and is not proficient in English, which correlated to Baker's (1992) and Hornikx, van Meurs and de Boer's (2010) arguments on the influence of proficiency on language attitudes. Even though not all loanwords in the 51+ group were discussed as a result of too few hits, Figure 4.12 demonstrated that there were a few female outliers (eyecatcher, make-over, design, shoppen) in the 51+ age category; however, considering that these outliers were only based on a four-point difference at most, they could also be neglected as a four-point difference is not a great difference based on the small sample of participants in this research. In

conclusion, results have shown that women tend to use loanwords more often than men, and the use of the given loanwords decreased with age.

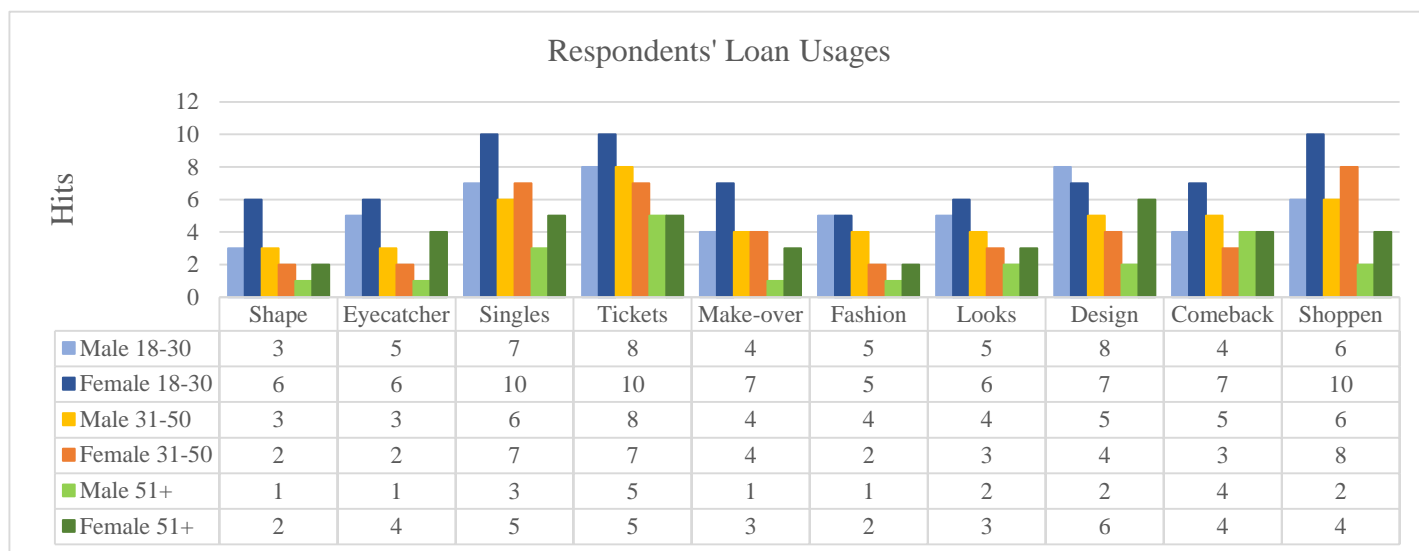


Figure 4.12: Results of respondents' English loan usages divided by gender and age

5. Conclusion

Introduction

This section will provide the answers to the research questions; first the main findings will be reported on, after which each research question will be answered separately and links to the reviewed literature will be established. Subsequently, motives for using loanwords taken from the participants' statements will be discussed as well as the limitations and implications for future research .

5.1 Main Findings

For this research, a corpus was compiled consisting of ten English loanwords that were used in Dutch advertisements. This corpus was intended to research the attitudes of the participants towards the use of English loans in Dutch advertisements and to investigate what affected these particular attitudes. The data were obtained by means of an online questionnaire that was distributed via Social Media (Facebook) and email. A general overview of results from this research is discussed below.

Firstly, results have shown that men and women responded similarly towards the use of loans in Dutch advertisements, with exception of three loanwords (“shape”, “tickets” and “comeback”) where men responded more favourably. The outcome of this particular variable confirmed that women tend to prefer the use of the standard language. Furthermore, it was generally the case that men approached the loanwords from a pragmatic perspective, as men expressed that they can appreciate the use of a loanword because it is more effective in terms of promoting the product in the presented contexts.

Secondly, the most prominent variable that influenced one's language attitude was age. In most occasions (7 out of 10 loanwords), results indicated that the younger age groups were more positive towards the use of loanwords, and that this particular appreciation for the use of loanwords rapidly decreased with age. It seemed to be a recurring trend to find positive attitudes of the participants in the 18-30 group and rather negative attitudes in the 51+ group, whereas the 31-50 group did not express a clear preference compared to the other two age groups.

Thirdly, proficiency also proved to be a salient variable that influences one's language attitude. Results have indicated that the participants from the youngest age group scored highest (7.4) in terms of comprehension means, whereas the 51+ group scored lowest (6.15). Further analysis by means of a one-way ANOVA test indicated that a statistically significant result was found in the 18-30 and 51+ groups. The decreasing self-assessment grades corresponded with the decline in positive attitudes towards the use of English loanwords. Therefore, data have shown that proficiency is a determining factor when it comes to one's language attitude.

Finally, when participants were asked to choose between the English loan and its Dutch near-equivalent, results indicated that participants mostly preferred most English loans over the Dutch alternatives. Further analyses included asking participants why they preferred one term over the other. The participants' answers were compared to Onysko's (2004) six motivations for lexical borrowing, of which there were four that corresponded to his model. Onysko's semantic motivation did not have any relevance in this research as none of the selected loanwords were used due to the lack of a near-equivalent in the Dutch language. Even though no evidence was found for social motivations, there were accounts of people stating that some loanwords were employed to attract a particular audience, which caused a sense of exclusion for people that were not part of the targeted audience or were not able to understand English.

5.2 Discussion

This section deals with answering all research questions separately on the basis of obtained data. The general structure is to discuss the relevant reviewed literature first, after which results from this research will be discussed and will also indicate agreement and disagreement with the reviewed literature.

5.2.1 Attitude and Gender

The investigation that focused on the relationship between gender and language attitudes showed that there were mixed conceptions about the influence of gender on language attitudes. To begin, relevant literature sported the overall assumption that women respond more positively towards the use of a language with a high status, the motivation for such a statement being that women are more sensitive towards the use of prestigious language forms (Baker, 1992; Romaine, 1978; Trudgill, 1983). Assuming that English is considered to be a prestigious language form in the Netherlands (Gramley, 2001; Romaine, 1978), the tendency of women to use English loans could rule in favour of gender differences

in language attitudes. Cameron and Coates (1988) also added that women are linguistically more flexible, and thus develop a wider linguistic repertoire than men, which could also explain any discrepancies between the language that is used by men and women. Gerritsen *et al.* (2000), on the other hand, conducted similar research and found that, in fact, their research showed no statistically significant differences between men's attitudes and those of women (p. 23). Contrastingly, this particular research found some, however not very convincing, evidence of gender influence on one's language attitude.

In chapter 4 attitudes and preferences with respect to ten loanwords were analysed of which only three loanwords showed a relationship between language attitudes and gender. The words "shape" (see section 4.2.1), "tickets" (see section 4.2.4) and "comeback" (see section 4.2.9) showed that gender seemed to influence one's language attitudes. However, in contrast to the evidence found in previously conducted research where women sported most positive attitudes, this research has shown that men actually responded more favourably towards the English loanwords. Under these circumstances, Cameron and Coates's (1988) argument regarding women's wider linguistic repertoire actually applies better to men than women. With reference to men being more positive, "shape" proved to be a good example. Men scored rather positively towards the use of "shape" (9, 8, 1), as opposed to women (5, 3, 2) who showed to be more negative towards the use of this loan. On the other hand, results showed that men responded more negatively towards the use of Dutch equivalent "vorm" (1, 2, 9) compared to women (4, 6, 8), with the exception of the 51+ group (men: 9; women:8) which was an influence of age more than gender. The influence of age will be discussed in section 5.2.2.

However, even though there were occasions on which men and women had different attitudes, these differences were not conclusive as gender differences were only found in three out of ten loanwords. It could therefore be argued that there was a minor yet inconclusive relationship between gender and language attitudes as this relationship was not a recurring trend and did not show very striking differences.

5.2.2 Attitude and Age

Even though there was not much information available on the influence of age on the language attitudes of Dutch people towards the use of English in Dutch advertisements, most related sources mentioned that if age were to be an influential variable with respect to language attitudes, positive attitudes would most likely stem from the younger age groups (Chambers, 2009; Baker, 1992). Furthermore, Eckert (1998), Chambers (2009) and Baker (1992) also suggested that the older a person gets, the more traditional or conservative they become in terms of their language use. This conservatism or traditionalism culminates in more negative attitudes after a given life stage, which is often after reaching adulthood (Eckert, 1998; Chambers, 2009).

Of the discussed loanwords in chapter 4, there were seven loans that showed a connection between age and language attitudes. The loans that demonstrated this connection were "shape" (see section

4.2.1), “eyecatcher” (see section 4.2.2), “make-over” (see section 4.3.5), “fashion” (see section 4.2.6), “looks” (see section 4.2.7), “comeback” (see section 4.2.9) and “shoppen” (see section 4.2.10). In the early stages of analysing all loanwords, it quickly became clear that the decrease in attitudes with age would be a recurring trend in this language attitude research. It was often the case that where the 18-30 group was positive towards a loanword, this would be the complete opposite for the 51+ group, whereas the attitudes of the 31-50 group would be somewhere in the middle of the other groups. Therefore, the only conspicuous differences in attitudes were visible in the youngest and oldest age groups. In this case, a good example would be “looks”, considering that all (20) participants from 18-30 group preferred the use of the English loan, whereas the 51+ group rapidly dropped to only 8 participants (4 men, 4 women). On the other hand, 11 participants (6 male, 5 female) from the 51+ age group claimed to prefer the Dutch “uiterlijk” in contrast to the 0 participants from the 18-30 group. This sudden drop in the 51+ group hints towards the fact that age plays an influential role in attitudes and supports Chambers’s (2009), Eckert’s (1988) and Baker’s (1992) point on the influence of age on language attitudes.

5.2.3 Attitude and Proficiency

The literature that was consulted on the influence of comprehension on attitudes has repeatedly shown that comprehension affects attitudes towards loanwords positively. Hornikx, van Meurs & de Boer (2010), Gerritsen *et al.* (2000) and Baker (1995) asserted that many research projects have indicated that a high comprehension equals a more favourable attitude towards a particular language use. Consequently, messages that are difficult to understand are responded to more negatively, highlighting the fact that there is a correlation between language attitudes and one’s understanding of a language (Gerritsen *et al.*, 2000; Hornikx, van Meurs, & de Boer, 2010).

Based on the comprehension results presented in section 4.2, self-assessment proficiency grades rapidly declined per age group, which corresponded to the decrease of attitudes as well. This research used three age groups to determine the relationship between attitudes and comprehension by calculating the statistical significance between the self-assigned proficiency grades of the different age groups. A one-way ANOVA test was taken, which found statistical significance between the 18-30 (7.4) and 51+ age group (6.15). Consequently, comprehension proved to be a salient determinant as a statistically significant difference was found between age groups and comprehension, which was also supported by the decreasing attitudes per age group for most of the loanwords (with exception of “singles” and “tickets”). The loanwords “singles” and “tickets” were exceptions as no remarkable differences were found between comprehension and attitudes. This exception is the result of “singles” and “tickets” being very much part of the Dutch lexicon; participants expressed that the use of these loanwords is more common nowadays than the use of the Dutch terms “vrijgezellen”/ “alleenstaanden” or “kaarten”, which could explain why both 51+ groups also preferred the use of these two loanwords as well. Therefore, when participants consider particular loanwords to be part of the native tongue, their

attitudes to it are more positive, which demonstrates an exception to the relationship between comprehension and language attitudes.

5.2.4 Attitudes and Loans with Dutch Near-equivalents

This research investigated attitudes towards borrowing non-catachrestic loanwords, which suggests that people have both the English loan at their disposal, as well as a native lexical item. The notion of necessity was eliminated as there were no catachrestic loanwords involved in this research. As catachresis mostly focuses on what kind of preference one has, the notion of prestige was also taken into consideration as people may want to adopt a loanword purely because of the word's prestigious status. In the preparatory stages of this research, rather little literature was found to explain what drives people to make such language choices. When closely related literature was consulted, prestige was often an argument in explaining what moved people to use a loanword. For example, as a result of English being increasingly used in the Dutch language (Gerritsen *et al.*, 2000; Edwards, 2014), researchers have stated that English is a language with a status of prestige in the Netherlands (Gramley, 2001; van der Sijs, 2005; van Meurs *et al.*, 2007). Consequently, it could be argued that if the use of loanwords is preferred among participants, the relation between prestige and language attitudes may be supported. However, this would be too simple a conclusion. Therefore, this research did not only examine attitudes towards prestigious loans, but also investigated the differences in attitude towards the various non-catachrestic loanwords.

In order to analyse attitudes towards language borrowing, I had to critically evaluate and analyse the answers given in the questionnaire. It may be suggested that the relation between prestige and language attitudes may be confirmed if the English loan is predominantly chosen over the Dutch near-equivalent. As results in this research have shown, most of the selected loanwords were preferred over the Dutch near-equivalent, however, no clear evidence was found that this was only a result of prestige. Prestige was indeed a factor, but among other motivations as well (see section 5.2.5). Especially with regard to the statements given about women who tend to use more prestigious language (see section 2.5.2), these results have shown that women, in fact, do not particularly prefer the use of English loans, but often prefer maintaining the native – and standard – lexicon (Romaine, 1978; Parks & Robinson, 1998; Trudgill, 1983). More interestingly, men responded more positively towards the use of English loans, but their preference also did not point towards prestige. Strikingly, results did indicate that people often considered the English loans to be more fitting in the contexts they were used in, which led to a more positive attitude towards the loanword. However, this only indicated the appreciation of loanwords, and not necessarily the adoption of these loanwords in their own discourse. There were motivations found in the statements given by participants for borrowing loanwords, which will be discussed in the next section.

5.2.5 Motives for Using Loanwords

According to the results, participants' motivations mostly corresponded with four out of Onysko's six motivations. Firstly, most English loans were borrowed by participants as a result of *emotive borrowing*. For nine out of ten loanwords, participants expressed to use or prefer the loans due to the fact that the loans were hipper, more modern, more prestigious and trendier. Secondly, participants perceived English words to be useful for variation (2: shape & comeback). Even though it was not the case that the loanwords occurred with their Dutch near-equivalents in the same advertisement, participants expressed that the use of English loanwords provided them with the option to vary their lexical choices, which corresponded to Onysko's *stylistic motivation*. Secondly, participants claimed that "singles" was a less loaded word than "vrijgezellen", which they argued did not have the same semantic meaning and has a more negative connotation than "singles". Therefore, in the particular case of "singles", the *euphemistic motivation* proved to be the key reason for participants to borrow. Finally, participants expressed that loanwords were easier and more convenient in terms of *brevity*: the English form was often morphologically simpler, which proved to be a valid motivation for people to prefer as opposed to the longer Dutch alternative. The two motivations that had no connection to the participants' statements were that of *semantic motivation* and *social motivation*. In terms of semantics, none of the loanwords were catachrestic, suggesting that the English loans were not the only lexical options. Furthermore, social motivation only seemed to evoke a negative response which will be elaborated on in the next paragraph.

On the other hand, some participants expressed that they prefer using the native lexicon instead of borrowing English loans. The most prevalent motive is that English words were unnecessary, as participants express that English loans did not always semantically cover more than the Dutch form and sounded too hip. Hipness was also considered to be a motive for some to reject the English term as it caused for negative associations with the English loan. However, as negative attitudes were only recorded in the minority of the participants, they were not very striking compared to the positive attitudes for the majority of participants. Furthermore, as there was no evidence that people used the loanwords for social purposes, it was acknowledged that people asserted that the use of loanwords attracted only a particular target audience. This caused for a negative feeling towards the loanword, causing participants to reject the loan and prefer the native equivalent instead.

In conclusion, there were some notable motives for preferring either the English loanwords or the Dutch near-equivalents of these loanwords. Most motives corresponded to Onysko's motivations for borrowing, namely stylistic, euphemistic and emotive motivations as well as the motivation of convenience. Further results showed evidence that men felt that English loanwords mostly appealed to the younger generations and with that, also a wider audience than the Dutch equivalents would attract. Also, according to participants' arguments, English loanwords often sounded better, were shorter and could convey a stronger semantic meaning as opposed to some Dutch near-equivalents.

5.2.6 Limitations

This research also had limitations in terms of data collection methods. Firstly, the online questionnaire has both advantageous and disadvantageous (as indicated in section 3.1.3). Using an online questionnaire proved to be advantageous in the context that it was easily distributed and I did not have to be physically present while the participants completed the questionnaire. A drawback, however, was that I could not see in what conditions these questionnaires were taken and whether the participants were influenced by other people when filling out the questionnaire. Another setback was that the participants could have completed several questionnaires without it being noticed.

Similarly, another limitation of this questionnaire was that questions were thus designed that any form of grading was absent. As no focus was given on the degree of participants' attitudes, it hindered any statistical analyses with as result that no statistical relations between the variables and language attitudes could be established. If this questionnaire had included grading questions or Likert Scales, it would have enabled statistical analyses to support the significance of the researched variables, making the results and conclusions stronger.

Another limitation to this research was the fact that it was rather small-scale in terms of the number of participants, and also in terms of the number of English loanwords. Even though this research was able to provide relevant results by means of using sixty participants and ten loanwords, it would be more noteworthy if more participants had been involved, as well as if there had been more loanwords included.

5.3 Implications for Future Research

The sample used in this research only comprised sixty people, thus twenty per age group. Even though these numbers were enough to draw conclusions, it would be interesting as well to see whether the attitudes remain the same when more people participate. Furthermore, it would also be interesting to research attitudes of teenagers and adolescents, as these were not part of this particular research.

Furthermore, as this research only made use of a corpus consisting of ten loanwords, results drawn by the data were rather limited. Therefore, future researchers may want to add more loanwords to create and carry out a more in-depth investigation. Future research may benefit of the use of a wider variety of loanwords, which could include loanwords that vary in frequency (frequently used versus non-frequently used loanwords) to see if frequency plays a role as a determining factor on one's language attitude as well.

Finally, as this research focused more on the type of attitudes there were and what caused those attitudes, no focus was given to the degree of one's appreciation. This meant that at no point in the analysis of loanwords (with section 4.1 as exception) have I been able to calculate the statistical significance in any of the differences in attitudes. Even though researching the degree of one's attitude was not the aim of this research, it did prove to be a limitation as all results drawn from the obtained

data could not be statistically analysed for significance. Enabling statistical analysis can be achieved by asking people to what extent they accept or appreciate a loanword by means of Likert Scales. Moreover, being able to statistically analyse data (by means of numbers) would aid in truly presenting what is statistically significant and what is not, which allows for results which would further add to this research.

5.4 Conclusion

This thesis attempted to examine the attitudes towards the use of English loanwords in Dutch advertisements and to investigate the reasons people have for such attitudes. The framework that was used for this research was mostly based on Baker's (1992) and Gerritsen *et al.*'s (2000) frameworks and proved useful in acquiring reliable results. This research was successful in finding evidence that language attitudes was repeatedly affected by one's age, as well as participants' proficiency in the English language. The consulted literature (see sections 2.5.2 and 2.5.3) also supported the notion that age and proficiency were influential of language attitudes, indicating that these results presented nothing new and were in accordance with previously conducted research. Therefore, in examining age and proficiency, this research was able to prove the salience of these two variables. Unfortunately no outstanding evidence was found to support that gender was a salient determiner of language attitudes. Even in the earliest stages of this research, literature presented contradictory views on the influence of gender on language attitudes (see section 2.5.2). In accordance with Gerritsen *et al.* (2000) this particular research did not find any evidence of age being a determining factor, but there were occasions where women responded differently towards loanwords than men did. However, as the gender differences were thus small, these could be neglected when comparing them to the differences and influences on basis of proficiency and age. In the reflection stage of this research, it was found that the small-scale nature of this research was the biggest hindrance, as more participants and loanwords would have made this research more credible in drawing conclusions about the influencing variables on language attitudes. Therefore, as this small-sample research was successful in drawing conclusions which agreed with previously conducted research, the next step is to broaden the focus of this research by approaching more people, using more loanwords and establishing the significance of affecting variables on language attitudes.

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Appendices

| | |
|--|----|
| Appendix A – Online Questionnaire | 55 |
| Appendix B – Participant Summary Sheet | 69 |
| Appendix C – Summary Sheet Section 2 | 71 |
| Appendix D – Summary Sheet Loanwords Gender + Age | 72 |
| Appendix E – Summary Sheet Loanwords Age | 73 |
| Appendix F – Results Section 2 Participants’ Attitudes | 74 |

Appendix A - Questionnaire



Dear Sir/Madam,

Thank you for participating on my master thesis. You will be asked to answer questions about language use in Dutch advertisements. This will happen by means of ten pictures that include a small amount of text. There will be open questions and 'closed' questions. All questions must be answered to proceed to further sections. I would like to ask you to answer the questions appropriately and honestly. By providing honest answers you will help ensure my results to be more precise and reliable.

Participating on this survey is completely anonymous. Your details and answers will be processed and handled with care. Only answers that are relevant to mention in this research will be used, but without giving out any private details. This survey was piloted on twenty minutes.

Good luck and thank you in advance!

What is your gender? Male
 Female

What is your age? <18
 18 - 30
 31- 50
 51+

What is your nationality?

Dutch

Other:

What is your highest completed degree or level of education?

Basisonderwijs

Vorbereidend Middelbaar Onderwijs (MAVO)

Hoger Voortgezet Onderwijs (HAVO)

Vorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (VWO, ATHENEUM, GYMNASIUM)

Middelbaar Beroeps Onderwijs (MBO)

Hoger Onderwijs (HBO) - Bachelor

Hoger Onderwijs (HBO) - Master

Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (University) - Bachelor

Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (University) - Master

Other:

How would you self-assess your competency in regard to the following languages? Please drag the stripe to the satisfactory grade. A 10 will be regarded as fully fluent and 0 will represent minimal proficiency.



Who do you use the English language with to communicate? You may count any type of communication that occurs in English (rather this is only on lexical level or complete English conversations). A few speech groups are provided that you can drag into the box. You can use the extra boxes to add any missing speech groups. Please drag the additional groups to the box as well. The chosen speech groups can also be ranked, with 1 as most frequently used group.

| Items | Engels |
|----------------------|--------|
| Siblings | |
| Parents | |
| Friends | |
| Work environment | |
| Social Media | |
| School environment | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |

You have just completed the first section. In the second section you will be presented with ten Dutch advertisements. I would like you to ask to look at these advertisements critically and to answer all questions honestly.

In the following picture you will see a short advertisement from a Hema folder. In this advertisement, the word **'shape'** is used. I would like to ask you to look at the picture below and answer the following questions.



What is your opinion of the use of **'shape'** as opposed to the Dutch alternative **'vorm'** in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of **'shape'**. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

| Items | Shape |
|----------------------|-------|
| Effective | |
| Ineffective | |
| Professional | |
| Unprofessional | |
| It is easy | |
| Unnecessary | |
| Allows for variation | |

Undesired language use

Sounds good

Does not sound good

Adds something

Desired language use

Hip

Innovative

Other, such as

Other, such as

Other, such as

Other, such as

Which of the two options would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

In the next picture you will see 'eyecatcher' which was taken from the Karwei folder. I would like to ask you to look at the picture below and answer the following questions.

Welkom!

1 entree 3x anders

shopping

Brievenbus, huisnummer, deurklink: met aandacht voor details, **maak je de perfecte entree**. Die jouw woonstijl laat zien en een eyecatcher, maar ook onderdeel van het grote geheel is.



What is your opinion of the use of 'eyecatcher' as opposed to the Dutch alternative 'blikvanger' in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of 'eyecatcher'. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

| Items | Eyecatcher |
|------------------------|------------|
| Effective | |
| Ineffective | |
| Professional | |
| Unprofessional | |
| Unnecessary | |
| Adds something | |
| Desired language use | |
| Undesired language use | |
| Sounds good | |
| Does not sound good | |
| Hip | |
| Allows for variation | |
| Innovative | |
| It is easy | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |

Which of the two options would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

In the following image you will see a short piece of text taken from the e-Matching website. In this advertisement 'singles' is used. I would like to ask you to look at the advertisement critically and answer the questions below.



What is your opinion of the use of **'singles'** as opposed to the Dutch alternative **'vrijgezellen'** in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of **'singles'**. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

| Items | Singles |
|------------------------|---------|
| Adds something | |
| Innovative | |
| Unprofessional | |
| Sounds good | |
| Ineffective | |
| Unnecessary | |
| Desired language use | |
| Effective | |
| Professional | |
| Undesired language use | |
| It is easy | |
| Hip | |
| Does not sound good | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |

Which of the two options would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

Underneath you will see a short advertisement taken from METRO free newspaper from 1 April 2015. In the advertisement the word 'tickets' is used. I would like to ask you to critically look at this image and answer the questions below.



What is your opinion of the use of 'tickets' as opposed to the Dutch alternative 'kaarten' in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of 'tickets'. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

| Items | Tickets |
|------------------------|---------|
| Adds something | |
| Effective | |
| Sounds good | |
| Unnecessary | |
| It is easy | |
| Allows for variation | |
| Unprofessional | |
| Ineffective | |
| Does not sound good | |
| Professional | |
| Innovative | |
| Undesired language use | |
| Desired language use | |
| Hip | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| <input type="text"/> | |

Which of the two options would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

In the next picture you will see 'make-over' which was taken from the online BOL.COM folder. I would like to ask you to look at the picture below and answer the following questions.

Vier het voorjaar

Als er één seizoen is waar met smart op gewacht wordt, is het wel het voorjaar. Schud de winter van je af en vier uitbundig de komst van de lente. Ga enthousiast aan de slag in je tuin, geef je interieur een make-over en zoek de buitenlucht vaker op.

Kijk op bol.com/lente en laat je inspireren door al onze leuke lente-items zoals buitenspeelgoed en woon- & tuintrends.



What is your opinion towards the use of 'make-over' as opposed to the Dutch alternative 'opfrisbeurt' in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of 'make-over'. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

| Items | Make-over |
|------------------------|-----------|
| Unprofessional | |
| Does not sound good | |
| Unnecessary | |
| Hip | |
| Professional | |
| Adds something | |
| Effective | |
| Innovative | |
| Allows for variation | |
| It is easy | |
| Desired language use | |
| Ineffective | |
| Sounds good | |
| Undesired language use | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |

Other, such as

Which of the two options would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

The next picture was taken from the Dutch H&M website. In this advertisement, the word **'fashion'** is used. I would like to ask you to look at the picture below and answer the following questions.



What is your opinion towards the use of **'fashion'** as opposed to the Dutch alternative **'mode'** in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of **'fashion'**. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

| Items | Fashion |
|------------------------|---------|
| Unprofessional | |
| Does not sound good | |
| Desired language use | |
| Hip | |
| Professional | |
| Adds something | |
| Effective | |
| Undesired language use | |
| Ineffective | |
| Unnecessary | |
| Innovative | |
| It is easy | |
| Allows for variation | |
| Sounds good | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |
| Other, such as | |
| <input type="text"/> | |

Other, such as

Other, such as

Which of the two options would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

The next picture was taken from the Dutch Zalando website. In this advertisement, the word 'looks' is used. I would like to ask you to look at the picture below and answer the following questions.



What is your opinion towards the use of 'look' as opposed to the Dutch alternative 'uiterlijk' in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of 'look'. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

Items

Allows for variation

Unprofessional

Does not sound good

Unnecessary

Hip

Professional

Adds something

Effective

Innovative

It is easy

Desired language use

Ineffective

Sounds good

Undesired language use

Other, such as

Other, such as

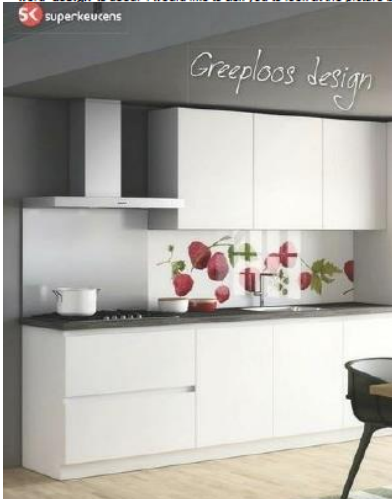
Other, such as

Look

Other, such as

Which of the two options would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

The next picture was taken from an online folder on the Superkeukens website. In this advertisement, the word 'design' is used. I would like to ask you to look at the picture below and answer the following questions.



What is your opinion towards the use of 'design' as opposed to the Dutch alternative 'ontwerp' in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of 'design'. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

| Items | Design |
|------------------------|--------|
| Allows for variation | |
| Unprofessional | |
| Does not sound good | |
| Unnecessary | |
| Hip | |
| Professional | |
| Adds something | |
| Effective | |
| Innovative | |
| It is easy | |
| Desired language use | |
| Ineffective | |
| Sounds good | |
| Undesired language use | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |

Which of the two options would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

In the next picture you will see 'comeback' which was taken from the online BOL.COM folder. I would like to ask you to look at the picture below and answer the following questions.

De voorjaarstrends in wonen

Ook je interieur smacht naar de lente. Geef je huis een frisse look met een van de nieuwe voorjaarstrends. Wat denk je van de comeback van goud & koper, de robuuste touch van de natuur of de serene sfeer van pure eenvoud? Op bol.com/woontrends vind je nog meer inspiratie.



Zuiver Retro '70
Hanglamp 40 cm
179,- **143,20**

What is your opinion towards the use of 'comeback' as opposed to the Dutch alternative 'terugkeer' in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of 'comeback'. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

| Items | Comeback |
|------------------------|----------|
| Allows for variation | |
| Unprofessional | |
| Does not sound good | |
| Unnecessary | |
| Hip | |
| Professional | |
| Adds something | |
| Effective | |
| Innovative | |
| It is easy | |
| Desired language use | |
| Ineffective | |
| Sounds good | |
| Undesired language use | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |

Which of the two options would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

The next picture was taken from the online folder of the V&D found on the V&D website. In this advertisement, the word 'shoppen' is used. I would like to ask you to look at the picture below and answer the following questions.



What is your opinion towards the use of 'shoppen' as opposed to the Dutch alternative 'winkelen' in this particular context? There are some variables (items) given that you can choose to drag to the box on the right if you feel these apply to the use of 'shoppen'. If you would like to use other variables please use the empty boxes at the bottom and drag these into the boxes as well.

| Items | Shoppen |
|-------------------------|---------|
| Unprofessional | |
| Adds something | |
| Innovative | |
| Ineffective | |
| Does not sound good | |
| Unnecessary | |
| Hip | |
| Professional | |
| Allows for variation | |
| Effective | |
| It is easy | |
| Desired language use | |
| Sounds good | |
| Undesired language use. | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |
| Other, such as | |

Which of the two options would you use in this particular context? Please motivate your answer.

You have just finished the second section. In the third -and final- section, a few statements will be given with regard to the English language and the words that you have discussed in the previous section. I would like to ask you to give an answer to the statements as well as a short but clear motivation as to why you feel that way.

1. It is important to be proficient in the English language. Please motivate your answer.

2. The use of English words in Dutch advertisements is unnecessary. Please motivate your answer.

3. In the second section you have given your opinion on the use of 10 English loanwords (shape / eyecatcher / singles / tickets / make-over/ fashion / looks / design / comeback / shoppen). Do you use these words in your own conversations or sentences as well? If yes, which one(s) and why? If no, why not?

Appendix B – Participant Summary Sheet

| NR | Gender | Age | Nationality | English proficiency | Dutch proficiency | Education | English Speech Groups |
|----|--------|-------|-------------|---------------------|-------------------|-----------|-----------------------------|
| 1 | M | 18-30 | Dutch | 7 | 9 | HBO-B | 4 |
| 2 | F | 31-50 | Dutch | 7 | 7 | MBO | 5, 4, 1 |
| 3 | M | 51+ | Dutch | 6 | 8 | UNI-B | 3,5 Internet companies |
| 4 | F | 18-30 | Dutch | 6 | 7 | MBO | 4, 5 |
| 5 | F | 18-30 | Dutch | 7 | 7 | MBO | 5, 4 |
| 6 | F | 31-50 | Dutch | 7 | 8 | MBO | Foreigners |
| 7 | F | 18-30 | Dutch | 4 | 9 | HBO-B | Vakantie In-laws 5 |
| 8 | F | 18-30 | Dutch | 8 | 8 | UNI-B | 6, 5, 3, 4 |
| 9 | F | 51+ | Dutch | 8 | 10 | UNI-M | 5, 4, 3 |
| 10 | F | 51+ | Dutch | 6 | 10 | HBO-B | Family |
| 11 | F | 31-50 | Dutch | 7 | 9 | MBO | Children 5, 4 |
| 12 | M | 18-30 | Dutch | 8 | 9 | VWO | 5, 3, 6 |
| 13 | F | 18-30 | Dutch | 7 | 10 | HBO-M | 3, 6 |
| 14 | F | 18-30 | Dutch | 7 | 8 | HBO-B | 5, 3 |
| 15 | F | 31-50 | Dutch | 6 | 8 | HBO-B | 3, 5 |
| 16 | F | 31-50 | Dutch | 8 | 10 | UNI-M | 1, 3, 4, 6, 5 |
| 17 | M | 18-30 | Dutch | 9 | 8 | HBO-B | 4, 5, 3 |
| 18 | M | 31-50 | Dutch | 6 | 7 | UNI-M | 4, 6, 3 |
| 19 | F | 31-50 | Dutch | 7 | 8 | HBO-M | 5, 3 |
| 20 | F | 18-30 | Dutch | 7 | 9 | HAVO | 5 |
| 21 | F | 18-30 | Dutch | 8 | 9 | UNI-B | 4, 6, 1, 3 |
| 22 | M | 51+ | Dutch | 7 | 8 | VWO | 6, 3 |
| 23 | M | 51+ | Dutch | 8 | 9 | HAVO | 5, 4 |
| 24 | M | 51+ | Dutch | 4 | 7 | HAVO | 4 |
| 25 | F | 51+ | Dutch | 8 | 9 | HAVO | 5, 4 |
| 26 | M | 51+ | Dutch | 4 | 5 | MBO | 5, 4 |
| 27 | F | 18-30 | Dutch | 7 | 9 | MBO | 4, 5, 3 |
| 28 | F | 18-30 | Dutch | 7 | 8 | HBO-B | Travelling, 4 |
| 29 | M | 51+ | Dutch | 5 | 8 | UNI-M | Third World Contacts |
| 30 | M | 31-50 | Dutch | 10 | 10 | MBO | 3, 4, 5 |
| 31 | M | 31-50 | Dutch | 10 | 8 | UNI-M | 6 |
| 32 | M | 18-30 | Dutch | 7 | 8 | HBO-B | 4, 3, 5 |
| 33 | M | 18-30 | Dutch | 5 | 7 | HAVO | 6, 5, 3 |
| 34 | M | 18-30 | Dutch | 8 | 7 | HAVO | 4, 3, 5 |
| 35 | M | 18-30 | Dutch | 10 | 9 | HAVO | 5, 6, 4, 3, 1, 2 |
| 36 | M | 31-50 | Dutch | 8 | 9 | MAVO | 4, 5 |
| 37 | M | 31-50 | Dutch | 8 | 9 | HBO-B | 3, School Contacts, 4, 6 |
| 38 | M | 51+ | Dutch | 6 | 8 | MAVO | 4 |
| 39 | M | 31-50 | Dutch | 7 | 10 | HBO-B | 5, 6, 4 |
| 40 | M | 18-30 | Dutch | 7 | 8 | MBO | 4, 5 |
| 41 | M | 51+ | Dutch | 7 | 9 | HBO-B | 6, 5, 4 |
| 42 | V | 31-50 | Dutch | 8 | 10 | HBO-B | Partner, 3, 1, 2, 5 |
| 43 | M | 31-50 | Dutch | 4 | 8 | HBO-M | Holiday, 6, 5 |
| 44 | M | 31-50 | Dutch | 6 | 9 | MBO | 1, 4 |
| 45 | M | 51+ | Dutch | 7 | 8 | UNI-B | 4, 6 |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|---|-------|---------|---|----|-------|-------------------|
| 46 | M | 18-30 | Dutch | 6 | 8 | HBO-B | 3, 1, 6, 5 |
| 47 | V | 51+ | Turkish | 2 | 6 | UNI-B | 4, 5, 3 |
| 48 | M | 51+ | Dutch | 7 | 10 | UNI-M | 4 |
| 49 | F | 31-50 | Dutch | 4 | 10 | MAVO | 5 |
| 50 | M | 18-50 | Dutch | 7 | 7 | HBO-B | 4, 5, 3 |
| 51 | F | 51+ | Dutch | 7 | 8 | VWO | Holiday, children |
| 52 | F | 31-50 | Dutch | 6 | 9 | HBO-B | 3, 5 |
| 53 | F | 51+ | Dutch | 7 | 9 | MAVO | 4 |
| 54 | F | 51+ | Dutch | 7 | 8 | HBO-B | Holiday |
| 55 | F | 31-50 | Dutch | 5 | 8 | HBO-B | 3, 5 |
| 56 | F | 51+ | Dutch | 8 | 8 | LEAO | 5 |
| 57 | F | 51+ | Dutch | 4 | 7 | MAVO | Holiday |
| 58 | F | 51+ | Dutch | 5 | 10 | HBO-B | 4, 5 |
| 59 | M | 31-50 | Dutch | 8 | 8 | UNI-M | 4, 5, 3, 1 |
| 60 | M | 31-50 | Dutch | 6 | 8 | MBO | 4, 5, 3 |

| |
|--|
| <u>Legend 'English speech groups'</u> |
| 1. Siblings |
| 2. Parents |
| 3. Friends |
| 4. Work Environment |
| 5. Social Media |
| 6. School Environment |

Appendix C – Summary Sheet Section 2

Respondent number:

| Closed | Open |
|--------------|--------------------------|
| 7 SHAPE | 8 SHAPE/VORM |
| 9 EYECATCHER | 10 EYECATCHER/BLIKVANGER |
| 11 SINGLES | 12 SINGLES/VRIJGEZELLEN |
| 13 TICKETS | 14 TICKETS/KAARTEN |
| 15 MAKE-OVER | 16 MAKE-OVER/OPFRISBEURT |
| 17 FASHION | 18 FASHION/MODE |
| 19 LOOKS | 20 LOOKS / UITERLIJK |
| 21 DESIGN | 22 DESIGN/ONTWERP |
| 23 COMEBACK | 24 COMEBACK/TERUGKEER |
| 25 SHOPPEN | 26 SHOPPEN/WINKELLEN |

27

28

29

Appendix D – Summary Sheet Loanwords Gender + Age

Loanword X

| MEN / WOMEN | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|--------------|----------------|-------------|---------------------|----------------------|----------------|-------------|----------------------|------------------------|------------|------------|-----|--|--|--|
| AGE | Effective | Ineffective | Professional | Unprofessional | Sounds good | Does not sound good | Allows for variation | Adds something | Unnecessary | Desired language use | Undesired language use | Innovative | It is easy | Hip | | | |
| <18 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18-30 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 31-50 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 51+ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Appendix E – Summary Sheet Loanwords Age

Loanword X

| AGE | Effective | Ineffective | Professional | Unprofessional | Sounds good | Does not sound good | Allows for variation | Adds something | Unnecessary | Desired language use | Undesired language use | Innovative | It is easy | Hip | | | |
|-------|-----------|-------------|--------------|----------------|-------------|---------------------|----------------------|----------------|-------------|----------------------|------------------------|------------|------------|-----|--|--|--|
| <18 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18-30 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 31-50 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 51+ | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Appendix F – Results Section 2 Participants’ Attitudes

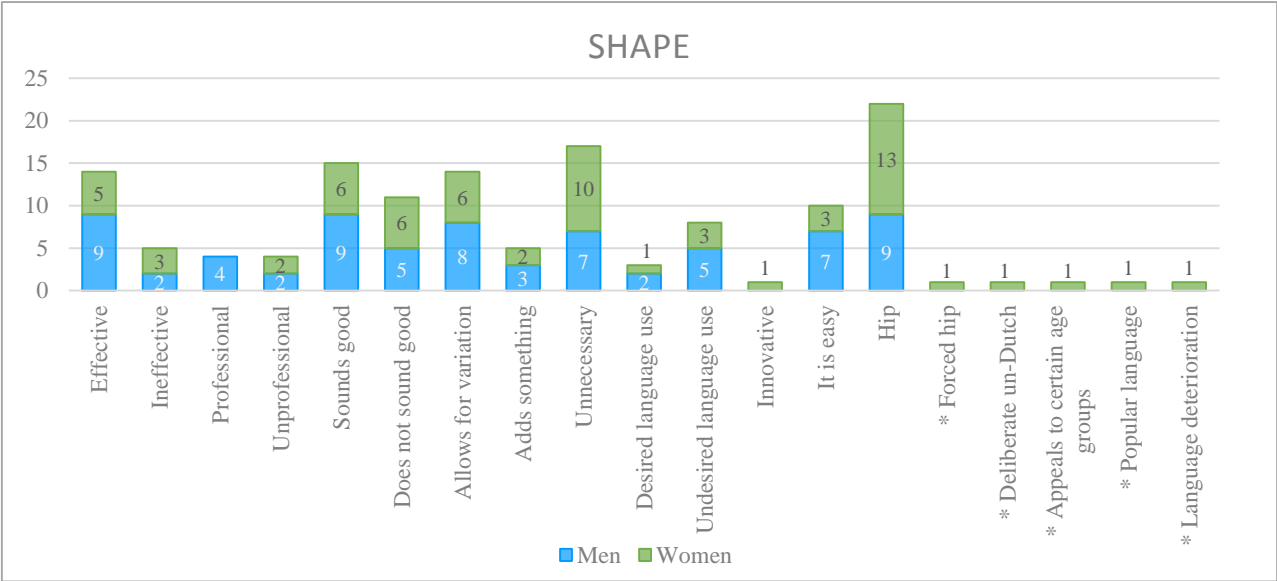


Figure 4.2: Hits divided by male and female attitudes towards the use of “shape”

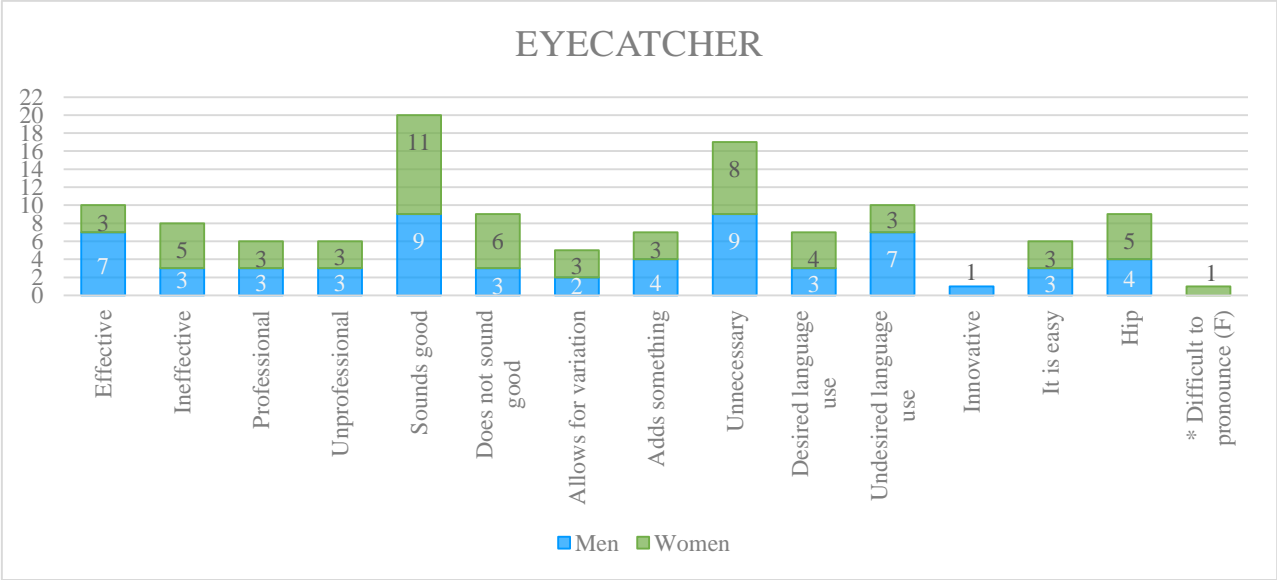


Figure 4.3: Hits divided by male and female attitudes towards the use of “eyecatcher”

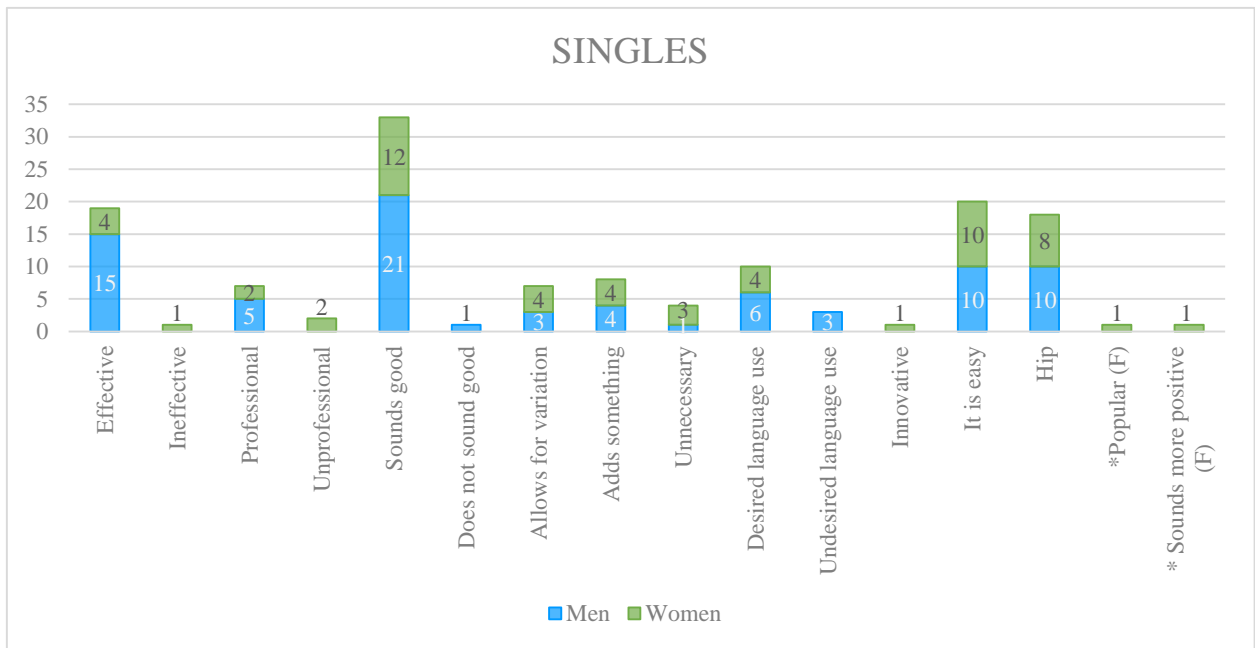


Figure 4.4: Hits divided by male and female attitudes towards the use of “singles”

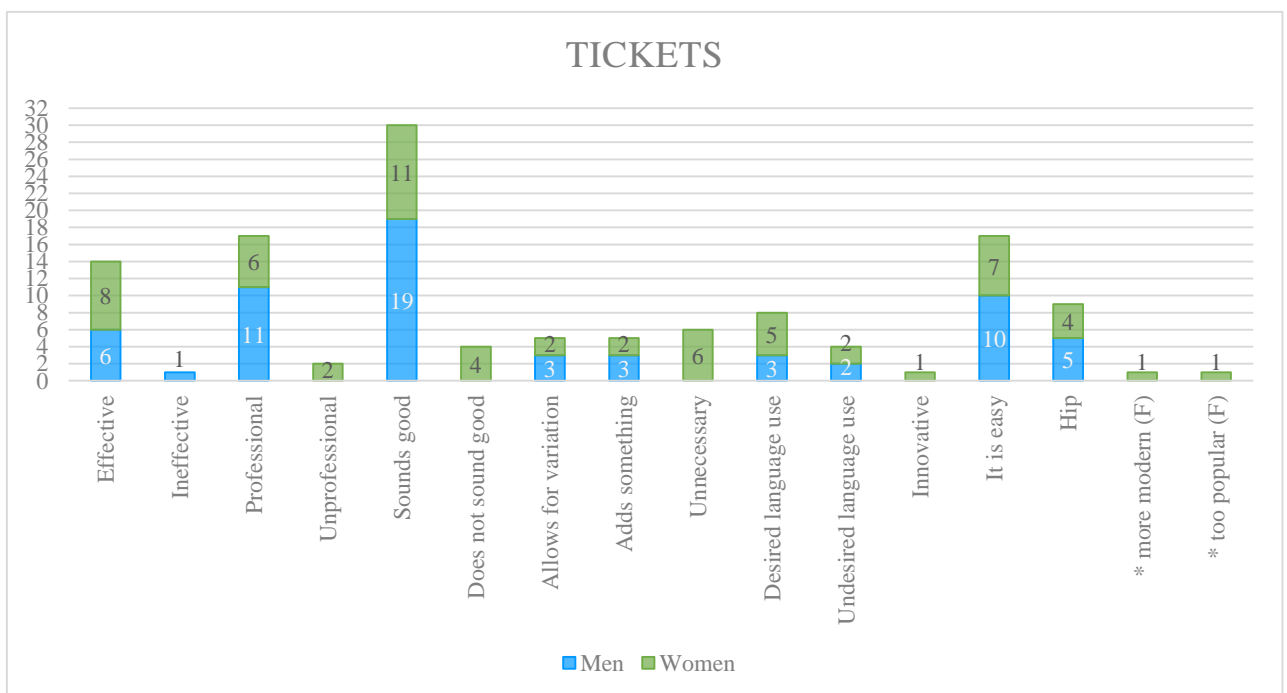


Figure 4.5: Hits divided by male and female attitudes towards the use of “tickets”

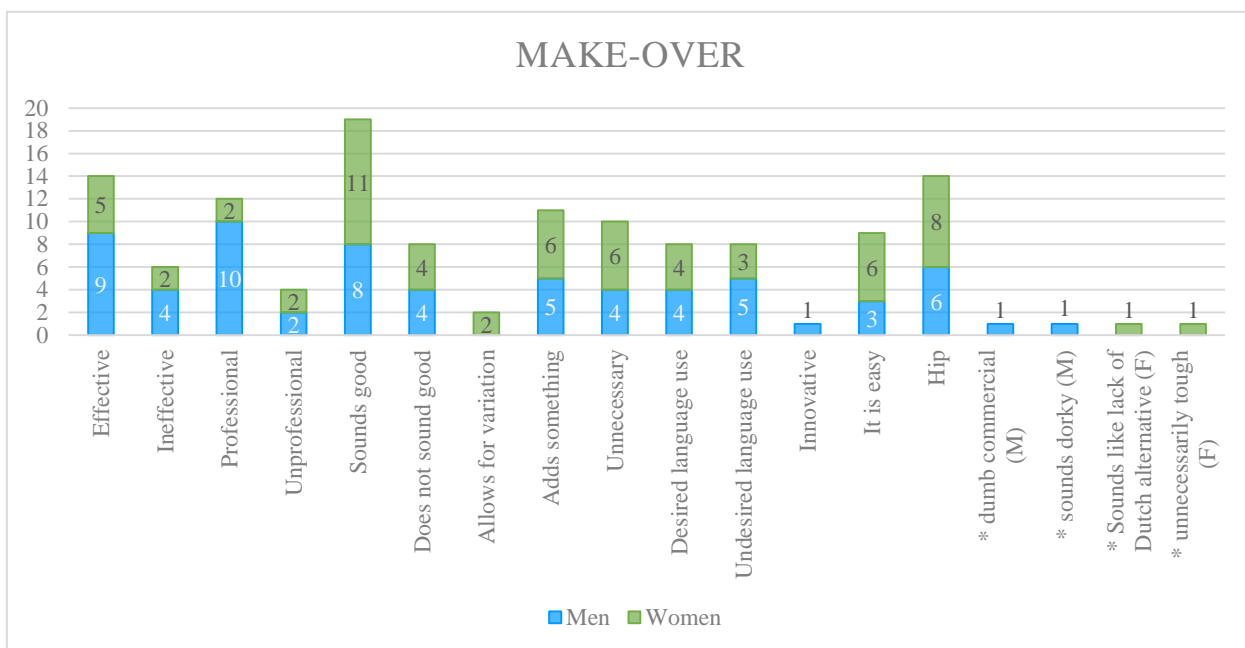


Figure 4.6: Hits divided by male and female attitudes towards the use of ‘‘make-over’’

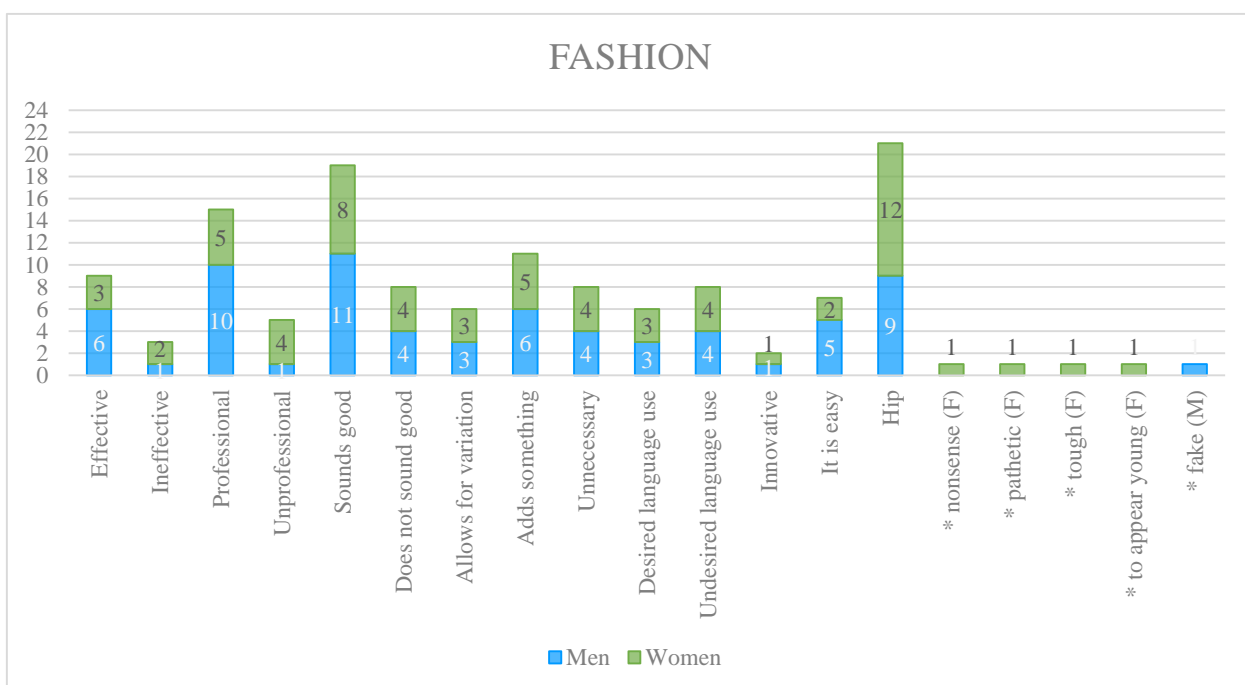


Figure 4.7: Hits divided by male and female attitudes towards the use of ‘‘fashion’’

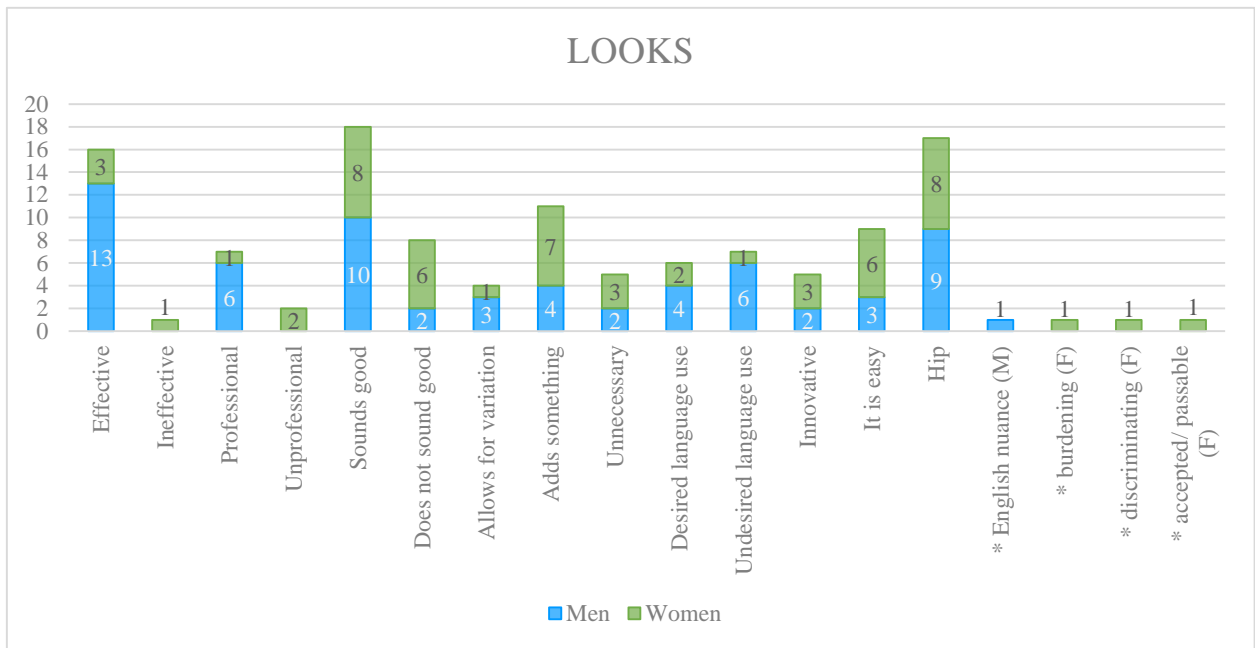


Figure 4.8: Hits divided by male and female attitudes towards the use of “looks”

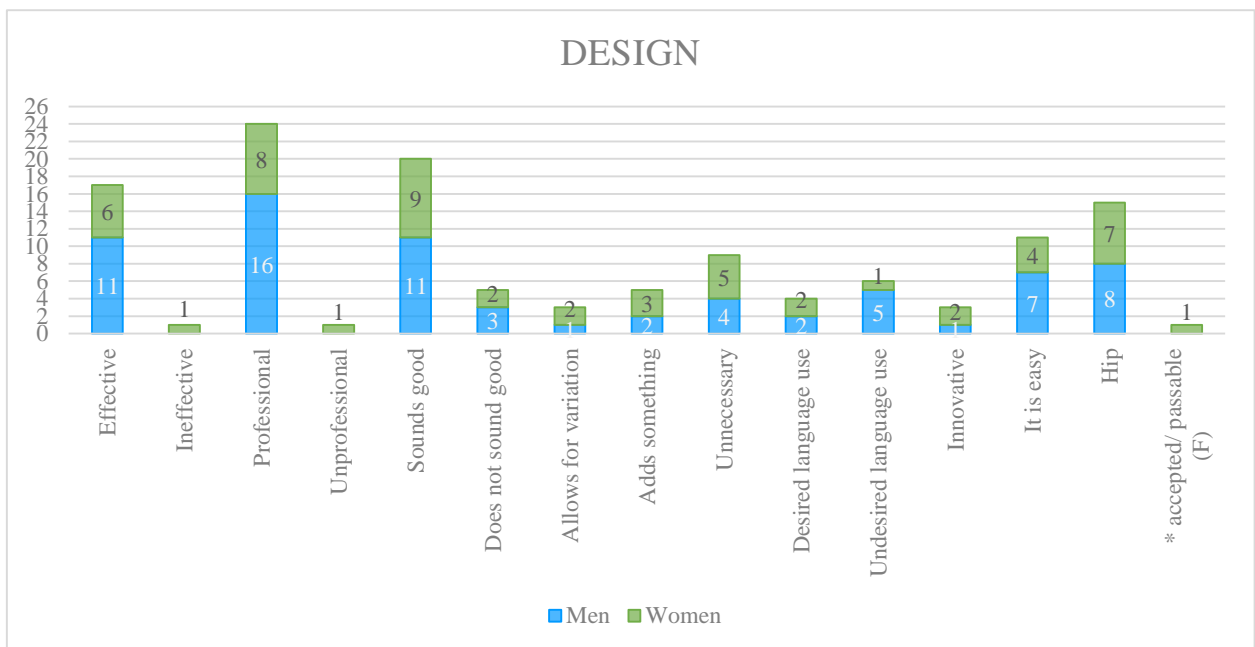


Figure 4.9: Hits divided by male and female attitudes towards the use of “design”

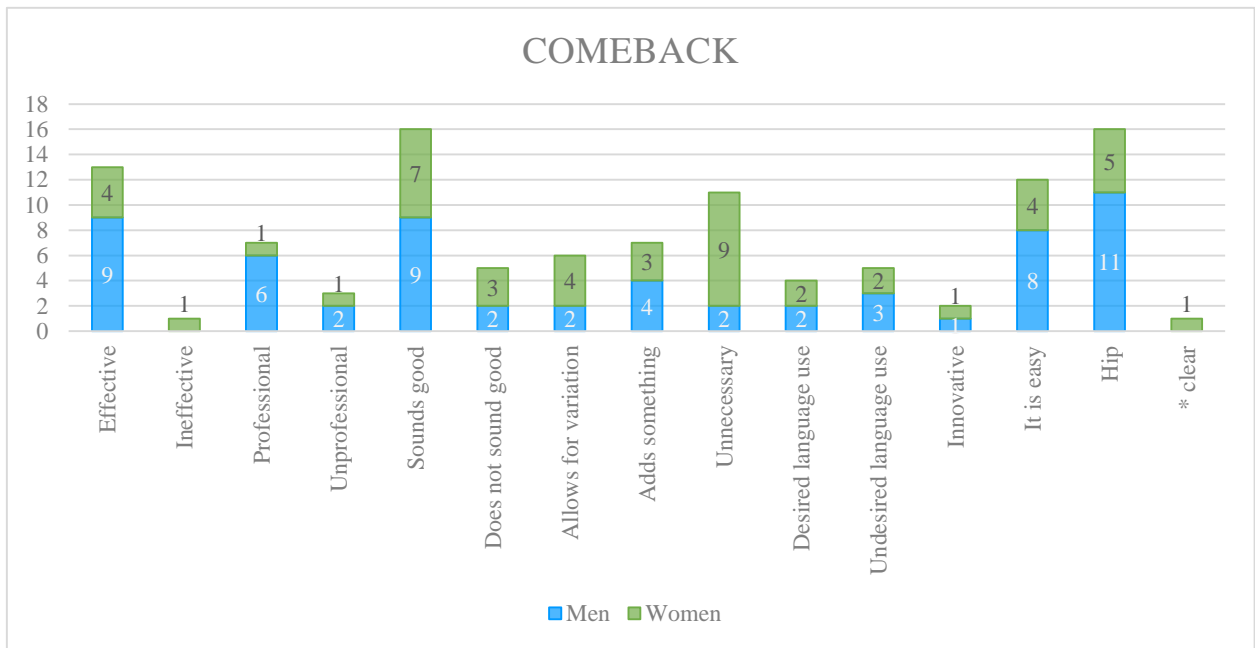


Figure 4.10: Hits divided by male and female attitudes towards the use of “comeback”

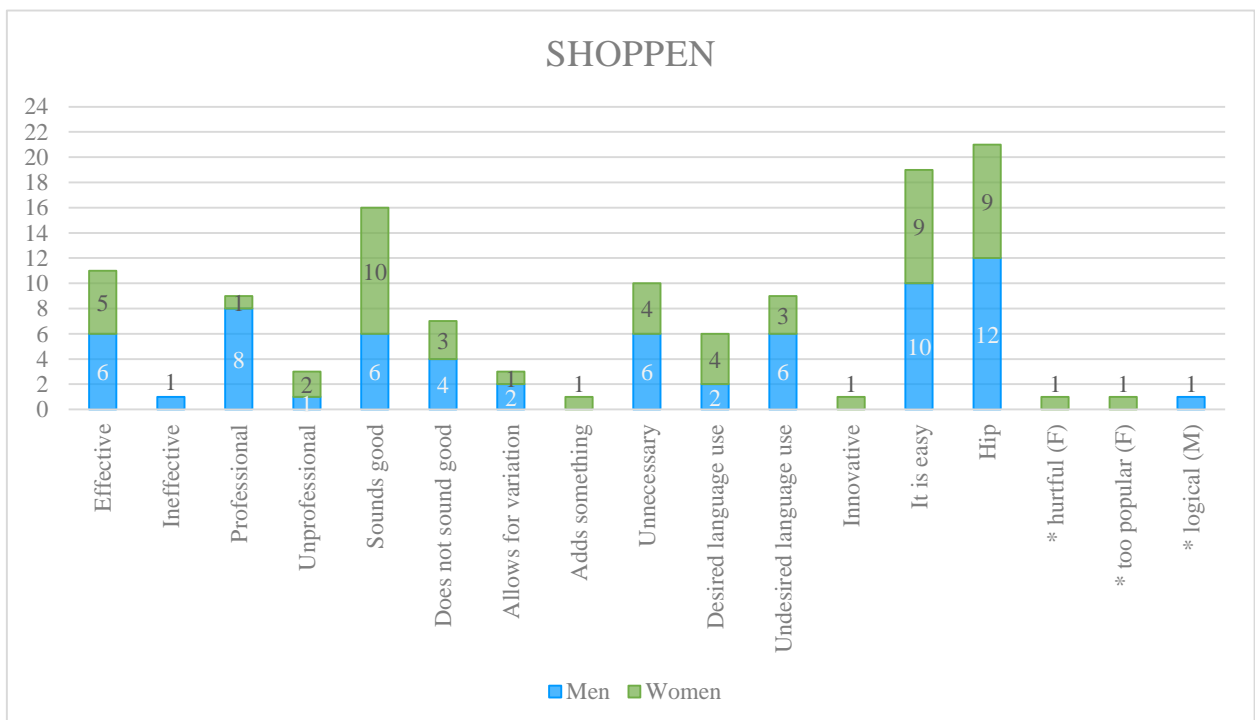


Figure 4.11: Hits divided by male and female attitudes towards the use of “shoppen”