

# Attitudes towards English Loanwords in Dutch News Broadcasts: The Influence of Gender and Age



## MA Thesis

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## Abbreviations

|      |   |
|------|---|
| EFL  | English as a Foreign Language   |
| ENL  | English as a Native Language  |
| ESL  | English as a Second Language  |
| NA   | Not Available   |
| N.D. | No Date   |
| NOS  | Nederlandse Omroep Stichting (or <i>Dutch Broadcasting Organisation</i> ) |
| NT   | Nederlandse Taalunie (or <i>Dutch Language Union</i> )                    |

# 1. Introduction

## 1.1 Overview

The English language has affected nearly every language community in the world. Dutch is no exception as many English words have been borrowed into Dutch such as *baby* and *lunch*. The influence of English has increased in the Netherlands since the Second World War and is still increasing due to global digitalisation and the *lingua franca* it entails: English. The people in the Netherlands generally have positive attitudes towards English. However, there are some people who have more negative attitudes towards English. For instance, there are quite a few movements that oppose the influence of English in the Netherlands (such as *Onze Taal* and *Stichting Nederlands*). Even though it is clear what the attitudes of these organisations and the Dutch in general are towards English loanwords, it is not clear whether there is a difference between Dutch men's and women's attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch. Moreover, it is not clear whether the attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch change with the age of language users

This thesis provides detailed information on the differences between Dutch men's and women's attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch. Additionally, this thesis also provides detailed information on the changes of the attitudes towards English loanwords based on the age of language users. In order to provide answers to research questions, relevant data will be acquired by means of a questionnaire with loanwords put in contexts as recorded in the NOS news broadcasts.

This thesis is organised into five chapters. Firstly, the thesis and its contents are introduced in chapter 1. Chapter 2 of the thesis provides the theoretical background related to English, English in the Netherlands, language attitudes, language purism and borrowing. This background forms the starting point of the research project and indicates where the research gaps lie. The reviewed literature culminates in research questions and hypotheses. Chapter 3 deals with the methodology that was used to obtain the results in this research and chapter 4 elaborates on the outcomes of the research. Chapter 5 discusses the results and contrasts the research questions with the reviewed literature and the hypotheses. A final conclusion completes this thesis at the end of chapter 5.

## 1.2 Theoretical Background

The work of Nicoline van der Sijs (1996; 2005; 2009; 2012) regarding loanwords in the Netherlands, including English loanwords, has been a key inspiration to this research. Her work shows that English loanwords are very present in Dutch, likely more present than most people in the Netherlands realise. As researchers such as Van Der Sijs (2005; 2012) and Smeets (2001) claim that Dutch is not yet endangered by the English influence, I wondered whether the Dutch

agree and what their attitudes are regarding loanwords. The research by Withagen and Boves (1991) shows that the attitudes of the Dutch towards English loanwords are generally positive, but it also shows that the participants' attitudes become more negative when their age increases. As Withagen and Boves' results are relatively outdated, that inspired me to carry out a similar type of research to find out whether the attitudes towards English loanwords still become more negative when the age of speakers increases.

The claim of Van Der Sijs (2005) and Gramley (2001) that English proficiency entails prestige in the Netherlands served as a catalyst when I found that Mesthrie, Swann, Deumert and Leap (2012) stated that women use more prestige forms than men. The combination of these claims made me question whether there is a difference between the attitudes of men and women regarding the use of English loanwords in the Netherlands. In order to extract loanwords to which a considerable audience is exposed, I decided to focus on the use of loanwords in Dutch news broadcasts or, more specifically, the NOS news broadcasts (as the NOS is the only standard non-commercial news broadcaster in the Netherlands).

Additionally, the dichotomy that distinguishes between catachrestic and non-catachrestic innovations, which is proposed by Onysko and Winter-Froemel (2011), was an important factor in the inspiration that led to this research as it also made me question why loanwords are used. Moreover, the meaning and pragmatic functions that loanwords carry may also affect someone's attitude towards them. Therefore Onysko and Winter-Froemel's dichotomy also represents an important part of this study.

In order to conduct research on the attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch news broadcasts, it was essential to thoroughly examine all of the relevant components: English, English in the Netherlands, attitudes (language attitudes in particular), language purism and borrowing (with special regard to loanwords) and finally: the NOS. These aspects are analysed in chapter 2. The NOS and the NOS news broadcasts are discussed in the methodology in chapter 3.

### **1.3 Research Variables**

As mentioned in the previous section, there are two variables that are the main point of attention in this research: *gender* and *age*. Gender refers to the "psychological, social and cultural differences between males and females" (Giddens, 1989, p. 158). It is as such different from *sex*, which refers to the biological difference between men and women. The second variable, *age*, refers to the according age of the participants in years. Both of these variables are linked (or contrasted) with the attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch.

Additionally, this research also comprises two other aims. This research looks into the classification of loanwords as catachrestic and non-catachrestic innovations, according to the answers given by the participants. Furthermore, the other aim concerns the participants' opinions

on why the loanwords are used. This component is incorporated into this research in order to provide a general insight into the reasons for the use of loanwords.

#### **1.4 Research Gaps**

Even though research has already been conducted on the general attitudes towards the English language in the Netherlands (Van Meurs, 2010; European Commission, 2006), to my knowledge, no research has so far focused on the differences between attitudes of males and females regarding the use of English loanwords in the Netherlands. This means that empirical research on this topic is relevant to provide evidence for general tendencies.

In addition, Withagen and Boves (1991) have conducted research regarding the attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch and found that the participants' attitudes become more negative when their age increases. The research by Withagen en Boves (1991) has a number of limitations. Most importantly, their research is rather outdated as, currently, it was conducted over twenty years ago. Additionally, it focused on general statements about loanwords, instead of contextualized utterances containing loanwords. This present research therefore fills the research gap by dealing exclusively with loanwords in their original context, as used in the speech of the NOS newsreaders.

Furthermore, Onysko and Winter-Froemel (2011) have proposed a dichotomy that distinguishes between catachrestic and non-catachrestic innovations, which can also be used to distinguish loanwords. Onysko and Winter-Froemel (2011) applied this dichotomy to English loanwords in German. The dichotomy that Onysko and Winter-Froemel (2011) propose is, currently, a highly innovative and unsupported concept. Therefore, it is not certain that Onysko and Winter-Froemel's (2011) dichotomy can be applied to distinguish English loanwords in Dutch. This present research fills the research gap by applying the catachrestic and non-catachrestic dichotomy to English loanwords in Dutch.

Additionally, Onysko and Winter-Froemel's (2011) and Haspelmath (2009)'s dichotomies of loanwords are applied to find out why the loanwords are used instead of Dutch equivalents.

#### **1.5 Research Questions**

The research gaps have lead to the realisation of the following four research questions:

1. Is there a difference between Dutch men's and women's attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch?
2. Do the attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch change with the age of language users?

3. Are the loanwords in this research catachrestic (cultural) or non-catachrestic (core) borrowings according to the participants?
4. Why are the English loanwords better alternatives to Dutch equivalents according to the participants?

### **1.6 Thesis Overview**

In short, this thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter 2 provides a literature review, which is concluded with a brief summary of the research gaps, the research questions and the hypotheses to the research questions in section 2.6. Subsequently, the methodology of this study is explained in chapter 3. The results of the research are presented in detail in chapter 4. A summary of the main findings and the discussion of the results are provided in chapter 5.



## 2. Literature Review

### Introduction

In this chapter the existing literature is reviewed. First, the status of English Worldwide and the models of English are examined in section 2.1. The details of English in the Netherlands are discussed in section 2.2. In the following section, language attitudes are examined. Closely related to language attitudes is language purism, which is elaborated on in section 2.4. Subsequently, borrowing is examined in section 2.5. Finally, the research gaps, research questions and the hypotheses to the research questions are stated in section 2.6.

### 2.1 English Worldwide

At the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century the English language is perceived as one of the most requisite and influential languages in the world. Mollin (2006, p. 21) claims that it is the English language that “gives access to a dominant culture and economic success”. That is not surprising as English is the lingua franca in domains such as science and technology, including academic papers and journals, the press, radio, television, the internet, advertising, films, music and, unequivocally, many more (Van Meurs, 2010, p. 36). More specifically, English is referred to as “the most important lingua franca on earth” (translated from Smeets, 2001, p. 20).

Despite the large number of domains in which English is used, the estimated number of native speakers of English is a rather modest “375 million”, which means that most English speakers are not native speakers of the language (Melchers & Shaw, 2011, p. 9). However, the significance of English cannot be determined by the number of native speakers as it is the only language with hypercentral status due to it being “used chiefly by non-native speakers across the globe for a variety of purposes” (Cook, 2008, p. 190). English has become so widespread that it “influences all language communities, even those in which it is not spoken natively and [in which it] holds no official status” (Mollin, 2006, p. 23).

The spread of English around the world is the result of the political, economic, technological, scientific and cultural powers of, particularly, Great Britain and the United States of America (Crystal, 2003, pp. 9, 120). The varieties of both nations differ to some extent in grammar, spelling and pronunciation (Trudgil & Hannah, 2008, p. 59). However, the “basic unity of English may be presupposed” (Gramley, 2001, p. 1). Additionally, there are vocabulary differences between these two varieties as “the growth of American English added words that enriched the lexicon from other sources” (Hoffer, 2005, p. 55). Therefore, despite the potential differences in vocabulary, grammar or spelling, English in this study is regarded as one language (and neither a British nor American variety).

### *Models of English*

Besides the English users in native speaker varieties mentioned in the previous paragraph, there are other types of English users that are relevant to this study. The large numbers of English users globally – and all their linguistic, social, cultural, economic and political differences – entail different types of varieties of English. The first model is English as a native language (ENL), where “people have English as their mother-tongue” as in the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia and Canada (Trudgill & Hannah, 2008, p. 4). These countries are also referred to as those in the “inner circle” in Kachru’s concentric circles model (Melchers & Shaw, 2011, p. 8). For this type of language users, English may be the only language in which they are proficient. The second type, which is equal to Kachru’s “outer circle” countries, is English as a second language (ESL), where English is used “widely in business and government [and] often officially recognised” (Melchers & Shaw, 2011, p. 8). Additionally, English is also “widely employed in the education system, in the newspapers, and in the media generally” (Trudgill & Hannah, 2008, p. 5). Examples of countries where English can be regarded as a second language are India, Pakistan and Singapore (Trudgill & Hannah, 2008, p. 4). The third and last type is English as a foreign language (EFL) as used in, for example, Poland, China and Brazil. English as a foreign language is equal to the “outer circle” in Kachru’s model (Melchers & Shaw, 2011, p. 8). In this model English is generally not spoken as a native language but used to “speak to foreigners” (Trudgill & Hannah, 2008, p. 5). Additionally, Gramley states that a foreign language holds “no official status” and is “often taught in school” (2001, pp. 113–114).

The distinction between these models can sometimes be vague because not all speakers use English for the same purpose. In other words, not all English users in a country can be considered to be equally proficient in speaking or writing in English. Therefore, it is important to analyse a specific situation in more detail, especially if one is required to describe what role English has in a country. Because this thesis focuses on the attitudes of speakers towards the use of English loanwords in the Netherlands, it is important to understand the nature of the language situation in the Netherlands, especially regarding English. Therefore, the following section provides a detailed analysis of the role of English in the Netherlands.

## **2.2 English in the Netherlands**

Before elaborating on the current role of English in the Netherlands, I will briefly illustrate the main historical circumstances which have led to the current situation. This is important because linguistic processes, such as borrowing, are not momentary and take many years to evolve.

### 2.2.1 Historical Overview

The relationship between the Netherlands and the English language is one with extensive history. According to Melvin Bragg (2004, p. 3), Frisian, a language spoken in a province in the north of

the Netherlands, is closest to “what became our ancestral language”, which eventually evolved in present day English. Moreover, it is reported that the oldest English loanwords in Dutch date back to the eighth century (Van Der Sijs, 1996, p. 314). This means that English and Dutch have been in contact for more than a thousand years.

However, the far-reaching history does not entail the constantly dominant English influence on Dutch in more recent centuries as the latter had intensive contact with other languages as well. In the Middle Ages “Latin was of major importance” as it was the donor language of many words that are still used in Dutch today (Ridder, 1995, p. 4). In fact, Dutch had already borrowed considerably from, chronologically, Latin, Spanish, French and German before English became an important donor language. It was not until halfway through the nineteenth century that English became “an important influence” by providing numerous loanwords (Ridder, 1995, p. 44). This happened due to the “leading role that Great Britain played in the domains of trade, industry, technology, literature and science” (Van Der Sijs, 1996, p. 303).

The liberation of the Netherlands during the Second World War created an environment which was even more open to the English influence as “the adoption of English words and phrases by speakers of Dutch really took off after the Second World War. English was the language of the liberators, the money providers and progress” (Ridder, 1995, p. 44). However, it is claimed by Van Der Sijs (1996, p. 303) that the source of the influence shifted from Great Britain to the United States of America.

As it has been exemplified that English and Dutch have been in contact for centuries and that the intensity of borrowing from English into Dutch has increased in the twentieth century, it is now important to examine the present role of English in the Netherlands, which is the focal point in the following section.

### 2.2.2 The Present Role of English

Whereas the previous section focused on historical occurrences, this section will examine the present role of English in the Netherlands.

According to the criteria stated in section 2.1, English is a foreign language in the Netherlands. Firstly, Dutch is the only “official and dominant” language in the Netherlands (translated from Smeets, 2001, p. 24), which means that English does not hold the same status. Secondly, English is generally not acquired as a native language but taught in Dutch primary and secondary education, which is explained in more detail in section 2.2.3.

However, there are linguists who believe that English is becoming more than a foreign language in the Netherlands. Booij claims that “English has a very dominant position as a foreign language, and is developing into a real second language” (2001, p. 346). Booij’s claim signifies that the role of Dutch is (or will be) deteriorating in favour of English, but further research is required to support his claim. From the perspective of legislation, it is not impossible for Dutch

to remain official because the Dutch language is not enshrined in the Dutch constitution as the set language and may potentially be replaced by, for instance, English (Smeets, 2001, p. 29).

Nevertheless, it is unlikely that the dominance of Dutch will subside in the near future because the current situation in the Netherlands is one of language maintenance. Language maintenance is defined as “the preservation by a speech community of its native language from generation to generation” (Winford, 2003, p. 11) and it as such applies to Dutch because “Dutch is, without any problems, [...] transferred from one generation to the other” (translated from Smeets, 2001, p. 20). It is relevant to recognise that the current situation is one of language maintenance because such language contact situations entail “influences on the lexicon” which is also referred to as borrowing (Winford, 2003, p. 12). The concept of borrowing, including borrowing in the Netherlands, is discussed ed in section 2.5.

Whereas Dutch is successfully transferred from one generation to another, English is generally not transferred from one generation to another in the Netherlands but taught in school. As Dutch education contributes extensively to English proficiency in the Netherlands, the role of Dutch education requires further analysis.

### 2.2.3 The Role of Education in English Proficiency

Firstly, English is found in many domains in the Netherlands. However, there is one domain in which English words are more than just common: education. Dutch education plays an important role in contributing to the high proficiency in English in the Netherlands. In fact, English is taught from primary education onwards to an overwhelming majority of Dutch students. Because education is likely to contribute extensively to English proficiency, it is relevant to examine different types of Dutch education and the exposure of students to English related to them.

#### *English in Primary Education*

In Dutch primary education English is one of the compulsory subjects (Rijksoverheid, 2014a). Although English lessons are compulsory, there are no regulations regarding the students’ minimum levels of English proficiency at the end of Dutch primary education. In their final year of primary education (known as *groep acht*), the students are subjected to the nationwide Cito test, which does not comprise any tasks that would test English proficiency (Rijksoverheid, 2014b). Whereas information on English as a part of primary education curricula is generally not explicit, there is extensive information on English in Dutch secondary education.

#### *English in Secondary Education*

It is clear that Dutch secondary education encourages proficiency in English. Research by Eurostat concluded in 1992 that Dutch secondary education comprised unique language curricula

because “within the European Union Dutch students learn the most foreign languages” (Ridder, 1995, p. 49). In fact, the number of secondary education students who learn more than two languages is the highest in Europe with an average of “2.2 percent” (Ridder, 1995, p. 49).

Not only were students in Dutch secondary education taught more languages in 1995, they also had the highest number of students who were taught English compared to most other European countries. In 1995 it was stated that “the percentage of Dutch secondary school students which takes English as a foreign language is the highest in the EU, 96 percent” (Ridder, 1995, p. 49). That number has undoubtedly risen because in 2002 English was “the only compulsory language for all types of secondary education” (Bonnet, 2004, p. 45). Additionally, in a number of schools English is integrated even more extensively. In fact, in the school year of 2009–2010, 99 secondary schools offered bilingual English-Dutch programmes (De Bot & Maijers, 2009, p. 139).

#### *English in Higher Education*

In higher education in the Netherlands English is also widely used. Gramley claims that “[i]n the academic world English has attained a certain pre-eminence” (2001, p. 216). He claims that this pre-eminence is due to the fact that “English gives Dutch graduates better opportunities in the international job market” (Gramley, 2001, p. 216). The pre-eminence of English in higher education is supported by Smeets, who states that postgraduate programmes in English are almost a standard in the Netherlands (2001, p. 36).

Due to the fact that students are taught English from primary education onwards, it is likely that Dutch education contributes to the general high levels of English proficiency in the Netherlands. In fact, “In 1990 the percentage of Dutch adults who speak English was 68%” (Ridder, 1995, p. 49). This percentage has risen considerably, to 87% in 2005 (European Commission, 2006, p. 13). However, education is not the only domain from which Dutch people are in contact with English. The following section elaborates on other domains in which the Dutch are in contact with English.

#### 2.2.4 Language Contact between English and Dutch

Firstly, foreign language proficiency, including English, is generally very high in the Netherlands. More specifically, it is stated that 91% of the Dutch claim to have acquired foreign languages well enough in order to be able to have a conversation in one foreign language and 75% in two foreign languages (European Commission, 2006, p. 9). It is not overtly stated whether that expectancy regarding multilingualism comprises solely Dutch and English proficiency or proficiency in other languages as well. However, the data in section 2.2.3 indicate that the majority of the Dutch speakers, or 87%, is proficient in English (European Commission, 2006, p. 9). As English proficiency is so high in the Netherlands, education alone cannot be fully

responsible for the levels of proficiency. In fact, the Dutch media comprise considerable quantities of English words.

The Dutch media are said to “reveal an extreme amount of English” (Gramley, 2001, p. 216). Firstly, the television is the means by which series, films and documentaries enter the homes of many Dutch people. Van Meurs states that “English series and films are broadcast with Dutch subtitles on Dutch television channels” (2010, p. 45). The result is that the more one watches television, the more one is exposed to English. It is claimed that, “[o]n average, Dutch TV watchers will get at least one hour of English every day” (Bonnet, 2004, p. 47). Moreover, besides television as a type of exposure to English, music, radio, computers and the internet are also “important types of contact” (Bonnet, 2004, p. 140). The importance of these types of contact is supported by Ridder, who states that “[t]he English language is generally associated with popular culture as it is conveyed by cinema film, television, popular radio presenters and pop music” (1995, p. 48).

In addition, it is claimed by Bonnet that the domain of advertising in the Netherlands “seems to be at the forefront of the spread of English” (2004, p. 47). There are indeed high numbers of Dutch advertisements that contain English words. For instance, 33% of advertisements on Dutch public television channels have been reported to be partly or completely in English (Gerritsen, Korzilius, Van Meurs & Gijbers, 2000, p. 19). In addition, 39% of the radio commercials broadcast by Radio 1 and Radio 3FM have been reported to contain English words (Smakman, Korzilius, Van Meurs & Van Neerven, 2009). Overall, the number of Dutch advertisements that contain English words range between 21 and 55 percent (Van Meurs, 2010, p. 46). Alternatively, the number of all-English advertisements is mostly no more than 10 percent (Van Meurs, 2010, p. 46). However, these figures do not specifically support the claim that advertising is at the forefront of the spread of English but they do indicate that English is quite common in Dutch advertisements and may indeed contribute to the advancement of English.

However, the constant presence of English words in Dutch may not necessarily be received with much enthusiasm. In order to understand how English is received in the Netherlands, one needs to examine the concept of language attitudes comprises first.

### **2.3 Language Attitudes**

This section will first explain the concept of language attitudes and the corresponding determinants of language attitudes and then examine the attitudes towards English in the Netherlands.

### 2.3.1 Defining the Concept

The complexity of *language attitudes* as a concept is exemplified by the ongoing debate on what the concept actually comprises as the definitions are “surrounded by semantic disagreements and differences about the generality and specificity of term” (Baker, 1995, p. 11). Among others, Ajzen proposes the definition of *attitude* as “a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event” (1988, p. 4, as cited in Baker, p. 11). The problem with Ajzen’s definition is that it does not explicitly state the presence of a range between *favourable* and *unfavourable* (or *positive* and *negative*). Ultimately, there are concepts that one likes or dislikes more than others, which cannot be accounted for in terms of either favourable or unfavourable alone. Another definition, which does accredit a range between favourable and unfavourable, is that attitudes “locate objects of thought on dimensions of judgement” (McGuire, 1985, as cited in Baker, 1995, p. 11). This definition is more appropriate for matters that cannot simply be marked favourable or unfavourable. Even though variations to these definitions exist, it is not relevant to this research to elaborate on any additional definition because these two provide an adequate description of the concept for the purpose of this research.

Despite the relative ambiguity on how accurately the general concept of *attitudes* is defined, the concept of language attitudes is defined more easily. Broadly, one’s attitude towards language in general, a specific language or features of languages are referred to as *language attitude*. In language research, language attitude is an important variable as it “play[s] a role in both the reception and the production of language” (Garrett, 2010, p. 21). More specifically, language attitude can be considered a “cycle of influence between social cognition and language variation” (Garett, 2010, p. 22). Therefore, language attitudes can influence what people say, how they say it and how they perceive other people’s language. Because attitudes, and especially language attitudes, are so influential it is important to elaborate on the three components that attitudes comprise.

Attitudes (including language attitudes) comprise the following three components: cognition, affect and behaviour. It must be noted that the latter is occasionally also referred to as “readiness for action” or the conative component (Baker, 1995, p. 13). Firstly, attitudes comprise a cognitive component as they entail “beliefs about the world, and the relationships between objects of social significance” (Garett, 2010, p. 23). For instance, the cognitive component could be exemplified by the desire for the maintenance of the Frisian language if one has a positive attitude towards the Frisian language. Another example may be that native Dutch speakers might consider a person uneducated if that person does not speak or understand English. Secondly, attitudes comprise an affective component as they involve “feelings about the attitude object” (Garett, 2010, p. 23). The affective component may be rather personal and even “irrational” (Baker, 1995, p. 12). Therefore, a person’s attitude is generally determined by an “assessment of intensity” ranging from favourable to unfavourable (Garett, 2010, p. 23). This assessment of

intensity directly relates to McGuire's dimension of judgement, as described in the first paragraph of this section. For instance, the affective component may be exemplified by the negative feelings one has towards the English language due to unpleasant experiences during English lessons (even though one has a positive attitude towards languages in general). This example also exemplifies the potential disagreement between the affective and the cognitive component, which are in this example, respectively, negative and positive. Thirdly, attitudes comprise a behavioural component as they concern "the predisposition to act in certain ways and perhaps in ways that are consistent with our cognitive and affective judgements" (Garett, 2010, p. 23). In addition to the example given in this paragraph, the behavioural component may influence that person's choice to avoid types of education or professions which require English proficiency (which relates to the affective component). On the other hand, that person may also choose such a type of education or profession, despite his or her negative attitude towards English, because that eventually leads to better job prospects (which relates to the cognitive component).

Now that the components which make up language attitudes have been presented, the following section will elaborate on the determinants of language attitudes.

### 2.3.2 Determinants of Language Attitudes

It is important to note again that language attitudes are highly personal and often, if not always, irrational. This means that there is much potential variation among the language attitudes of various participants but, more importantly, a single participant's language attitude is open to variation as well. The reason for this variation is that the determinants of language attitudes change constantly. There are six determinants of language attitude: gender, age, school, ability, language background and cultural background (Baker, 1995, pp. 41–46). Because the determinants *gender* and *age* are discussed in detail in sections 2.3.3 and 2.3.4, only the remaining four determinants will be elaborated on in this section.

#### *School*

Firstly, the school or schools one attends are important factors to language attitude because they present "the educational context in which language attitudes develop and change" (Baker, 1995, p. 43). A specific, albeit negative, example is given in section 2.3.1. It should be noted that the circumstances in schools often depend on personal perspective and experience and may not be stable. Moreover, bilingual schools may positively influence language attitudes.

#### *Ability*

The determinant *ability* refers to "the higher the [...] ability in a language, the more favourable the attitude" (Baker, 1995, p. 44). From this perspective, it can be deduced that the opposite is also possible: the lower the achievement, the less positive the attitude.



### *Language Background*

The third determinant, *language background*, relates to the socio-cultural context in which one is situated. One's language attitude is influenced by "the language usage of family and friends, community and youth culture, mass media and identification models, peer groups and pop culture" (Baker, 1995, p. 44).

### *Cultural Background*

Lastly, the fourth determinant that influences language attitudes is *cultural background*. Although there is no evidence that would display general tendencies, specific cases are known where cultural background influences language attitudes, such as in the case of Wales. More precisely, it is suggested that "being involved in an active participatory Welsh culture was important if attitude to Welsh was to remain favourable" (Baker, 1995, p. 45).

To conclude, the remaining two determinants, *gender* and *age*, are also known to exert important influence on one's language attitude and are therefore further discussed in the following two sections as the main two variables employed in this research.

#### 2.3.3 Gender

Before elaborating on how gender influences one's language use, it is important to briefly note the differences between sex and gender. Sex is the "biological" difference between men and women (Romaine, 2000, p. 104). Alternatively, gender refers to "the psychological, social and cultural differences between males and females" (Giddens, 1989, p. 158). Moreover, sex is not a very relevant variable for linguistic research because "[v]ery few biological differences between males and females have an effect on language" (Chambers, 2009, p. 118). An example of a biological difference between men and women is the pitch of one's voice as "men have lower-pitched speaking voices than women" (Romaine, 2000, p. 105). Because of the few linguistic differences that are a consequence of sex, the focus of this thesis is on gender rather than sex.

When it comes to language production, there are numerous examples of differences between males and females. For instance, there is much evidence for phonological differences between the speech of males and females, such as in the pronunciation of the /ŋ/ and /a/ sounds (Chambers, 2009, pp. 120–125; Mesthrie, Swann, Deumert & Leap, 2012, p. 222). Even though there are many more differences between males and females regarding pronunciation, pronunciation alone is not relevant in this context because the topic of this thesis primarily concerns language attitudes. Therefore, the focus needs to be on matters that are related to language attitudes, such as the perception of language.

In fact, there is evidence that females are better language users in comparison to males. It is stated that there is "a long record of evidence of female verbal superiority" (Chambers, 2009, p. 146). This proposition entails female advantages in "fluency, speaking, sentence complexity, analogy, listening comprehension of written material and of spoken material, vocabulary, and

spelling” (Chamber, 2009, p. 146). Even though female participants attain better scores for each of these tests, male participants are not far behind because the females’ advantage is “only slight” (Chambers, 2009, p. 146). This is relevant to the aim of this study because the proposition of female verbal superiority is exemplified by the way in which women use prestige forms. Females “tend to use more prestige or high-status language features” and males more vernacular language features (Mesthrie et al., 2012, p. 218). Therefore, there are differences in the language preferences between males and females, and possibly in their attitudes regarding the use of prestige language features. As section 2.3.5 notes that English conveys prestige in the Netherlands, Dutch females may have more positive attitudes towards English language features compared to Dutch males.

Moreover, there are reasons to believe that males interpret language differently compared to women. There is a general assumption that females over-report their use of prestige language forms whereas males under-report their use of such forms (Mesthrie et al., 2012, p. 220). In other words: women claim they use high-status forms when they do not, whereas men claim they use vernacular forms when they actually use more prestige forms.

When it comes to language perception, little is known about the gender-based differences between perceptions regarding the use of loanwords. In fact, there is a research gap related to the differences between males and females in the production and perception of loanword use. Because females tend to both outperform males in verbal abilities and use more prestige features, there is reason to believe that females have more positive attitudes towards loanwords. However, further research is required to support this claim.

#### 2.3.4 Age

As mentioned in section 2.3.2, language attitudes are not stable and are open to variation. This variation is not entirely unsystematic because there are general tendencies recorded in the changes of language attitudes. More specifically, it is assumed that “attitudes to language tend to change with age” (Baker, 1995, p. 106). These age-related changes in language attitudes do not occur at specific preset moments. However, there are three stages in one’s life that induce language change: childhood, adolescence and adulthood. The linguistic processes during these stages are elaborated on in the following paragraphs.

##### *Childhood*

Firstly, childhood is the stage in which children acquire their first language or languages. Even though children are intensely exposed to their parents’ speech in the first years of their lives, when they become older, they “speak more like their peers than like their elders” (Chambers, 2009, p. 170). However, this does not imply that children oppose their parents’ speech but rather that influence from peers increases when children become older.

### *Adolescence*

Unlike language attitudes during childhood, there are changes in language attitude when children reach the stage of adolescence. Eckert notes that “fast change and construction of style – including linguistic style – becomes a crucial part of activity” (Eckert, 1998, p. 112). The change in linguistic style includes the “focus of development of the social use of the vernacular” (Eckert, 1998, p. 112). The social use of the vernacular is exemplified by the common “use of a distinctive vocabulary called slang” (Chambers, 2009, p. 183). This development may be the result of the “purposeful divergence from adult norms” (Chambers, 2009, p. 184). The behaviour of the adolescents signifies that their language attitudes tend to be relatively negative towards traditional language use, which means that linguistic innovations, such as loanwords, are more easily embraced. Therefore, it can be expected that adolescents generally have more positive attitudes towards loanword use. This is in accordance with the, albeit relatively dated, findings of Withagen and Boves (1991) who found that older participants were more negative towards English loanwords, as mentioned in section 2.3.5.

### *Adulthood*

While adolescence shows much room for variation, the “early adult years are a period of relative stability” (Chambers, 2009, p. 189). This stability is exemplified by the speech of young adults. It is stated that “once the features of the sociolect are established in the speech of young adults, under normal circumstances those features remain relatively stable for the rest of their lives” (Chambers, 2009, p. 197). According to this proposition, there should be little variation between younger and older adults with similar backgrounds. Moreover, it is reasonable to assume that their attitudes towards their own sociolects remain equally stable.

However, since adolescents diverge from adult norms, the metaphorical gap between adolescents and adults widens as the adults become older. Adults find the increasingly younger adolescents diverge more and more from their conventional language use, which can lead to negative attitudes towards adolescent language use. It is therefore not surprising that “increasing age correlates with increasing conservatism in speech” (Eckert, 1998, p. 106). This means that the older one becomes, the more negative one’s attitude can become towards linguistic innovations, such as loanwords.

Now that it has been examined what *attitudes* and *language attitudes* comprise and entail, the next section will elaborate on the attitudes to the English language in the Netherlands.

#### 2.3.5 Attitudes towards English in the Netherlands

It has been established in previous sections that English is quite common in a number of domains and that English proficiency is generally high in the Netherlands. However, it has not

yet been examined what the attitudes to English are like in the Netherlands, which is relevant to this research.

In fact, it is claimed that the “Dutch attitudes to English are generally favourable” (Van Meurs, 2010, p. 37). This claim is supported by the 94 percent of the Dutch respondents who indicated that English was “the most useful foreign language to know for their personal development and career” (European Commission, 2006, p. 32). English may be the most useful foreign language as English is “primarily attached to modernity and globalisation” (Zenner, Speelman & Geeraerts, 2013, p. 1024). As stated in section 2.1, English is the lingua franca in domains such as science and technology, including academic papers and journals, the press, radio, television, the internet, advertising, films, music and more (Van Meurs, 2010, p. 36). Therefore, anyone in the Netherlands who is involved in these domains is, at least to some degree, exposed to the English language. Likewise, acquiring English proficiency could give one easier access to these domains because successful communication potentially increases.

Moreover, English proficiency entails prestige in the Netherlands. This is supported by Gramley who states that “the use of English confers status” in the Netherlands (2001, p. 216). The link between English and prestige is also supported by Van Der Sijs, who notes that in the Netherlands “English has taken over the position of prestige language from French” (2005, p. 322).

Even though the general attitudes to English are positive and English proficiency entails prestige, it is relevant to the aim of this thesis to examine the attitudes towards English loanwords in more detail. Language proficiency is important in regard to attitudes to loanwords because language proficiency influences one’s language attitude. This is supported by Hassall, Murtisari, Donnelly and Wood (2008, p. 61) who state that “[a] factor likely to affect attitudes to [...] loanwords is amount of knowledge of them. Those with a good knowledge might feel better about such words than do those with poorer knowledge”. They support their claim by exemplifying previous research which suggested that “Japanese who were highly educated – and thus likely to know many English loanwords – were more tolerant and accepting of English loanwords than other respondents” (Hassall et al., 2008, p. 61). This means that the high levels of English proficiency in the Netherlands (the data in sections 2.2.3 and 2.2.4 show that the majority of the Dutch population, or 87%, is proficient in English) may entail positive attitudes towards English loanwords, as is also suggested in section 2.3.2. It is not evident to what extent proficiency influences one’s attitude towards loanwords; this means that it cannot be argued that positive language attitudes are the direct result of high proficiency levels.

Whereas it is stated that attitudes towards English are generally positive in the Netherlands, previous research also suggests that not all attitudes are positive. In 1990, Withagen and Boves presented 30 statements to 61 Dutch subjects and asked the participants whether they agreed with each of those statements or not. Their survey included propositions such as “the

Dutch use more English words than necessary or desirable”, “with English words I can express what I mean more accurately” and “the use of English words sounds exaggerated” (translated from Withagen and Boves, 1991, p. 6). Withagen and Boves’ research resulted in a number of conclusions. The younger age group (of 20 to 30 years) was relatively positive towards the use of English in Dutch. However, the researchers also found that the older age group (older than fifty) preferred “pure language use”, which entailed a degree of resistance towards Anglicisms (Withagen and Boves, 1991, p. 6). Withagen and Boves claimed it was because the elderly “can also excellently express their thoughts and feelings without Anglicisms” (1991, p. 6).

It must be noted that their research comprised general propositions and no specific utterances containing Anglicisms in a Dutch context. It is not unlikely that the participants would have been more positive towards the use of Anglicisms if they had been given utterances in a Dutch context because Onysko and Winter-Froemel (2011) suggest that Anglicisms convey pragmatic functions as well, but these specific pragmatic functions are not accounted for in general statements. The pragmatic functions of loanwords are dealt with in section 2.5.4.

However, it must also be noted that Withagen and Boves’ conclusions are potentially less reliable as it has been, currently, over 23 years since their research was published and the data can change considerably in such a period of time. In fact, as the number of English speakers rose from 68% to 87% in a period of just ten years (as the data in section 2.2.3 suggest), it is not unlikely that attitudes have changed as well.

Apart from Withagen and Boves, there are more linguists who report negative attitudes towards English in the Netherlands. It is claimed by Ridder that for some people, due to the “sharp increase in the influx of English words and phrases in the 70s and 80s [the] attitude gradually turned into the fear that English would completely replace the native language” (1995, p. 48). However, it is unlikely that this attitude is widely shared in the Netherlands because the data in this section suggest otherwise.

To conclude, the people in the Netherlands mainly hold positive attitudes towards English (Van Meurs, 2010, p. 37). There is strong reason to believe that the high level of proficiency contributes significantly to the general positive attitude towards English. However, there also are negative attitudes towards English and it is therefore important to analyse these as well. In fact, the negative attitudes are exemplified by the number of movements that oppose foreign language influence, which are concerned with language purism. Therefore, both language purism and these movements need to be discussed as the degree of purism influences one’s attitude towards foreign words (including loanwords).

## **2.4 Language Purism**

Language purism (or *purism*) does not simply fit into the typology of components or determinants of language attitudes because it may be absent among the majority of people. Even though

purism is not a component or determinant of language attitudes, it can influence one's language attitude, so it has to be addressed in this thesis. There are various forms of purism and various perspectives on purism that need to be discussed.

Lexical purism is the type of purism that is relevant to this study. Lexical purism is defined as the "resistance against 'foreign' words in favour of local or national neologisms" (Vikør, 2010, p. 9). In fact, lexical purism entails a preference for native words. This preference for native words can be exemplified by a Dutch person who prefers the use of native Dutch word *leidinggevende* instead of the English loanword *manager*, even though both words have similar denotation and connotation (Koops, Slop, Uljé, Vermeij & Zijdeveld, 2009, p. 32). Even though this example comprises an English word, a German, French or Swedish word could have been used as well as a specific aversion against English, French or other languages is not implied.

However, there is a type of purism that accounts for aversion against general foreign language features or specific language features. *General purism* entails resistance against all "foreign words" (Vikør, 2010, p. 10). For instance, in the Netherlands that would imply resistance against words from English, German, French and other languages. The alternative form is specific purism, which "targets influences from particular languages" (Vikør, 2010, p. 10). An example of specific purism would entail the resistance against words from solely English, German or French. Specific purism is relevant because this research specifically focuses on words that are derived from English. If a person has a specific purist and negative attitude to English, that person's attitude towards the use of English words is almost surely negative.

Because a possibly high number of purist participants could influence the results of research, the possible presence of general purist tendencies in the Netherlands needs to be examined. Booij considers purism not to be significant among the Dutch people as he states that "the non-puristic attitude of speakers of Dutch makes it easier to acquire the vocabulary of the second language, English" (Booij, 2001, p. 5). The notion of the general non-purist attitude is supported by Haspelmath, who explains that "unless there are significant purist attitudes among the (influential) speakers, new concepts adopted from another culture are the more likely to be expressed by loanwords, the more widely the donor language is known" (2009, p. 48). From this perspective, it is reasonable to assume that purism as such is not considerably represented in the Netherlands. However, it is not entirely clear what Haspelmath means by referring to *influential speakers*. There is no evidence of any influential individuals in the Netherlands who would openly express purist language attitudes, although Van Der Sijs does note that from the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century onwards more people feel that more action needs to be taken against English-American influence on Dutch (2005, p. 321). Unfortunately, Van Der Sijs does not name any figures that would purism in the Netherlands; however, there is a number of organisations (both civil and governmental) which are deal with purism that deserve to be mentioned.

### *Civil Movements*

Even though the general attitude towards foreign languages is non-puristic in the Netherlands, it should be noted that there are some organisations which oppose the use of foreign language features in Dutch. Ridder mentions the Dutch organisation *Onze Taal*, which has published a number of articles and books which propagate that English is a “threat” to Dutch (Ridder, 1995, p. 48). Moreover, Van Meurs notes that there are “organisations which oppose the use of unnecessary English words in Dutch, such as the *Ampzing Genootschap* and *Stichting Nederlands*” (Van Meurs, 2010, p. 54). The latter has gained recognition as it published the *Woordenlijst Onnodig English (or Wordlist Superfluous English)*, written by Koops et al. (2009). The wordlist proposes (and favours) Dutch alternatives to common English words in the Netherlands and is also used in this research to give insight into the categories of the loanwords that are mentioned in chapter 3. Additionally, there are also *Stichting Taalverdediging* and *Bond Tegen Leenwoorden*, both propagating the use of Dutch words over English words, including loanwords. Unfortunately, there is no information on the number of readers or subscribers to any of these organisations so it is not known how many people they are able to reach on regular basis and neither how influential they are. Therefore, to refer back to Haspelmath’s *influential speakers*, it is not evident whether the mentioned organisations should be considered influential (even more so because the general attitudes towards English in the Netherlands remain positive nevertheless).

### *Governmental Language Policies*

Despite the efforts of civil movements, there are also governmental institutions that focus on Dutch and foreign languages. In 1980 the *Nederlandse Taalunie* (NT) (the Dutch Language Union) was established (Nederlandse Taalunie, 2014a). The NT states that its members “[give] the Dutch language a firm foundation and provide the language users with necessary markers” (Nederlandse Taalunie, 2014b). This implies that they encourage speakers and learners of Dutch to use Dutch accurately rather than forcing them to do so. Therefore, the NT adheres to a descriptive rather than a prescriptive policy, which is exemplified by its policy on loanwords. In fact, the NT is very liberal in its view on lexical innovations, including loanwords. The NT states that its members do not decide which words are official, accepted or prohibited because words constantly enter a language or disappear from it, regardless of the efforts of the language union (Nederlandse Taalunie, 2014c). This signifies that loanwords, from whatever donor language they are borrowed, are not prohibited or replaced by Dutch governmental policies.

While some civil organisations attempt to hinder loanwords from being successfully borrowed into Dutch (and governmental policies explicitly do not), it is not yet clear whether the fear of an English word influx is justifiable or not. Therefore, I will elaborate on the concept of borrowing in general and examine how English words have been borrowed into Dutch.

## 2.5 Borrowing

It is stated in section 2.2.1 that the number of English loanwords in Dutch has been increasing since the Second World War. Before examining to what extent English loanwords have been borrowed into Dutch, the concept of borrowing will be presented and what borrowing processes comprise will be analysed.

### 2.5.1 Defining the Concept

There are two general processes that result in new words entering a language. The first is word formation, which “employ[s] means internal to the language itself” (Gramley, 2001, p. 89). This process is internal as it makes use of a language's own material and it does not require contact with other languages. Types of word formation processes include blending, derivation, affixation and clipping (Gramley, 2001, pp. 93–94).

The second process that leads new words to enter a certain language is borrowing. The process of borrowing is defined as “the incorporation of foreign features into a group’s native language by speakers of that language” (Thomason & Kaufman, 1988, p. 37). The language that borrows a language feature is referred to as the “recipient language” (Winford, 2003, p. 12). Alternatively, the language which provides a language feature is the “source language” (or donor language) (Winford, 2003, p. 12). Ironically, the process is misguidedly called borrowing because it implies that a feature is returned to the donor language later on, which is generally not the case.

What is more, Thomason and Kaufman intentionally used the term *features* as opposed to *words*. The reason why *features* is more appropriate than *words* is because borrowing is not necessarily limited to words, but can extend beyond those.

### 2.5.2 Types of Borrowing

There are different types of language features that can be borrowed and based on what is borrowed there are two general types of borrowing: structural borrowing and lexical (or material) borrowing.

#### *Structural Borrowing*

Structural borrowing stands for “the copying of syntactic, morphological or semantic patterns” (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 39). There is more than one type of structural borrowing. Firstly, a calque (or loan translation) is the type that is “a complex lexical unit (either a single word or a fixed phrasal expression) that was created by an item-by-item translation of the (complex) source unit” (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 39). An example of a calque is the Dutch word *wolken-kraabber*, which is a word-for-word translation of the English word *sky-scraeper*. A second type of structural borrowing is loan meaning extension (or a semantic loan). Loan meaning extension is “an extremely common (and often unnoticed) process whereby a polysemy pattern of a donor language word is



copied into the recipient language” (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 39). An example of loan meaning extension is the Dutch word *muus*. Where English first only referred to *mouse* as a small rodent, it is now used to refer to a computer appliance (Mouse, n.d.). The semantic pattern of *mouse* has been borrowed into Dutch where it now too denotes both a small rodent and a computer appliance.

Instances of structural borrowing are generally not as salient as lexical borrowings are. Structural borrowings are often hard to detect for both linguists and non-linguists. In Dutch, a large number of lexical borrowings from English has been recorded and it is therefore important to examine lexical borrowing in more detail.

### *Lexical Borrowing*

Where structural borrowing refers to the process of copying syntactic, morphological or semantic patterns, lexical borrowing (or material borrowing) refers to the “borrowing of sound-meaning pairs” (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 38). According to Haspelmath, the most important type of lexical borrowing is pure loanwords (2009, p. 39). Among many others, one example of a pure loanword that has been borrowed into Dutch is the word *baby*, which denotes a very young child (Baby, n.d.). Even though a near semantic equivalent already existed in Dutch (*zuigeling*), *baby* was borrowed from English. The effect of this borrowing process (replacement) is examined in more detail in section 2.5.4.

Besides structural and lexical borrowing, another form of borrowing can occur. In some cases lexical items consist of “partly borrowed material and partly native material” (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 39). These types of borrowings are referred to as loanblends. An example of a loanblend is the Dutch word *racefiets*. The initial element (*race*) is an English word combined with the Dutch word for bicycle: *fiets* (Race, n.d.). The word *racefiets* denotes a type of bicycle intended for racing.

It is important to note that not all words that appear to comprise foreign language features are necessarily loanwords. There are two requirements a word must meet before it is possible to classify it as a loanword; a word can “only be recognised with certainty as a loanword if both a plausible source word and donor language can be identified” (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 44).

The donor language of a loanword may be found more easily if that particular loanword comprises characteristic features of a certain language, such as the <-ally> inflection of English. Additionally, the speakers of the donor language may recognise a loanword as a loanword more easily if that word comprises characteristic foreign language features. However, these features may not always be transferred to the donor language without being changed.

### 2.5.3 Borrowing-Induced Changes

There are a number of processes that may occur when a loanword is borrowed from a donor language. Firstly, if loanwords are “not adapted to the recipient language’s system [and] are

typically recognizable as loanwords” they are referred to as *foreignisms* (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 43). Most English loanwords in Dutch are foreignisms because “most English loanwords retain the English spelling and pronunciation in Dutch” (Van Der Sijs, 2009, p. 353). An example of a foreignism is the Dutch verb *chillen* (Chillen, n.d.). *Chillen* has retained both the traditional <ch> in spelling and /tʃ/ in pronunciation, which are both unconventional in Dutch.

However, loanwords may also undergo changes in form. The sources of these changes lie in the differences in pronunciation and spelling conventions of both languages. The words have to “fit into the system of the recipient language” so the speakers nativise “the borrowing by integrating it more firmly into the linguistic structure of the borrowing language” (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 42; Hock, 2009, p. 247). These changes may not always be subtle because the form of a loanword “may vary all the way from an imitation satisfactory to a native speaker to one that the native speaker would not recognise at all” (Haugen, 1950, p. 212). Even though this statement implies a range of possible changes, a distinction can be made in terms of the extent of change. If the speakers of the recipient language reproduce the borrowed word adequately, the pattern (or form) of the word has undergone “importation” (or *integration*) (Haugen, 1950, p. 212). This is exemplified by the conservation of the pronunciation of pre-vocalic r in the English loanword *relax* as the alveolar approximant /ɹ/, which is generally unconventional in standard Dutch. Similarly, if the speakers of the recipient language reproduce the borrowed words differently, it means that the speakers have replaced the pattern with “a similar pattern from [their] own language”, also referred to as substitution (or *adaptation*) (Haugen, 1950, p. 212). This is exemplified by the pronunciation of the pre-vocalic r in the same example (*relax*) as the voiced alveolar trill /r/, which is conventional in Dutch but is also used in the Netherlands.

However, it is important to note that nativisation does not only occur in pronunciation. In fact, nativisation “frequently takes place through spelling” (Hock, 2009, p. 249). It is important to note that nativisation through spelling can still involve pronunciation. An example is the English word *kangaroo*, which has been borrowed into Dutch as *kangoeroe* (Kangoeroe, n.d. 1). The final syllable <-roo> has been nativised into <-roe> because <oo> typically corresponds with /o/ in Dutch (rather than /ru/). However, the change of the second syllable from <-ga-> to <-goe-> is not explained in the same way because the second syllable is typically pronounced as /xə/ (Kangoeroe, n.d. 2).

The previous paragraphs exemplified that some loanwords may be more easily recognised as loanwords than others. This is important to account for because a language user with purist tendencies may have a positive attitude to a particular loanword if he does not recognise it as a loanword. Alternatively, a language user may have a negative attitude towards a loanword mainly because he recognises it is a loanword (based on whether it is borrowed from a specific language or not). Additionally, some loanwords that comprise noticeable foreign

language features are more obtrusive than others, which could potentially give way to more negative attitudes.

However, as the forms of many donor language words are in contrast with the spelling and pronunciation conventions of the target languages, it has not yet been discussed which types of loanwords words are borrowed more easily than others. In fact, the borrowing-induced changes are only an effect of borrowing processes but do not account for the reasons why certain words are borrowed more easily than others, even when the differences regarding spelling and pronunciation may be similar. The answer lies in the relative *need* for a word to fill a gap in the vocabulary of the target language. Therefore, it is important to take into account what the main reasons are for borrowing.

#### 2.5.4 Reasons for Borrowing

It is rather problematic to provide a definite typology of reasons why words are borrowed from languages and whether they are necessary or not. The issue lies in the matter of the multi-interpretability of the reasons for borrowing, which is exemplified by the number of different distinctions made by a number of linguists. Therefore, it is more relevant to look at the similarities and differences of various explanations and their main advantages and disadvantages, rather than state which explanation is the most comprehensive.

##### *Cultural and Core Borrowing*

Cultural borrowings designate “a new concept coming from outside” (Myers-Scotton, 2002, as cited in Haspelmath, 2009, p. 46). It is easily explained why cultural borrowing occurs: there is a new concept which has no other referent so a non-native word is used. The process of cultural borrowing results in “insertion” as the loanword is inserted into the vocabulary of the recipient language (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 49). An example of a cultural borrowing is *computer*, which has been borrowed into Dutch from English after the 1950s (Computer, n.d.). When the concept of a computer was invented and introduced, the word itself was borrowed along and is now part of Dutch vocabulary.

Core borrowing refers to loanwords “which duplicate meanings for which a native word already exists” (Myers-Scotton, 2002, p. 41, as cited in Haspelmath, 2009, p. 46). A cause for the use of core borrowings is more complex than that of cultural borrowings. In general, concerning instances of core borrowing, “speakers adopt such new words in order to be associated with the prestige of the donor language” (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 48). The process of core borrowing results in either replacement or coexistence. Replacement signifies that “the word may replace an earlier word with the same meaning that falls out of use, or changes its meaning” (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 49). Alternatively, coexistence signifies that “the word may coexist with a native word with the same meaning” (Haspelmath, 2009, p. 49). An example of a core borrowing is English *manager*,

which has been borrowed into Dutch. The term was borrowed even though native equivalents already existed in the forms of *bestuurder*, *bebeerder* and *leider* (Manager, n.d.).

#### *Necessary and Luxury Borrowing*

Another typology of borrowing is the dichotomy of necessary borrowings and luxury borrowings. Although Onysko and Winter-Froemel (2011) deconstruct this dichotomy, it is relevant to discuss it briefly. Onysko and Winter-Froemel refer to necessary borrowings as “borrowings of new concepts together with their original terms”, which is similar to the previously mentioned cultural borrowing (2011, p. 1551). Luxury borrowings refer to words that are borrowed even though the recipient language “already contains a word that can be considered a semantic equivalent” (Onysko & Winter-Froemel, 2011, p. 1551). The latter is similar to core borrowing. However, Onysko and Winter-Froemel suggest that both typologies are not comprehensive enough as they do not account for the pragmatic functions of borrowings. Instead, they propose their own typology in the form of catachrestic and non-catachrestic innovations.

#### *Catachrestic and Non-Catachrestic Innovations*

Onysko and Winter-Froemel classify loanwords as catachrestic and non-catachrestic innovations. In their view, catachrestic innovations are (new) words that are “[not] already expressed by another lexical unit in the language” (Onysko & Winter-Froemel, 2011, p. 1554). Alternatively, non-catachrestic innovations refer to new words that “already [have] existing alternative expressions” in the recipient language (Onysko & Winter-Froemel, 2011, p. 1554).

At first glance, the catachrestic/non-catachrestic dichotomy is not very different compared to the other dichotomies. However, Onysko and Winter-Froemel’s theory also comprises an important pragmatic aspect; they suggest that conventionalised catachrestic innovations, which have no semantic equivalents, “convey I-implicatures” (Onysko & Winter-Froemel, 2011, p. 1555). I-implicatures broadly imply that “[w]hat is said in a simple (unmarked) way represents a stereotypical situation” (Carston, 2004, p. 182). This is exemplified by the use of *hungry* in the utterance ‘I am hungry’. The word *hungry* is used in an unmarked way and represents a stereotypical situation: one would like something to eat. The term as such is unmarked as there is no other way for one to say *hungry*. The term as such is unmarked as there is no other way for one to say *hungry*. Alternatively, non-catachrestic innovations, which do have semantic equivalents, “convey M-implicatures” (Onysko & Winter-Froemel, 2011, p. 1555). M-implicatures imply that “[w]hat is said in an abnormal (marked) way represents an abnormal situation” (Carston, 2004, p. 182). This generally means that non-catachrestic innovations “can convey some additional meaning which is absent from the corresponding unmarked forms” (Onysko & Winter-Froemel, 2011, p. 1555). This is exemplified by the use of *wreck* in the

example 'I will pick you up in my wreck'. The word *wreck* is used in an abnormal or marked way and represents an abnormal situation: one's means of transportation is in exceptionally bad state.

However, the typology of catachrestic and non-catachrestic innovations is, currently, a highly innovative and unsupported concept. Even though this typology appears to be comprehensive, further analysis is required to ensure that it is in fact reliable.

Now that general borrowing processes have been examined, I will move on to elaborate more specifically on English loanwords in the Netherlands.

### 2.5.5 English Loanwords in Dutch

Although it is claimed by Ridder (1995) that the adoption of English loanwords and phrases took off after the Second World War and that English is claimed to be an important influence, it is not evident that this influence has led to an overwhelming invasion of English words in Dutch. In fact, the present number of English loanwords in Dutch is not considerably higher than the numbers of loanwords from both German and Romance languages (including Latin and French). The number of English loanwords in Dutch is presently reported to be between 1.5 and 2.3 percent (Van Der Sijs, 2012, p. 133; Van Der Sijs, 2005, p. 95). The number of German loanwords is estimated at 2.1 percent, yet Romance loanwords are more abundant at 25.2 percent (Van Der Sijs, 2005, 95). The semantic fields which contain most English loanwords are reported to be *Animals, Agriculture and Vegetation* and *Modern World*; they contain, respectively, 3.3, 3.8 and 13.8 percent of English loanwords (Van Der Sijs, 2009, p. 352).

It is possible that the number of English loanwords in Dutch is increasing. The number of English loanwords in Dutch dictionaries has increased in the past and that number may still increase. On the one hand, the increase of English loanwords is reasonable because the *Van Dale Groot Leenwoordenboek* notes an increase in the growth coefficients from 0.16 percent between 1898 and 1924, to 0.75 percent between 1971 and 1976 and to 2.95 percent between 1977 and 1984 (Van Der Sijs, 2005, p. 321). Because these growth coefficients only concern the English loanwords that have been included in dictionaries, the numbers of English loanwords in colloquial Dutch may be even higher. On the other hand, Van Der Sijs indicates that the increase in growth coefficients may also be due to the less restrictive admission policies of dictionaries (2005, p. 96). Therefore, it cannot be claimed with certainty that the number of English loanwords is increasing.

However, the percentage of English loanwords alone does not reveal how loanwords are distributed in Dutch. The distribution of loanwords is important because it shows which types of loanwords are more borrowed than others and such a borrowing hierarchy could exemplify the status of English in the Netherlands. Unfortunately, little research has yet been done specifically on the word-class distribution of English loanwords in Dutch.

However, nouns account for most English borrowings in Dutch. This is reasonable because when looking at Haugen's borrowability scale, one sees that it is nouns that are on top of the borrowing hierarchy and that, respectively, verbs and adjectives follow nouns, which signifies the borrowing hierarchy *nouns-verbs-adjectives* (Haugen, 1950, p. 224). The dominance of nouns is supported by Appel and Muysken, who indicate that nouns are responsible for most of the borrowings in other languages as well. They exemplify that English nouns represent most of the borrowings in their research on Hindi, followed by adjectives and verbs, which signifies the borrowing hierarchy *nouns-adjectives-verbs* (Appel & Muysken, 2005, p. 171). In addition, the same hierarchy is reported for Spanish borrowings in Quechua: *nouns-adjectives-verbs* (Appel & Muysken, 2005, p. 171). Although these borrowing hierarchies indicate that there may be variance in the borrowing hierarchy between adjectives and verbs, they also indicate that nouns are predominantly responsible for most borrowings.

These hierarchies are in accordance with the general distribution of loanwords in Dutch. The most important word class, which comprises 77.9 percent of all the loanwords in Dutch, is that of nouns (Van Der Sijs, 2005, p.57). The two subsequent word classes are adjectives and verbs, which are, respectively, responsible for 10.7 and 8.8 percent of all loanwords in Dutch. These three classes combined represent 97.4 percent of all loanwords in Dutch. As the previously stated hierarchies all suggest a relatively similar borrowing order, this hierarchy can be applied to English in Dutch.

Moreover, Van Der Sijs (2005) reports data on the distribution of types of borrowings in Dutch, but it only deals with borrowings in general and does not provide information on English borrowings specifically. As far as borrowings in general are concerned, it is reported that 87 percent, i.e. the vast majority, of borrowings are pure loanwords (Van Der Sijs, 2005, p. 57). The remainder comprises 9 percent loan translations (or calques) and 4 percent semantic loans (Van Der Sijs, 2005, p. 57). Because these data do not account for English borrowings specifically, it can only be assumed that English borrowings reflect the same tendency (i.e. that most borrowings are pure loanwords). Additional research is required to provide evidence for this claim.

## 2.6 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The reviewed literature has provided sufficient support for the formulation of research questions and hypotheses. Research questions of this research project are as follows:

1. Is there a difference between Dutch men's and women's attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch?
2. Do the attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch change with the age of language users?
3. Are the loanwords in this research catachrestic (cultural) or non-catachrestic (core) borrowings according to the participants?
4. Why are the English loanwords better alternatives to Dutch equivalents according to the participants?

Regardless of the absence of data on the differences between men and women regarding attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch, there are theories of a more general nature to base a hypothesis on in terms of what results are expected. In fact, Mesthrie et al. (2012) state that females tend to use more prestige or high-status language features. Van Der Sijs (2005) and Gramley (2001) both state that English is the prestige language in the Netherlands. Therefore, it is expected that Dutch female participants will have more positive attitudes towards English loanwords than male participants.

Secondly, Baker (1995) claims that attitudes to language tend to change with age. It is expected that the attitudes become more negative when the participants' age increases, which is also what the research of Withagen and Boves (1991) showed - their participants' attitudes became more negative when their age increased. According to Eckert (1998), increasing age correlates with increasing conservatism in speech.

Additionally, the loanwords that are used in this research are discussed in detail in section 3.1.2. Therefore, it is not logical to elaborate on the expectations regarding the classification of the loanwords as catachrestic or non-catachrestic or the reason why the English loanwords are better alternatives to Dutch equivalents.

## 3. Methodology

### Introduction

This chapter will focus on the methodology that was used to obtain the results required for one to answer the research questions. First, the used material will be elaborated on, with regard to the NOS news broadcasts and the identification and processing of the loanwords in section 3.1. Subsequently, the procedure will be examined, mainly focusing on the questionnaire in section 3.2. The distribution and demographics of the participants are dealt with in section 3.3

### 3.1 Material

In order to do research on the attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch news broadcasts, one needs to have a credible and reliable source that provides English loanwords. The following sections elaborate on the motivation to use the NOS news broadcasts as the corpus this research is based on.

#### 3.1.1 Corpus

Among the number of news broadcasts on Dutch television, the NOS (*Nederlandse Omroep Stichting* or *Dutch Broadcasting Organisation*) was the best source to provide English loanwords. Essentially, the NOS belongs to governmental, public broadcasting and has the responsibility to “provide independent and reliable news and report major (sport) events” (translated from NOS, n.d.). This implies that the NOS does not have a commercial interest and therefore does not generally commit to obtaining more viewers by adhering to popular trends or adapting their language.

However, the NOS news broadcasts still reach many Dutch citizens. It is reported that the daily NOS news broadcast at 8pm reaches 1,810,000 people on average (NOS, 2013a), which is equivalent to a 29.5 percent market share. In other words, the NOS news broadcasts alone reach a third of the news-broadcast viewers, which signifies around ten percent of the total Dutch population.

Furthermore, The NOS has several relevant policies regarding their language use. On their general language use they report that the NOS uses “allegaagse, vlotte spreektaal” or everyday colloquial language (Appendix A). More specifically, the NOS acknowledges that the number of English words is increasing in spoken Dutch and states that they do not mind using foreign words that are common and convey their meaning perfectly (NOS, 2013b).

The editor-in-chief and chairman of the language commission of the NOS, whose name suitably is Peter Taal (*taal* is Dutch for *language*), wrote that there is no policy for the use of English loanwords (Appendix B). He also stated that unambiguous communication is of paramount importance and therefore the NOS adheres to the principle: do not exaggerate in the



use of English words and preferably use Dutch words instead (Appendix B). These policies signify that the NOS provided representative Dutch language and therefore represented a reliable source to provide loanwords.

However, there are important differences in the media that are used to convey the NOS reports. Firstly, the radio broadcasts are not suitable as a source for loanwords because they are not available in the archives of the NOS as full-length news broadcasts. Instead, the NOS provides separate reports with interviews and other forms of spontaneous or non-scripted speech. The possibility exists that a selection is made in which certain, less desirable, reports are omitted. Additionally, the written articles on the website of the NOS are not suitable either. Peter Taal explains that more English words can be used in written articles because readers have more time to process the words and potentially look words up in a dictionary (Appendix B). This means that online articles may comprise an unrepresentatively high number of loanwords and are therefore not reliable enough. Moreover, they generally do not provide the names of authors

The residual medium to provide loanwords is *television news broadcasts*. These broadcasts are more reliable because the news texts are written by the newsreaders and revised by the editor-in-chief and director before they are read out (Appendix B). Therefore, a conscious decision is made to include or exclude certain words, in order to retain everyday, colloquial language. Additionally, all television news broadcasts are readily available in the news archive on the website of the NOS and easily accessible.

The loanwords which are used in this research were recorded in several television news broadcasts by the NOS. In order to prevent single-sidedness, the decision was made to use broadcasts at two different broadcast timeslots: at 12pm and at 8pm. This resulted in 24 news broadcasts which were aired from the 6<sup>th</sup> of March until the 18<sup>th</sup> of March 2014. Furthermore, it was ensured that the news broadcasts were presented by different newsreaders, nine in total. Table 1 shows the five newsreaders that uttered the loanwords used in this research.

### 3.1.2 Loanword Identification and Analysis

Unfortunately, the NOS does not provide transcripts of all of their news broadcasts. This means that careful listening was required in order to identify the English loanwords used in the selected news broadcasts.

Before providing an overview of the loanwords that were used in this research, it is important to present the criteria that the loanword selection was based on. Firstly, only words were used that were uttered by the newsreaders of the NOS. This decision was made because the employees are subject to the language policies of the NOS and outsiders presumably not. This resulted in the omission of several words, including *target*, *claim* and *buffer*. Secondly, another criterion was that the used words were not allowed to be written with a capital letter, i.e. names and certain eponyms (the written articles on the website of the NOS were used as a reference). In

addition, the decision was made to exclude names and eponyms because they may not be stable or standardised yet. Among others, examples are the omission of words such as *Facebook* and *Boeing*. Thirdly, no sport-related words were used. The reason for this decision was that there was a possibility that people who are not involved in sports and are therefore not familiar with the terminology would not be familiar with these words, even though they are native speakers of either Dutch and/or English. Examples of omitted sports terms are *matchpoint*, *counter* and *shorttrack*. Lastly, the remaining loanwords were analysed based on etymologic evidence; the main reference for etymologic information was the database of the website [etymologiebank.nl](http://etymologiebank.nl), which was recently founded by Nicoline van der Sijs. The decision was made to include only words which were borrowed from English from the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century onwards. This decision was made to prevent the inclusion of words that are so integrated into Dutch that it becomes challenging to classify them.

The twelve English loanwords that remained after the selection process are presented in Table 1. The corresponding word classes, broadcast dates, borrowing years and names of the newsreaders are stated in Table 1 as well.

| <u>Loanword</u>   | <u>Word class</u> | <u>Broadcast date</u> | <u>Borrowing year</u> | <u>Uttered by</u>    |
|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|
| <i>Interview</i>  | Noun              | 14-03-13 at 12 pm     | 1886                  | Herman van der Zandt |
| <i>Superfoods</i> | Noun              | 06-03-14 at 12 pm     | NA                    | Jeroen Tjepkema      |
| <i>Skimming</i>   | Noun              | 11-03-14 at 12 pm     | NA                    | René van Brakel      |
| <i>Crash</i>      | Noun              | 11-03-14 at 12 pm     | 1936                  | René van Brakel      |
| <i>Jointje</i>    | Noun              | 11-03-14 at 12 pm     | 1970                  | René van Brakel      |
| <i>Gescoord</i>   | Verb              | 12-03-14 at 12 pm     | 1910                  | Jeroen Tjepkema      |
| <i>Tweet</i>      | Noun              | 14-03-14 at 12 pm     | NA                    | Astrid Kersseboom    |
| <i>Exit polls</i> | Noun              | 16-03-14 at 10 pm     | NA                    | Rob Trip             |
| <i>Website</i>    | Noun              | 16-03-14 at 10 pm     | 1996                  | Rob Trip             |
| <i>Grillroom</i>  | Noun              | 16-03-14 at 10 pm     | NA                    | Rob Trip             |
| <i>Intercity</i>  | Noun              | 17-03-14 at 12 pm     | 1970                  | Jeroen Tjepkema      |
| <i>Privacy</i>    | Noun              | 18-03-14 at 12 pm     | 1961                  | René van Brakel      |

There are a number of matters that must be noted. Firstly, *exit polls* is not regarded as two words but as a single-word compound borrowing. These two words refer to only one concept and the words *exit* and *poll* are both relatively familiar in the Netherlands. In addition, as the following paragraph exemplifies, *exit polls* can also be spelled as a single word. Therefore, *exit polls* is considered as one borrowing. In addition, the words *jointje* and *gescoord* both comprise Dutch inflections. They comprise, respectively, the typical Dutch diminutive inflection and the Dutch past participle inflection. Even though they contain Dutch inflections, etymologically they are of English origin. For some words (*superfoods*, *skimming*, *tweet*, *exit poll* and *grillroom*) there is no etymologic evidence for borrowing, which is indicated by the abbreviation for not available (NA).

The word *skimming* is categorised as a noun, even though it is the present participle form of the verb *to skim*. Of the eleven nouns in the selection there are two plural forms: *superfoods* and *exit polls*.

Regarding forms, the loanwords are all reasonably recognisable as foreign words. More specifically, *skimming* comprises the English present participle inflection. If the word *skimmen* was used, it would not have been as obtrusive. *Interview* contrasts with Dutch spelling conventions as it comprises <-iew>, where <-ieuw> would have been more conventional. The double vowels in *superfoods*, *tweet* and *grillroom* do not correspond with the conventional Dutch pronunciation and are obtrusive, but only if the participants are familiar with the corresponding pronunciations. *Website* is also obtrusive because it is unconventional for Dutch words to have a silent <e> ending. *Jointje* is obtrusive because the <oi> combination is only conventional in Dutch when it is preceded by an <o>. As it is now preceded by a consonant, it can be recognised as a loanword. The double consonants in *exit polls* and *grillroom* are also unconventional as a double consonant is conventionally preceded and followed by vowels, which is the case for *skimming*. Lastly, *crash*, *intercity* and *privacy* contain <c> in their spelling, which is only conventional in the <sch> combination. In general, the loanwords are relatively similar concerning their obtrusiveness and it is therefore expected that obtrusiveness will not affect the attitudes of the participants (as the loanwords will evoke similar reactions among the participants).

It is important to categorise these words into Onysko and Winter-Froemel's categories of catachrestic or non-catachrestic borrowings. There are no governmental lists that can be used as a reference for the classification because the *Nederlandse Taalunie* does not decide which words are accepted or not. Instead, the reference for the classification is the wordlist of Stichting Nederlands, which contains the superfluous English words in Dutch. It must be stressed that the wordlist is strongly influenced by *Stichting Nederlands'* puristic tendencies that are manifested in their outspoken criticism of the use of English in Dutch. However, according to the list of superfluous English words, *interview*, *skimming*, *crash*, *jointje*, *website*, *gescoord* (in the infinitive form "scoren"), *exit poll* (as "exitpoll"), *intercity* and *privacy* are all superfluous (Koops et al., 2009). In addition, there are a number of words that are not on the wordlist but are still counted as superfluous. More precisely, *superfoods* is not on the list but the elements that form the compound <foods> are listed in entries such as *convenience foods*, *fast-food*, *fingerfood* and *food* (Koops et al., 2009). *Grillroom* is also not on the list but as *lunchroom* and *room* are, they are therefore still perceived as superfluous (Koops et al., 2009). Lastly, the loanword *tweet* is also not found in the word list of superfluous English words due to it being too recent. The classifications on the list will be compared to the answers of the participants in order to see whether they perceive the selected words as superfluous or not. With the exception of *tweet*, all of the loanwords in Table 1 are classified as superfluous by *Stichting Nederlands* and therefore non-catachrestic.

In addition, the loanwords were examined to give insight into the pragmatic functions of the loanwords by means of another procedure. The procedure of Onysko and Winter-Froemel's (2011) procedure was followed which implied that first dictionaries and lexical resources were consulted to check whether a Dutch near-equivalent existed for each loanword. After the collection of potential semantic equivalents, these were judged for their appropriateness. Since there was no reliable reference at hand, the decision was made that I, as a native speaker of Dutch, would judge the semantic equivalents for their appropriateness. More specifically, the *Van Dale* (2014) and *Wolters'* (De Boer, 1996) Dutch dictionaries were consulted as a reference to find semantic equivalents for each loanword. The loanwords that have semantic near-equivalents (and are considered non-catachrestic) are: *interview*, *crash*, *jointje*, *website*, *gescoord*, *exit polls*, *intercity* and *privacy*. Two loanwords do not have semantic near equivalents (and are considered catachrestic) are: *skimming* and *tweet*. Neither of the consulted dictionaries contained entries for *superfoods* and *grillroom*.

Lastly, there are notable more loanwords in news broadcasts at 12pm than in news broadcasts at 10pm (nine compared to three, respectively). Peter Taal stated that the two broadcasts, the one at noon and the one at 10pm, are only in different in the structure of topics and total length of the broadcasts (Appendix B), which means that there are no notable differences in policies between the two broadcast timeslots.

### 3.2 Procedure

Whereas the previous section described the process of eliciting loanwords that are used in this research, this section explains how the data was obtained on the attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch.

Baker states that “one of the most popular methods of attitude measurements is to produce an attitude scale composed of statements” (1995, p. 17); participants are presented with these statements and asked to respond to them. The responses may be *agree* or *disagree* or “be measured more exactly with a five point scale” (Baker, 1995, p. 18). This five point scale (or Likert scale) typically ranges from *completely disagree* to *completely agree*; it as such provides calculable data as the five possible responses are assigned a value of, respectively, one to five. The data can be used to calculate correlation coefficients between the variables in software for statistical analysis, such as IBM SPSS version 22. It is important to note that the “measurements of an individual's attitudes are unlikely to reveal their attitudes perfectly” (Baker, 1995, p. 18).

Because the attitude scales may be potentially unreliable, it is important to acquire information on the determinants that make up one's attitude. The determinants that are important in attitude research (as elaborated on in section 2.3.2) are *age*, *gender*, *school*, *ability*, *language background* and *cultural background*. Therefore, it is relevant to gather sufficient information on these determinants for each participant. As section 2.4 describes, it is also important to

account for the possible influence of specific or general language purism. This is relevant because the influence of purist attitudes could greatly influence the results of this research.

Additionally, it is important to acquire information on whether someone has exceptionally positive or negative attitudes towards the English language. With these matters in mind, the decision was made to opt for a questionnaire as the main methodological tool used in this research, which is described in detail in the following section.

### 3.2.1 Questionnaire

Firstly, the best technique to gather data for this project was by using a questionnaire as by doing so, it is possible to reach a relatively large number of people and consequently have a large number of respondents. The decision was made to make use of an online survey because that enabled for more people to be contacted via social media and e-mail. More specifically, the questionnaire was hosted by thesistools.com, a tool that enables one to design the questionnaire however one wishes and offers free publication without distracting advertisements or pictures. One of the main advantages of an online questionnaire is the fact that all the results get to be listed in one document by means of an automated process. This entails that the chances of human error in data collection can almost be ruled out. An online questionnaire also makes it possible to make a selection of the appropriate data by excluding outliers. Moreover, with the online questionnaire the participants are able to choose an appropriate place and time to answer the questions. However, that also means that the test environments are not homogeneous and there is no control of unexpected influential factors during the answering of the questionnaire. Another potential issue with an online version is that younger participants are generally more involved with computers and the internet than older participants, which may lead to a larger number of young participants compared to older participants.

Lastly, the questionnaire was divided into two sections. The initial section comprised the main questions relating to the English loanwords and the second section comprised questions regarding the demographics of the participants, such as the determinants of language attitudes. Before the participants were presented with the questions, they were explained that there were no correct or incorrect answers as they merely had to give their opinion. The content of the questionnaire is elaborated in the following two sections.

#### *Questionnaire Section One*

Section one of the questionnaire consisted of the questions regarding the use of the selected twelve loanwords. The loanwords are presented in the context they were used in by the newsreaders. The context was relatively short and comprised only one or two sentences. However, it was necessary to make several adjustments. Firstly, in the direct context of *crash* there was no reference to the type of transport vehicle involved in the crash. Because the Dutch

equivalent of *aeroplane* was mentioned at the beginning of the report, the decision was made to incorporate the appropriate reference into the sentence. Secondly, in the direct context of the word *website* the word *interview* was also mentioned. The decision was made to replace *interview* with the Dutch equivalent of *report* because *interview* already functions as a loanword in one of the other sentences in the questionnaire. Thirdly, in the direct context of the loanword *tweet* there was a reference to both a Dutch political party and one of their board members. Because the political preferences of the participants may influence the answers, the decision was made to replace both references with the neutral Dutch equivalent of board member. The results of these adjustments can be found in Appendix C, which comprises the contexts of the loanwords that were used in the questionnaire).

The questions in section one of the questionnaire were identical for each of the loanwords. First the participants were presented with the specific loanword in its context. The participants were able to see the sentence or sentences along the questions concerning the corresponding loanword and were then asked whether there are Dutch words they can replace the loanword with, without changing the meaning of the sentence. The reason why this question was included is because it facilitates the participants in having a selection of words, which is required to answer the following question more precisely. The following question asks participants whether there is a more appropriate word instead of the loanword used in the corresponding sentence. This question is included to provide data on the question whether the loanwords are catachrestic or non-catachrestic according to the participants. The responses to these questions are then listed and the frequency of the proposed words can be analysed.

Subsequently, the participants were presented with seven statements and a Likert scale, which enabled the participants to express to what extent they agreed or disagreed with each of the statements. The scale comprises five options: *completely disagree*, *partly disagree*, *neutral*, *partly agree* and *completely agree*. Additionally, the participants also have the option to withhold an answer by checking the corresponding empty box, which signifies *no opinion*. The English translations of the three statements are stated in Table 2.

| Table 2   |  |
|---|--|
| <i>Statements in Section One of the Questionnaire</i> |  |
|   | <u>Statement</u>   |
| 1   | This is an ordinary Dutch sentence.                      |
| 2   | The use of “[loanword]” is appropriate in this sentence. |
| 3   | I would also make use of this sentence.                  |

The statements in Table 2 all focus on appropriateness. Statement 1 (*This is an ordinary Dutch sentence*) and statement 3 (*I would also make use of this sentence*) were included because they provide information on the correctness and interpretability of the entire context. This is done in order to verify whether the contexts are interpreted clearly and to have the possibility to exclude a

loanword if frequent problems occur concerning ambiguous interpretations of the context. Statement 2 (*The use of “[loanword]” is appropriate in this sentence*) was included because it provided more specific information on how appropriate the loanword was in the given context according to the respondents. The responses to this statement indicated whether the participants considered the use of the loanword to be appropriate. Additionally, if participants indicated that the sentence or sentences were correct but the loanword is not appropriate in the corresponding context, this indicates that the problem lied in the use of the loanword and not in the context.

| Table 3   |   |
|---|---|
| <i>Reasons for the Use of each Loanword in Section One of the Questionnaire</i> |   |
|   | <u>Reason</u>   |
| 1   | The word “[loanword]” is more precise than other Dutch words. |
| 2   | The word “[loanword]” sounds better regarding pronunciation.  |
| 3   | The word “[loanword]” is used in an abnormal way.             |
| 4   | The word “[loanword]” is used here to draw more attention.    |

Table 3 lists the reasons for the use of each loanword. The reasons were included because they provided information on the reasons why the loanwords were considered appropriate or inappropriate. The decision was made to include each of these statements in combination with the Likert scale because the possibility existed that participants regarded the appropriateness of the loanwords to have more than one reason.

### *Questionnaire Section Two*

Section two of the questionnaire focused on the demographics of the participants in the form of the determinants of each participant’s attitudes (i.e. *Age, Gender, School, Ability, Language Background* and *Cultural background*) and other influencing factors (Appendix E).

The decision was made to exclude questions regarding cultural background. This was decided because there are no evidently correlating tendencies for cultural background as a determinant of attitudes (see section 2.3.2). Another reason that supported this decision was because the questionnaire is targeted at native speakers of Dutch, it is presupposed that the native speakers of Dutch have relatively similar cultural backgrounds. Moreover, it seemed that more than a single question was needed to provide detailed information regarding differences between cultural backgrounds and because the results required subjective assessment, the decision was made to exclude those questions.

Section two of the questionnaire also comprised eight statements equipped with a Likert scale in order to obtain detailed information regarding the participants’ attitudes towards the NOS news broadcasts, regarding their attitudes towards English and towards foreign words in Dutch. Questions regarding purism were relevant to this research because the extent of purism is said to influence the attitudes to loanwords.

After the eight statements, the participants were asked whether they had any particularly positive or negative experiences with the English language. This question was included because very negative or even traumatic experiences can contribute to a negative attitude towards English and English loanwords. If participants indicated that they have negative experience with English, that could explain why their attitudes towards English loanwords were so negative. However, such participants were not excluded from the sample because the interaction between bad experience and negative attitudes is not certain and may even have no influence on the results if the number of participants is relatively high.

### 3.3 Distribution of the Participants

The online questionnaire was published on 26 May 2014 and was accessible for a week until 2 June 2014. Of the total 85 participants who took part, 54 finished the questionnaire. However, one participant was excluded because he indicated that Dutch was not his first language and neither was English. The sample thus included 53 participants in total.

Because this research comprises the variables gender and age in the research questions, it is important to elaborate on the distribution of the participants regarding gender and age. Firstly, the participants comprise more females (n=29) in comparison to males (n=24).

However, it was not possible to group participants as it was not possible to account for the distribution of age of the participants beforehand, so groups could only be made afterwards. The youngest participant was seventeen years of age and the oldest was 71 years of age Table 4 (4) shows the distribution of the participants in age groups. Table 4 shows that the participants are organised into four age groups: groups *A*, *B*, *C* and *D*. The decision was made for group *C* to comprise only nine participants due to the fact that the age range is larger than the other groups (19 compared to 7, 9 and 16). It must be noted that one participant stated *50+* for her age. The decision was made to consider the participant to be between 50 and 60 of age (55 in fact) so she was allocated to group *D*.

| Table 4   |                               |                  |
|---|-------------------------------|------------------|
| <i>Distribution of Participants in Age Groups</i> |                               |                  |
| <u>Age group</u>                                  | <u>Number of participants</u> | <u>Age range</u> |
| A   | 15                            | 17 to 24         |
| B   | 15                            | 25 to 34         |
| C   | 9                             | 35 to 54         |
| D   | 14                            | 55 to 71         |

#### 3.3.1 Demographics of the Participants

In section two of the questionnaire, the participants all gave information on their determinants of language attitudes regarding education, levels of English and Dutch, attitudes towards NOS news



broadcasts, attitudes towards English and attitudes towards foreign words in Dutch. In order to have a general view of the test group, it is important to specify the demographics of the participants.

Table 5 shows the distribution of the responses regarding their education and proficiency levels of English. It shows that the test group is generally highly educated as only seven participants indicated that their highest education level was *secondary education* (four participants) or *vocational education* (three participants). Table 5 also shows that 46 participants (or 87%) of the participants is highly educated (University of applied sciences or higher).

| <u>Demographic</u>  | <u>Response</u>                | <u>Frequency</u> |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|------------------|
| Education           | Primary education              | 4                |
|                     | Secondary education            | 3                |
|                     | University of applied sciences | 14               |
|                     | University (bachelor)          | 13               |
|                     | University (baster)            | 17               |
|                     | Higher than the above          | 2                |
| English proficiency | Fluent                         | 27               |
|                     | Advanced                       | 20               |
|                     | Intermediate                   | 5                |
|                     | Poor                           | -                |

Table 5 also shows that the entire test group is, at least to some degree, proficient in English and that the majority of 27 participants (51%) indicate that they speak English fluently. In addition, one participant is not accounted for in Table 5 because he was a native speaker of English.

Table 6 shows the frequencies of the responses to the eight statements in section two of the questionnaire (Appendix E). The statements are presented in abbreviated forms in order to retain clarity. The decision was made to combine the frequencies of both *completely disagree* and *partly disagree* and *completely agree* and *partly agree* due to their relatively small differences.

| Statement                         | Frequencies of responses           |                |                                |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------|--------------------------------|
|                                   | <u>Completely /partly disagree</u> | <u>Neutral</u> | <u>Completely/partly agree</u> |
| <i>Familiar with the NOS</i>      | 4                                  | 2              | 47                             |
| <i>Positive about the NOS</i>     | 4                                  | 4              | 45                             |
| <i>Exemplary Dutch</i>            | 3                                  | 9              | 41                             |
| <i>English is nice</i>            | 2                                  | 7              | 44                             |
| <i>English is important</i>       | 1                                  | 1              | 51                             |
| <i>Important to speak English</i> | 3                                  | 1              | 49                             |
| <i>English words in Dutch</i>     | 31                                 | 11             | 11                             |
| <i>Foreign words in Dutch</i>     | 33                                 | 6              | 14                             |

Table 6 shows that a number of 47 participants (or 87%) indicated that they were familiar with the news broadcasts and 45 of the participants (or 85%) indicated that their attitudes were positive towards the NOS news broadcasts. Moreover, a number of 41 participants (or 77%) indicated that they think the NOS newsreaders speak exemplary Dutch. The majority of 44 (or 83%) participants indicated that think that English is a nice language and 51 participants (or 96%) indicated that they think that English is an important language. Table 6 also shows that 31 participants (or 59%) indicated that they do not agree with the statement that English words do not belong in Dutch. Regarding foreign words in general, the majority of the 33 participants (or 62%) indicated that they do not agree with the statement that foreign words pollute Dutch.

Furthermore, the participants were asked whether they have any particularly positive or negative experiences with the English language. A number of 31 participants indicated that they do not have any particularly positive or negative experiences with the English language. Despite the 22 participants who answered *yes* to the question, only three participants indicated a negative experience or attitude. One participant mentioned an unpleasant teacher and two participants indicated that they think that English is too present in Dutch.

Subsequently, one participant indicated that she did not know what *grillroom* was and three participants indicated that they did not understand what was meant with reason 3, regarding the use of the loanwords. Because the participants had the option to check the box indicating *no opinion* and withhold and answer, it is assumed that the questions were clear to every participant.

Finally, three participants indicated that they were distracted during their answering the questionnaire. One participant indicated that a colleague talked to him and two participants indicated that they were listening to music. It is not expected that the results of these participants have been influenced significantly so they have not been excluded.

## 4. Results

### Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the research; first, the results on the differences regarding gender and age are presented in, respectively, sections 4.1 and 4.2. Subsequently, the results related to the synonyms and preferred alternatives to loanwords are presented in section 4.3. Finally, the results regarding the reasons for the use of loanwords are examined in section 4.4.

### 4.1 Attitudes and Gender

The scores of each statement of each participant were processed and analysed by means of using IBM SPSS version 22, a software package used for statistical analysis. This made it possible to calculate the mean scores for each statement and provide insight into correlations between the statements and gender.

Figure 1 displays the mean scores for each of the three statements of male and female participants. Figure 1 shows that the mean scores are consistently higher for female participants than for male participants for each of the statements. More specifically, the mean scores for statements 1, 2 and 3 for female participants are 4.07, 4.28 and 3.72 compared to 3.78, 3.94 and 3.22 for male participants, respectively. These numbers all suggest that female participants have more positive attitudes towards loanwords than male participants.

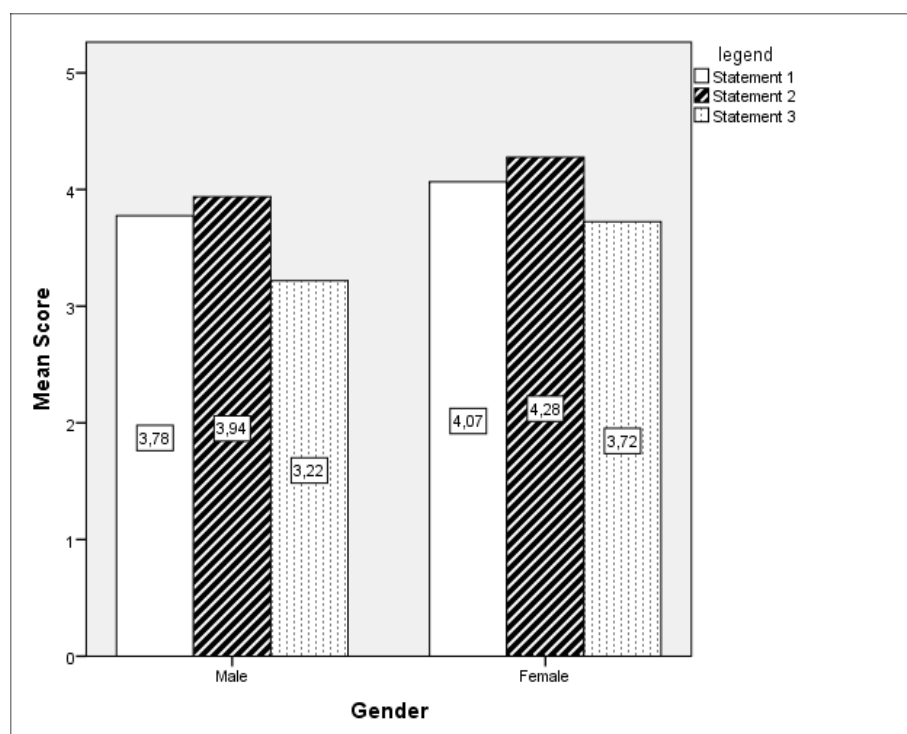


Figure 1. Mean Scores for Statements 1, 2 and 3 per Gender

Even though these numbers suggest that female participants have more positive attitudes towards loanwords than male participants, it is important to examine whether there is significant correlation between the results for each statement and gender. Table 7 displays Pearson's correlation coefficients between gender and the mean scores for statements 1, 2 and 3.

| Table 7   |                 |               |                    |                    |                    |
|---|-----------------|---------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Pearson's Correlation Coefficients between Gender and Statements 1,2 and 3</i> |                 |               |                    |                    |                    |
|   |                 | <u>Gender</u> | <u>Statement 1</u> | <u>Statement 2</u> | <u>Statement 3</u> |
| <u>Gender</u>   | Correlation     | 1             | ,245               | ,343*              | ,337*              |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed) |               | ,077               | ,012               | ,014               |
|   | N               | 53            | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 1</u>  | Correlation     | ,245          | 1                  | ,851**             | ,721**             |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,077          |                    | ,000               | ,000               |
|   | N               | 53            | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 2</u>  | Correlation     | ,343*         | ,851**             | 1                  | ,751**             |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,012          | ,000               |                    | ,000               |
|   | N               | 53            | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 3</u>  | Correlation     | ,337*         | ,721**             | ,751**             | 1                  |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,014          | ,000               | ,000               |                    |
|   | N               | 53            | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).                        |                 |               |                    |                    |                    |
| ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).                       |                 |               |                    |                    |                    |

Table 7 indicates that there is statistically significant correlation at the 0.05 level between statement 2 and gender as it shows a correlation coefficient of .343 ( $p = .012$ ). Additionally, there is also statistically significant correlation between statement 3 and gender as Pearson's correlation coefficient indicates a correlation coefficient of .337 ( $p = .014$ ).

Furthermore, Table 8 shows Spearman's correlation coefficients between gender and statements 1, 2 and 3.

| Table 8   |                         |               |                    |                    |                    |
|---|-------------------------|---------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Spearman's Correlation Coefficients between Gender and Statements 1, 2 and 3</i> |                         |               |                    |                    |                    |
|   |                         | <u>Gender</u> | <u>Statement 1</u> | <u>Statement 2</u> | <u>Statement 3</u> |
| <u>Gender</u>   | Correlation Coefficient | 1,000         | ,205               | ,284*              | ,334*              |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed)         | .             | ,141               | ,039               | ,015               |
|   | N                       | 53            | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 1</u>  | Correlation Coefficient | ,205          | 1,000              | ,813**             | ,702**             |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed)         | ,141          | .                  | ,000               | ,000               |
|   | N                       | 53            | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 2</u>  | Correlation Coefficient | ,284*         | ,813**             | 1,000              | ,744**             |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed)         | ,039          | ,000               | .                  | ,000               |
|   | N                       | 53            | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 3</u>  | Correlation Coefficient | ,334*         | ,702**             | ,744**             | 1,000              |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed)         | ,015          | ,000               | ,000               | .                  |
|   | N                       | 53            | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).                          |                         |               |                    |                    |                    |
| ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).                         |                         |               |                    |                    |                    |

Table 8 also illustrates that there is statistically significant correlation between the mean scores for statement 2 and gender and the mean scores for statement 3 and gender. More specifically, Table 8 displays correlation coefficients of .284 ( $p = .039$ ) and .334 ( $p = .015$ ), respectively, at the 0.05 level.

These data imply that the mean scores for statement 2 and statement 3 are significantly higher for female participants, which implies that female participants consider the use of the loanwords more appropriate compared to male participants. Additionally, the results also suggest that female participants are more likely to make use of the sentences containing the loanwords than male participants are.

Additionally, there are a number of gender-related tendencies for specific loanwords that must be noted. Firstly, both male and female participants ascribed the lowest score to statements 1, 2 and 3 to *superfoods*, which means that both male and female participants have the most negative attitude towards *superfoods*. There is less homogeneity concerning the loanword with the highest score. This is exemplified by the scores for statement 1, because *jointje* has the highest score among male participants (4.42) and *website* has the highest score among female participants (4.52). Statement 2 was ascribed the highest score for both male (4.38) and female (4.59) participants for *website*. Statement 3 was ascribed the highest score for *website* among male participants (4.13) and *intercity* among female participants (4.41).

To conclude, Mesthrie et al. (2012) state that females tend to use more prestige forms and English words are considered prestige forms by Gramley (2001) and Van Der Sijs (2005). The results are in accordance with the literature and the hypothesis as Dutch female participants indeed have more positive attitudes towards English loanword in Dutch than male participants.

## 4.2 Attitudes and Age

The mean scores for each of the three statements per age group are stated in Figure 2.

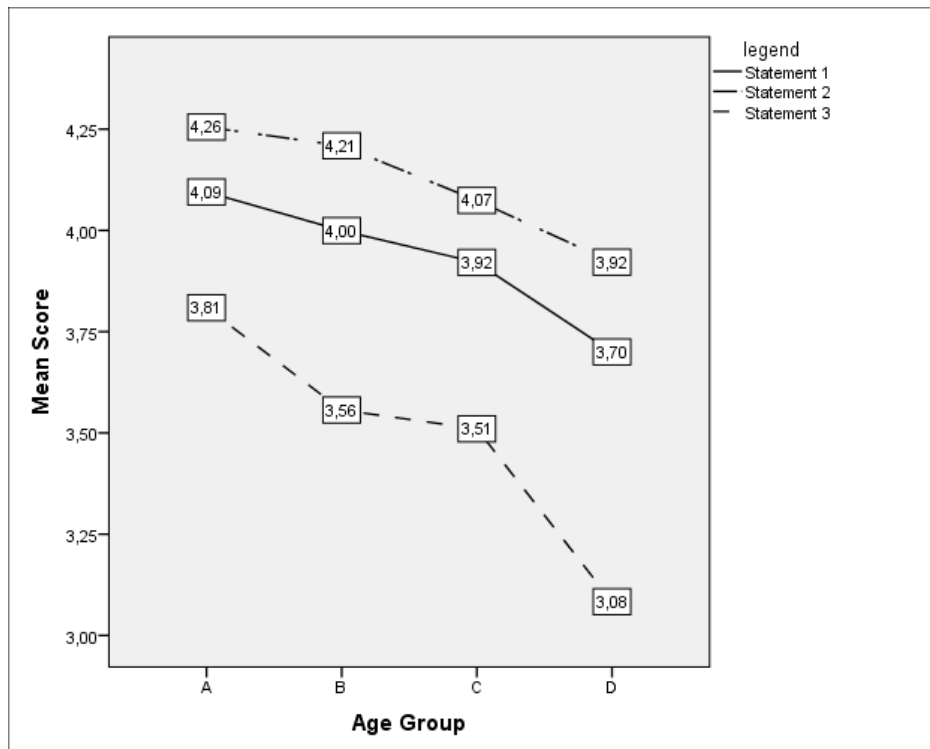


Figure 2. Mean Scores for Statements 1, 2 and 3 per Age Group

Figure 2 shows that the mean scores become consistently lower when age increases for each of the statements. This is exemplified by statement 1, which denotes a mean score of 4.09 for age group A, which decreases to 4.00, 3.92 and 3.70 for age groups B, C and D, respectively. Statement 2 displays the same tendency as it signifies a mean score of 4.26 for age group A, which decreases to 4.21, 4.07 and 3.92 for age groups B, C and D, respectively. Lastly, the decrease of mean scores when ages increase is also exemplified by statement 3.

The decrease of mean scores when ages increase is supported by the data in Table 9, which shows Pearson's correlation coefficients between age and statements 1, 2 and 3.

| Table 9  |                 |            |                    |                    |                    |
|--|-----------------|------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Pearson's Correlation Coefficients between Age and Statements 1,2 and 3</i> |                 |            |                    |                    |                    |
|  |                 | <u>Age</u> | <u>Statement 1</u> | <u>Statement 2</u> | <u>Statement 3</u> |
| <u>Age</u>   | Correlation     | 1          | -,230              | -,247              | -,338*             |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) |            | ,097               | ,074               | ,013               |
|  | N               | 53         | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 1</u>   | Correlation     | -,230      | 1                  | ,851**             | ,721**             |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,097       |                    | ,000               | ,000               |
|  | N               | 53         | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 2</u>   | Correlation     | -,247      | ,851**             | 1                  | ,751**             |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,074       | ,000               |                    | ,000               |
|  | N               | 53         | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 3</u>   | Correlation     | -,338*     | ,721**             | ,751**             | 1                  |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | ,013       | ,000               | ,000               |                    |
|  | N               | 53         | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).                     |                 |            |                    |                    |                    |
| ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).                    |                 |            |                    |                    |                    |

Table 9 denotes that there is statistically significant negative correlation between statement 3 and age as it displays a correlation coefficient of  $-.338$  ( $p = .013$ ) at the 0.05 level. Even though the mean scores suggest that attitudes become more negative when age increases, upon looking at whether there is a correlation between the two variables, one has to conclude that there is no significant correlation between the results of both statement 1 and statement 2 and age.

In addition, Table 10 shows Spearman's correlation coefficients between age and statements 1, 2 and 3.

| Table 10  |                         |            |                    |                    |                    |
|---|-------------------------|------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Spearman's Correlation Coefficients between Age and Statements 1,2 and 3</i> |                         |            |                    |                    |                    |
|   |                         | <u>Age</u> | <u>Statement 1</u> | <u>Statement 2</u> | <u>Statement 3</u> |
| <u>Age</u>  | Correlation Coefficient | 1,000      | -,205              | -,203              | -,333*             |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed)         | .          | ,140               | ,144               | ,015               |
|   | N                       | 53         | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 1</u>  | Correlation Coefficient | -,205      | 1,000              | ,813**             | ,702**             |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed)         | ,140       | .                  | ,000               | ,000               |
|   | N                       | 53         | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 2</u>  | Correlation Coefficient | -,203      | ,813**             | 1,000              | ,744**             |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed)         | ,144       | ,000               | .                  | ,000               |
|   | N                       | 53         | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| <u>Statement 3</u>  | Correlation Coefficient | -,333*     | ,702**             | ,744**             | 1,000              |
|   | Sig. (2-tailed)         | ,015       | ,000               | ,000               | .                  |
|   | N                       | 53         | 53                 | 53                 | 53                 |
| * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).                      |                         |            |                    |                    |                    |
| ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).                     |                         |            |                    |                    |                    |

Table 10 also indicates that there is statistically significant negative correlation between statement 3 and age as it shows a correlation coefficient of  $-.333$  ( $p = .015$ ) at the 0.05 level. Table 10 also displays that there is no statistically significant correlation between both statement 1 and statement 2 and age. The data suggest that older participants make use of the sentences that contain the selected loanwords less frequently than younger participants.

Overall, the data in this section support that Withagen and Boves' (1991) results are still reliable as data in this section suggest that older participants have more negative attitudes towards English loanwords than younger participants.

### 4.3 Classification of Loanwords

In section one of the questionnaire the participants were first asked if they knew synonyms for each loanword without changing the meaning of the sentence and subsequently, if they knew any preferred alternatives for each loanword. Even though the participants indicated a number of synonyms to each loanword, it is more relevant to focus on the highest numbers for preferred

alternatives because those numbers may indicate which words are most preferably replaced by Dutch equivalents (and are non-catachrestic).

The results are found in Table 11, which presents the frequencies of synonyms for each loanword and the frequencies of the preferred alternatives. It must be noted that alternatives are only stated if they were mentioned by at least three participants. In addition, only the most frequent two synonyms are stated, with exception of *jointje* and *intercity* due to, respectively, the equal number of occurrences of synonyms and the lack of other alternatives. The reason to only state the two most frequent alternatives is to prevent the list from becoming too extensive and unclear. In addition, a number of synonyms differed only to a small degree and were combined and counted as one. This was the case for *bankpasfraude* and *pinpasfraude*, *stickie* and *stickey*, *bericht* and *berichtje*, and *peiling* and *peilingen*.

| <u>Loanword</u>   | <u>Synonym</u>          | <u>Frequency</u> | <u>Preferred alternative</u> |
|-------------------|-------------------------|------------------|------------------------------|
| <i>Interview</i>  | vraaggesprek            | 29               | 7                            |
|                   | gesprek                 | 13               | 4                            |
| <i>Superfoods</i> | supervoedsel            | 5                | 3                            |
|                   | gezond voedsel          | 3                | 2                            |
| <i>Skimming</i>   | bankpas / pinpas fraude | 7                | 5                            |
|                   | fraude                  | 4                | 1                            |
| <i>Crash</i>      | ongeluk                 | 15               | 9                            |
|                   | neerstorten             | 14               | 10                           |
| <i>Jointje</i>    | stickie / stickey       | 10               | 1                            |
|                   | wiet                    | 4                | -                            |
|                   | blow                    | 4                | -                            |
|                   | pitoe                   | 4                | -                            |
| <i>Website</i>    | internetpagina          | 12               | 1                            |
|                   | webpagina               | 9                | 1                            |
| <i>Gescoord</i>   | behaald                 | 11               | 6                            |
|                   | gepresteerd             | 10               | 6                            |
| <i>Tweet</i>      | twitterbericht          | 9                | 2                            |
|                   | bericht(je)             | 7                | 1                            |
| <i>Exit polls</i> | peiling(en)             | 5                | 5                            |
|                   | voorlopige uitslagen    | 4                | 5                            |
| <i>Grillroom</i>  | grill restaurant        | 8                | 2                            |
|                   | restaurant              | 7                | 3                            |
| <i>Intercity</i>  | sneltrein               | 13               | 3                            |
| <i>Privacy</i>    | privéleven              | 5                | 2                            |
|                   | privégegevens           | 3                | 1                            |

Table 11 further indicates that *crash* is the loanword with the most preferred alternatives as it is by preference replaced by *ongeluk* and *neerstorten*, according to nine and ten participants, respectively. Table 11 also indicates that seven participants prefer *vraaggesprek* to *interview*, six participants prefer *behaald* or *gepresteerd* to *gescoord* and five participants prefer *peiling(en)* and *voorlopige uitslagen* to *exit polls*. Even though *superfoods* received the lowest mean scores for statements 1, 2 and 3, the



data in Table 11 indicate that this loanword is only preferably replaced by *supervoedsel* or *gezond voedsel* by, respectively, three and two participants. Preferred alternatives to the other loanwords were only provided by four participants or less, and are therefore not widely supported among the participants (i.e., supported by less than 10% of the participants).

The results indicate that none of the twelve loanwords are preferably replaced with a Dutch alternative by the majority of the participants. In fact only *interview*, *crash*, *gescoord* and *exit polls* are not preferred to their borrowed counterparts and that only by no more than 20% of the participants. Even though the word list of Koops et al. (2009) in section 3.1.2 indicated that all the loanwords are non-catachrestic (with the exception of *tweet*), they should not be regarded as superfluous. In fact, the results indicate that a vast majority of the participants do not consider the selected loanwords superfluous, contrary to the classification of *Stichting Nederlands*. The following section proposes an explanation to the reason why these loanwords are not superfluous and elaborates further on the classification of the loanwords as catachrestic and non-catachrestic borrowings.

#### **4.4 Reasons for the Preference for English Loanwords**

The results also gave insight into the reasons why participants think the loanwords are used. The questionnaire contained four preselected reasons and the participants indicated by means of a Likert scale which of the preselected reasons was appropriate to use each loanword. The mean scores were calculated for each preselected reason and were ranked in descending order for each used loanword. By doing so, it was possible to show which reasons to use the loanwords were represented the most. The results are found in Table 12. It must be noted that the reasons are referred to by numerals 1 to 4. The reason to use numerals is to prevent the list from becoming too unclear.

| Table 12   |               |               |               |               |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| <i>Ranking Order of Reasons for Use of each Loanword</i> |               |               |               |               |
| <u>Loanword</u>  | <u>Rank 1</u> | <u>Rank 2</u> | <u>Rank 3</u> | <u>Rank 4</u> |
| <i>Interview</i>   | 1             | 2             | 4             | 3             |
| <i>Superfoods</i>  | 4             | 1             | 2             | 3             |
| <i>Skimming</i>  | 1             | 2             | 4             | 3             |
| <i>Crash</i>   | 2             | 1             | 4             | 3             |
| <i>Jointje</i>   | 1             | 2             | 4             | 3             |
| <i>Website</i>   | 1             | 2             | 4             | 3             |
| <i>Gescoord</i>  | 1             | 2             | 4             | 3             |
| <i>Tweet</i>   | 1             | 2             | 4             | 3             |
| <i>Exit polls</i>  | 1             | 2             | 4             | 3             |
| <i>Grillroom</i>   | 1             | 2             | 4             | 3             |
| <i>Intercity</i>   | 1             | 2             | 4             | 3             |
| <i>Privacy</i>   | 1             | 2             | 4             | 3             |

*Note.* The numerals 1, 2, 3 and 4 refer to, respectively, *the word “[loanword]” is more precise than other Dutch words, the word “[loanword]” sounds better regarding pronunciation, the word “[loanword]” is used in an abnormal way and the word “[loanword]” is used here to draw more attention.*

Table 12 shows that the participants indicated that ten of the twelve English loanwords were used because these words were considered to be more precise than other Dutch words. The participants also indicated that, after precision, the same ten loanwords were used because the words sound better regarding pronunciation. The participants revealed that *superfoods* and *crash* were not used because these words were more precise than other Dutch words. More specifically, the participants indicated that *superfoods* was used to draw more attention and that *crash* was used because it sounds better regarding pronunciation. Overall, the data in Table 12 suggest that the participants generally consider that the used loanwords are more precise than other Dutch words.

Ten of the twelve loanwords are considered to be more precise than other Dutch words (with the exception of *superfoods* and *crash*). This means that these ten words are cultural borrowings because they refer to concepts that have no other Dutch referent and a non-native word is used. Alternatively, these words are catachrestic as they are not already expressed by another lexical unit in the language.

This result is in great contrast with the words list of Koops et al. (2009), which implied that all the used loanwords were superfluous and therefore non-catachrestic (with the exception of *tweet*, which was not on the list). The classification of the loanwords that was made by applying Onysko and Winter-Froemel's (2011) procedure also contrasts with the results. This classification also differs, although to a smaller degree, because *interview*, *jointje*, *website*, *gescoord*, *exit polls*, *intercity* and *privacy* were expected to be non-catachrestic. In fact, there only is accordance regarding the loanword *crash* as it was considered non-catachrestic by the results, on the list of Koops et al. (2009) and in Onysko and Winter-Froemel's procedure.

However, even though the participants indicated that *superfoods* and *crash* were used for other reasons, they may still be more precise than other Dutch words. Therefore, it is challenging to classify these two words with certainty as either cultural or core borrowings or catachrestic or non-catachrestic borrowings

## 5. Discussion and Conclusion

### Introduction

This chapter discusses the results and presents the conclusions of this research. A summary of the main findings of this research is given first in section 5.1. Subsequently, the discussion of the research questions is presented in section 5.2. Finally, the chapter concludes with a brief conclusion in section 5.3.

### 5.1 Main Findings

For this research, the NOS news broadcasts have served as the source of the loanwords and their contexts, which are used in this research to measure the attitudes of the participants. The participants provided information on the applicability of synonyms and preferred alternatives to the loanwords and, subsequently, provided information on their attitudes towards the use of each loanword. Additionally, this research also comprises elements that focus on the reasons why each loanword is used according to the participants. The main findings of this research are listed below.

Firstly, there were 53 participants who took part in this research. The participants consisted of 24 male and 29 female respondents. The participants, who ranged from 17 to 71 years of age, were organised into four age groups: groups A, B, C and D (from young to old). The age groups consisted of nine to fifteen participants each. The results indicated that 87% of the participants are highly educated. The entire group of participants is to some degree proficient in English and 51% indicated that they speak English fluently. The participants are generally positive about the NOS as 87% indicated that they were familiar with the news broadcasts and 85% indicated that their attitudes were positive towards the NOS news broadcasts. The majority of 83% of the participants indicated that they think that English is a nice language and 96% indicated that they think that English is an important language. A number of 59% indicated that they do not agree with the statement that English words do not belong in Dutch and 21% was neutral to the statement. Additionally, 62% indicated that they do not agree with the statement that foreign words pollute Dutch and 11% were neutral.

The results of this research show that female participants have more positive attitudes towards English loanwords than male participants. Female participants were consistently more positive regarding statements 1, 2 and 3 or, respectively, *this is an ordinary Dutch sentence*, *the use of [loanword] is appropriate in this sentence* and *I would also make use of this sentence* as can be found in Figure 1. Furthermore, there is significant correlation at the 0.05 level between both statement 2 and statement 3 and gender, which means that female participants have scored significantly higher than male participants for these statements.

The results of this research also suggest that the mean scores of the participants become consistently lower when age increases for each of the statements. Figure 2 shows that the mean scores for the statements mentioned above consistently decrease when ages of the participants increase. These data suggest that older participants have more negative attitudes towards loanwords than younger participants. In furthermore, there is significant negative correlation at the 0.05 level between the statement *I would also make use of this sentence* and age. This implies that the attitudes towards using these loanwords are significantly more negative when the ages of the participants increase.

This research indicated that most participants do not prefer alternative words to the used loanwords. Table 11 (in section 4.3) indicates that *crash* is the loanword with the most preferred alternatives as it is preferably replaced by *ongeluk* and *neerstorten*, according to nine and ten participants, respectively. Table 11 also indicates that seven participants prefer *vraaggesprek* to *interview*, six participants prefer *behaald* or *gepresteerd* to *gescoord* and five participants prefer *peiling(en)* and *voorlopige uitslagen* to *exit polls*. Preferred alternatives to the other loanwords were only provided by four participants or less, and are therefore not widely supported among the participants. In addition, the majority of the loanwords (all except *crash*) are catachrestic.

Furthermore, the results of this research suggest that the participants generally consider that the used loanwords are more precise than other Dutch words. The second favoured reason is that participants consider that the used loanwords sound better regarding pronunciation, which can be found in Table 12.

## 5.2 Discussion

In this section the research questions will be contrasted with the reviewed literature and the hypotheses that were based on the reviewed literature. Finally, the drawbacks of the study will be discussed and implications for further research will be elaborated on.

### 5.2.1 Gender-Based Differences

As stated in section 1.4, to my knowledge, there has been no previous research on the differences between men and women regarding attitudes towards loanwords, or specific research on the differences between men and women regarding attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch. The lack of previous relevant research means this research is largely preliminary. However, in the literature review chapter, section 2.3.3 referred to Mesthrie et al. who noted that females tend to use more prestige or high-status forms than males. As section 2.3.5 indicated that, according to Gramley (2001) and Van Der Sijs (2005), English proficiency entails prestige in the Netherlands, it was hypothesised in section 2.6 that Dutch females have more positive attitudes towards English loanwords in comparison to Dutch males.

The results in this research suggest that, indeed, there is a difference between Dutch males and females regarding attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch. The results, which are presented in the previous section and more elaborately in section 4.1, support the hypothesis that Dutch females have more positive attitudes towards English loanwords in comparison to Dutch males. The most important finding is the significant correlation between females and the higher scores for the statements *the use of [loanword] is appropriate in this sentence* and *I would also make use of this sentence*.

However, it must be noted that this research only comprises twelve loanwords in total. In order to support the hypothesis that Dutch females are more positive towards English loanwords in Dutch than males, further research is required that includes a wider range of loanwords. Four of the twelve loanwords in this research are not yet included in etymologiebank.nl, so it is questionable whether they can be considered loanwords (e.g. if they later prove not to be enduring concepts). Moreover, the attitudes towards loanwords may be different if the loanwords are not easily recognised as English loanwords. Additionally, the reliability of the results would have increased if a number of control-statements had been included to measure whether female participants provide higher scores or not.

### 5.2.2 Age-Based Differences

As stated in section 1.4, I am not familiar with previous specific research on the changes of attitudes towards English loanwords in the Netherlands along with age, with the exception of Withagen and Boves' (1991) research.. However, Chambers (2009) suggests that the early adult years are a period of relative stability, as stated in section 2.3.4. This relative stability does not count for attitudes because the results in this research indicate that attitudes towards loanwords become more negative when age increases and are even statistically significant regarding the statement *I would also make use of this sentence*.

The more negative attitudes for older participants in this research may be explained by Eckert's (1998) claim that increasing age correlates with increasing conservatism in speech, as stated in section 2.3.4. However, the negative attitudes cannot be ascribed only to increasing conservatism with certainty. The only way to provide convincing evidence for increasing conservatism is to conduct research again after a period of time and include the same participants, provided that their participation is not anonymous.

In addition, section 2.3.4 notes that loanwords are more easily embraced during adolescence. However, there was only one participant who could be considered an adolescent as he was seventeen years of age (and in fact, the only participant younger than 20 years of age). This means that only adulthood is accounted for and further research with adolescents is required to accept the hypothesis that loanwords are more easily embraced during adolescence.

### 5.2.3 Classification of Loanwords

The questionnaire in this research also included questions aimed at providing insight into the nature of the loanwords regarding the distinction between Onysko and Winter-Froemel's (2011) catachrestic and non-catachrestic innovations and cultural and core borrowings, which are elaborated on in section 2.5.4.

The synonyms and preferred alternatives to the loanwords according to the participants are stated in Table 11 in section 4.3. In general, the loanwords are not less preferred than their Dutch equivalents and are mostly considered to be catachrestic innovations. More specifically, the participants indicated that *crash* is the loanword with the most preferred alternatives as it is preferably replaced by *ongeluk* and *neerstorten*, according to nine and ten participants, respectively. This means that a considerable number of participants consider *crash* a non-catachrestic innovation (or core borrowing). However, the majority of the participants believe that *crash* has no more precise alternative Dutch expression so there is strong reason to consider *crash* a catachrestic innovation. The results also indicate that seven participants prefer *vraaggesprek* to *interview*, six participants prefer *behaald* or *gepresteerd* to *gescoord* and five participants prefer *peiling(en)* and *voorlopige uitslagen* to *exit polls*. In addition, the relatively low numbers of participants who consider these loanwords non-catachrestic or core borrowings (in fact no more than 13%) support that most loanwords are catachrestic borrowings.

The results contrast with the wordlist of superfluous English words that Koops et al. (2009) represent. Koops et al. (2009) propose that all of the loanwords (with the exception of *tweet*, which was not on the list) are non-catachrestic, while the results of this research indicate the opposite tendency. A valid explanation is that Koops et al. were motivated by purist tendencies while compiling the wordlist and that these purist tendencies are generally not shared by the participants. Additionally, the classification of the loanwords that was made by applying Onysko and Winter-Froemel's (2011) procedure also contrasts with the results. This classification contrasts with the results because *interview*, *jointje*, *website*, *gescoord*, *exit polls*, *intercity* and *privacy* were expected to be non-catachrestic.

In addition, only the loanword *crash* can be considered non-catachrestic with certainty. Firstly, the word list of Koops et al. (2009) contained *crash*. Secondly, Onysko and Winter-Froemel's procedure also indicated that *crash* was non-catachrestic. And lastly, the results showed that *crash* is the loanword which is preferably replaced by a Dutch equivalent by the highest number of participants.

To conclude, the results of this research have shown that English loanwords are not less preferred than their Dutch equivalents. In addition, most of the English loanwords that uttered by the NOS newsreader are catachrestic borrowings with the exception of *crash*, which is non-catachrestic.

#### 5.2.4 Reasons for the Preference for English loanwords

The participants indicated the reasons why the loanwords were used in their opinion. The reasons were placed in the descending order of mean scores for each loanword and are stated in Table 12 in section 4.4. Overall, the results suggest that the participants generally consider the used loanwords more precise than other Dutch words. Even though the participants indicated that most loanwords were more precise than other Dutch words, it is not clear whether they were considered more precise regarding their denotation (i.e. refer to a more specific concept) or connotation (i.e. have more appropriate associations). Furthermore, the second favoured reason is that participants consider that the used loanwords sound better regarding pronunciation.

However, the participants could choose from only four preselected motivations for use, which means that their choice was limited due to easier processing of the data and this implies that a reason other than precision could have been more popular. Moreover, reason 3, which was consistently chosen as least relevant in the ranking order may not have been clear to the participants. During the evaluation of the research, it became clear that a number of participants did not understand what reason 3 meant, which may be the reason why it was consistently last in the ranking order.

#### 5.2.5 Shortcomings

The online questionnaire which was used in this research has both important advantages and disadvantages. Even though the questionnaire proved to be an efficient instrument to obtain results, it also has a number of drawbacks. With this form of the questionnaire, it is not possible to account for the test environment with certainty; the test environment of each participant is unique and can potentially distract or influence the participants and therefore the results. Participants may also complete the questionnaire multiple times, without it ever being noticed. Moreover, the questionnaire generally took longer than ten minutes to complete, so another method needs to be chosen to examine larger quantities of loanwords. The long duration of the questionnaire can also lead to more reliable results as the participants who are less concerned or less motivated are likely to give up before finishing all of the questions.

Regarding participants, it must also be stated that age group C (which included participants between 35 and 54 years of age) stands out in two ways. Firstly, because there is a wider range than the other age groups (19 years in comparison to 7, 9 and 16 years for the other age groups). And secondly, because the number of participants in age group C is lower than the other age groups (9 in comparison to 14 or 15 in the other age groups). This is due to the low number of participants between 30 and 50 years of age.



### **5.3 Conclusion**

This research focused on a combination of variables in order to look into attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch. Firstly, the results in this research which indicate that attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch are different for female than for male participants may, hopefully, lead to more research regarding this topic. The statistically significant correlations which were found prove that the differences in attitudes do not occur by chance. Secondly, the results in this research indicate that attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch become more negative when age increases; this will not come as a surprise to many sociolinguists. However, this research may be yet another contribution that supports the theories on an increase in conservatism with age. Additionally, most loanwords in this study revealed to be catachrestic. However, this research has found that a distribution of loanwords into catachrestic and non-catachrestic innovations is not necessarily straightforward, which means that more research should be performed regarding the dichotomy of Onysko and Winter-Froemel (2011) to prove its reliability. Lastly, the results in this study suggest that the participants generally consider the used loanwords more precise than other Dutch words.

Finally, this study has provided evidence that attitudes towards English loanwords are influenced by both gender and age. I hope that the outcomes of this research prove to be useful to attitude research, loanword research or both as the topics in this thesis are all incredibly interesting and deserve more attention.

### **5.4 Implications for Further Research**

This study has shown that gender and age influence the attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch. However, there are a number of matters that must be noted, which further research may benefit from. Firstly, whereas this study only comprised a number of twelve loanwords, the addition of (many) more loanwords would signify more reliable results. Furthermore, the addition of control-statements would increase the reliability of research because such statements may be used as a reference to the results. The reliability of research would also improve if the quantity of the participants were to increase. Additionally, as the classification of loanwords into catachrestic and non-catachrestic borrowings is innovative, more research is required to support its reliability. Lastly, if one is to research the reasons for loanword use, one should include the possibility for participants to propose their own reasons.

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# Appendices

## Appendix A

Interview with NOS by Taalcentrum VU

**‘Schrijf met vlag en wimpel**

**maar hou het simpel’**

Tekst: Claudia Ruigendijk

**Begrijpelijke taal is *hot*. Toch zijn veel teksten nog altijd onnodig ingewikkeld voor het grote publiek. Hoe komt dat? En belangrijker: wat doe je eraan? NOS-eindredacteur Peter Taal: ‘Neem een voorbeeld aan de taal van het Journaal.’**

Waar ambtenaren, juristen en verzekeraars voorheen nog prat gingen op hun taaltje, mag het tegenwoordig allemaal graag wat eenvoudiger. Gewonemensentaal, is het devies. Want het zijn vaak gewone mensen die hun teksten lezen. Dan kun je beter niet aankomen met jargon, lastige zinnen en abstract taalgebruik. Maar zie daar maar eens vanaf te komen, als dat is wat je gewend bent, en iedereen om je heen ook zo schrijft. Om over het gevaar van jip-en-janneketaal nog maar niet te spreken.

### Piloten en mensen

Een middenweg, dat is de oplossing. ‘En die ligt in de taal van het Journaal’, zegt Taal. ‘Het Journaal is bedoeld voor de massa, iedereen moet het kunnen begrijpen.’ Daarom kiest de NOS voor het gebruik van alledaagse, vlotte spreektaal, die ook heel geschikt blijkt als informatieve leestaal. De teksten die de nieuwslezer op radio en tv van de autocue voorleest, verschijnen vaak in dezelfde vorm als leestekst op internet en teletekst.

Is typische schrijftaal dan helemaal overbodig? Taal: ‘Voor ons wel. Een van de stelregels bij de NOS is: schrijf zoals je het door de telefoon aan iemand zou vertellen.’ Je kiest dan vanzelf alledaagse woorden en gebruikt kortere, begrijpelijke zinnen. Bovendien zijn we de afgelopen jaren sowieso veel informeler en lossers gaan communiceren. Taal: ‘Daar moet je in meegaan, want zo kom je dichterbij het publiek, voor wie de teksten zijn bedoeld. We spreken dus niet van *gezaghebber* maar van *piloot*. En niet van *personen* maar van *mensen*.’

### Geroezemoes

Je inleven in de ontvanger, dat is waar het om gaat. Die moet een bericht in één keer kunnen begrijpen en mag niet met vragen achterblijven. Taal: ‘Laatst was er een brand na een evenement. Een redacteur had opgeschreven: *Ze hadden een vergunning, maar het liep toch uit de hand*. Hoezo ‘maar’, vroeg ik, want waar zit de tegenstelling dan in? Een typisch geval van een onlogische gedachtegang en van te veel kwijt willen in één zin.’

Vandaar de opdracht aan alle redacteurs om alle nieuwsberichten eerst aan zichzelf voor te lezen en zich voor te stellen dat ze deze voor het eerst horen. Taal: ‘Op de redactie zou je eigenlijk continu geroezemoes en gemompel moeten horen. Helaas hoor ik dat niet vaak genoeg en vervallen redacteurs dus nog wel eens in onlogische, omslachtige en vormelijke schrijftaal.’

### Schrijfkrimp

Volgens Taal heeft dat ook te maken met iets wat hij ‘schrijfkrimp’ noemt: zodra mensen een toetsenbord aanraken, vervallen ze al snel in zinnen als ‘De politie trof ter plaatse drie dodelijke slachtoffers aan’. Terwijl je zou zeggen, en dus ook moet schrijven: ‘De politie vond daar drie doden.’ Taal: ‘Ik denk dat ze bang zijn om de officiële terminologie los te laten, dat het jip-en-janneketaal wordt. Onzin. Je gaat met gewonemensentaal niet op je hurken zitten, maar op gelijke hoogte staan met de ontvanger.’

Als iedereen voortaan schrijft in de taal van het Journaal, zouden er een hoop meer tevreden lezers zijn. Al is die taal toch niet voor alle communicatiedoelstellingen even geschikt. Taal: ‘In de zakenwereld kan schrijftaal wenselijk zijn, omdat de schrijver *gezaghebbend* wil overkomen, of omdat er sprake is van een formele relatie. En als je voor een vakgenoot schrijft, is jargon natuurlijk geen enkel probleem.’ Er is dus niets mis met af en toe een beetje zakelijke schrijverij. Als je maar raak geformuleert en als de boodschap maar overkomt. Taal: ‘Mijn motto, met dank aan Van Kooten en De Bie: schrijf met vlag en wimpel, maar hou het simpel.’

### Inspiratie: de tien schrijfgeboden van het NOS Journaal

1. Stel je op als de ontvanger van je verhaal: die wil een bericht niet terug hoeven lezen of luisteren om het nieuws te begrijpen.
2. Zorg voor een korte, krachtige openingszin waarin direct het belang van het nieuws voor de luisteraar en kijker duidelijk wordt.
3. Laat irrelevante informatie weg. Een nieuwsbericht hoeft niet per se volledig te zijn, als bepaalde informatie niets toevoegt.
4. Vermijd lange zinnen en bijzinnen: die halen de vaart uit je verhaal. Bovendien zijn ze moeilijk om in één keer te begrijpen en dus ook voor te lezen.
5. Vermijd de lijdende vorm, behalve als die meer spanning in de zin kan brengen (De Tour de France is gewonnen door...).
6. Voorkom jargon en vaag taalgebruik. Daarmee zadel je de luisteraar en kijker op met een puzzel.
7. Vermijd clichés en dorre feitelijkheden. Vraag jezelf altijd af: zou ik het zo vertellen als ik dit nieuws telefonisch aan iemand doorgeef?
8. Vermijd vormelijke en ouderwetse woorden als *plaatsvinden*, *verrichten*, *wegens*, *echter*, *aanvankelijk*, *omstreeks*, *et cetera*. Dit is geen gewonemensentaal.
9. Wees spaarzaam met subjectieve grote woorden als *verschrikkelijk* of *gigantisch*, en met beeldspraak. Daarmee vlieg je snel uit de bocht.
10. Lees je bericht aan jezelf, of liever nog aan een collega voor om te controleren of er niets wringt aan je tekst.



## Appendix B

### E-mail conversation with Peter Taal, editor-in-chief and chairman of the language commission of the NOS

Beste Wouter,

Veel van de journaalteksten worden inderdaad geschreven door de presentator/nieuwslezer. Een redacteur levert aan, maar degene die de tekst moet uitspreken maakt die vaak wat beter 'bekkend', zoals dat wordt genoemd: een zin wordt ingekort of opgehakt, de woordvolgorde of woordkeus wordt aangepast, alles om de tekst zo naturel en spreektaalig mogelijk te laten klinken.

Als het goed is, wordt die tekst altijd nog door de eindredacteur van dienst bekeken (en voor tv ook door de regie), maar in haast voor een uitzending schiet dat er soms bij in ( en schiet er wel eens een fout in).

Het journaal van 12.00 uur duurt, net als de eerdere ochtendjournaals, 10 minuten, maar heeft meestal wel een 'kortjesblok', omdat het al een beetje een opronding van de ochtend is.

Het journaal van 13.00 uur is het 'Achtuurjournaal van de ochtend'. Het duurt een kwartier, heeft dubbelpresentatie (10 minuten nieuws en 5 minuten sport) en geeft het overzicht van het nieuws uit de ochtend (en soms bij groot nieuws ook nog van de avond ervoor, met reacties e.d.).

Het journaal van 20.00 uur is echt een dagoverzicht van ruim 20 minuten, met drie grote onderwerpen, een blokje kortere berichten, en een uitgebreid weerbericht.

Met groet,

Peter Taal

22-05-2014 16:57 Email reactie:

Sender: woutervanderv@hotmail.com

Date received: May 22, 2014 4:55 PM

Recipient: "publieksreacties@nos.nl" <publieksreacties@nos.nl>

Subject: RE: Antwoord op Vraag bij ons geregistreerd onder nummer: 1403 1741

Beste heer/mevrouw.

Inmiddels enige tijd geleden had ik de onderstaande uitwisseling met de NOS. Nu merk ik dat ik nog twee dingen niet heb kunnen vinden. Allereerst: Worden de voorgelezen teksten bij de journaals geschreven door de nieuwslezers? Zo ja, worden deze nog gecontroleerd door iemand (bijvoorbeeld door Peter Taal)? En zo niet, wie schrijft ze dan?

Ten tweede. Wat zijn ongeveer de globale verschillen tussen de journaals van, respectievelijk, 12:00, 13:00 en 20:00 (behalve het feit dat ze op andere tijdstippen uitgezonden worden).

Alvast bedankt voor uw antwoord.

Met vriendelijke groet,

Wouter van der Vegt

20-03-2014 14:33 Email reactie:

Sender: RedactieBureau.Nieuws@nos.nl

Date received: Mar 20, 2014 2:28 PM

Recipient: NOS Publieksvoorlichting <publieksreacties@nos.nl>

Subject: FW: Graag antwoord op publieksvraag 1403 1741 Onderwerp: Engels

Beste Wouter van der Vegt

De NOS heeft geen (uitgeschreven) beleid voor het gebruik van Engelse leenwoorden. De enige stelregel is eigenlijk: schiet niet door

in het gebruik van Engels en gebruik bij voorkeur Nederlandse woorden.

Lekker vaag natuurlijk, maar wij bedoelen dat in een nieuwsverhaal over contante betalingen in winkels best een keer het woord 'cash' mag vallen, maar dat dat niet het enige woord voor contact betalen in dat verhaal mag zijn.

Dat er een verschil is tussen de website en de journaals willen wij best geloven. In een artikel op de site schrijven we minder bekende Engelse woorden cursief, om te benadrukken dat het geen alledaags Nederlands is. Het woord burn-out is al zo ingeburgerd dat het daarbij niet zal gebeuren, maar een woord als cluster fuck zullen we wel cursief doen? Mensen kunnen dan zelf besluiten of ze er even het (digitale?) woordenboek bij halen. Die hebben daar de tijd voor.

Voor gesproken journaals geldt de regel: gebruik geen woorden die afleiden van het verhaal of die te onbekend zijn of die raar klinken, want dan ben je de aandacht van de kijker of luisteraar kwijt. Op de site kun je de Dutch Dairymen Board noemen, omdat die organisatie officieel zo heet, maar op tv of radio zullen we daar 'de vereniging van melkveehouders DDB' of iets dergelijks van maken.

Want heldere communicatie staat bij ons voorop. En die bereik je doorgaans door Nederlandse woorden te gebruiken, maar omdat het Nederlands steeds meer wordt verrijkt met Engelse leenwoorden (wij zien dat niet als verarming), gaan wij als NOS met onze tijd en onze taal mee.

Bijgevoegd twee interviews (dat woord gebruiken we vaker dan 'vraaggesprekken', denk ik) over het taalgebruik van de NOS en een intern 'schrijf-memo'. Misschien kun je daar iets mee.

Succes met je studie en vriendelijke groet,

Peter Taal,

namens de NOS Taalcommissie

Van: Redactie bureau Nieuws

Verzonden: donderdag 20 maart 2014 13:13

Aan: Ronald Boot; Peter Taal

Onderwerp: FW: Graag antwoord op publieksvraag 1403 1741 Onderwerp: Engels

=====

Naam: Wouter van der Vegt

E-mail: woutervanderv@hotmail.com

18-03-2014 17:07 Reactie website:

Geachte heer/mevrouw.

Voor de afronding van mijn master English Language and Linguistics (Taalwetenschappen) aan de Universiteit Leiden doe ik onderzoek naar het gebruik van Engelse leenwoorden in het Nederlands. Een van de bronnen die ik gebruik om aan voorbeelden te komen is het jaarnaal van de NOS.

Ik lees in het document '15 veelgestelde taalvragen' op uw site dat een uitleg gegeven wordt over de voorkeur voor het gebruik van ingeburgerde, Engelse, woorden ten opzichte van, ongebruikelijke, Nederlandse alternatieven. Nu valt het mij op dat in de internetartikelen veelvuldig gebruik wordt gemaakt van Engelse (leen)woorden, meer dan in de journaals op televisie. Nu is mijn vraag: Is er een (gedetailleerd) beleid voor het gebruik van Engelse woorden in internetberichten ten opzichte van de berichten in journaals? Of wordt er voor beide varianten een ander beleid gehanteerd?

Daarnaast zou ik graag alle informatie ontvangen over het gebruik van zowel Nederlands als Engels bij de NOS die nog niet genoemd wordt op de site van de NOS. Mocht dit mogelijk zijn, in welke mate dan ook, zou ik het zeer waarderen als ik dit mag gebruiken voor mijn onderzoek.

Met vriendelijke groet,

Wouter van der Vegt

## Appendix C

### Questionnaire: Context Loanwords

1. Interview – NOS en RLT Nieuws gaan samen het interview doen met Koning Willem-Alexander en Prinses Maxima.
2. Superfood – Het voedingscentrum waarschuwt voor superfoods, zoals tarwegras en hennepzaad.
3. Skimming – Banken hebben betaalautomaten aangepast om skimming tegen te gaan
4. Crash – Er werd tot nu toe op zee gezocht naar het vliegtuig. Bovendien zou een crash op land door de stof en rook zijn opgevallen.
5. Jointje - Sinds het begin dit jaar mogen volwassenen in Colorado een jointje roken.
6. Website – Het hele verslag met onze correspondent is te zien op onze website.
7. Gescoord - Leerlingen in groep 8 van het basisonderwijs hebben dit jaar gemiddeld iets lager gescoord voor hun cito-toets.
8. Tweet –Dit is de tweet die het bestuurslid in woede verstuurde.
9. Exit Poll – Een officiële uitslag is er nog niet maar exit polls zeggen dat de inwoners van de Krim zich massaal hebben uitgesproken voor aansluiting bij Rusland.
10. Grillroom – Een grote brand vanochtend vroeg in een grillroom in de haven van Volendam.
11. Intercity – De NS bouwde eerder al 50 dubbeldeks stoptreinen om tot intercity.
12. Privacy – Gebruikers van de berichtendienst Whatsapp hoeven zich na de overname door Facebook echt geen zorgen te maken over hun privacy.

## Appendix D

### Questionnaire: Translation of questions section one, example of *interview*

Answer the following questions. The questions refer to the use of the word “interview” in the following sentence.

"De NOS en RTL Nieuws gaan samen het interview doen met Koning Willem-Alexander en Prinses Maxima."

1.

Do you know any other words that you can use instead of “interview” which do not change the meaning of the sentence?  
If you do, which word or which words?

No

Yes, namely:

2.

Would you prefer an alternative word to “interview” in this sentence?  
If you do, which word or which words? \*

No

Yes, namely:

3.

Indicate whether you agree with the following statements.

You can choose from: Completely disagree – Partly disagree – Neutral – Partly agree – Completely agree and No Opinion.

|   | Completely disagree   |                       |                       | Completely agree      |                       |                       | No opinion               |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| This is an ordinary Dutch sentence.                           | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The use of “[loanword]” is appropriate in this sentence.      | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The word “[loanword]” is more precise than other Dutch words. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The word “[loanword]” sounds better regarding pronunciation.  | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The word “[loanword]” is used in an abnormal way.             | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The word “[loanword]” is used here to draw more attention.    | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I would also make use of this sentence.                       | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

## Appendix E

### Questionnaire: Translation of questions section two

37.

What is your age in years?\*

38.

Are you a

- Male
- Female

39.

What is your highest education?\*

- Primary education
- Secondary education
- Vocational Education
- University of Applied Sciences
- University (Bachelor)
- University (Master)
- Higher than the above
- Other, namely:

40.

Is Dutch your first language?

- Yes
- No, my first language is:

41.

If Dutch is not your first language, what describes your general proficiency in Dutch?

- Not appropriate, Dutch is my first language.
- Fluent
- Advanced
- Sufficient
- Poor

42.

What is your general level of English proficiency?

- It is my first language
- Fluent
- Advanced
- Intermediate
- Poor

43.

Indicate whether you agree with the following statements.

You can choose from: Completely disagree – Partly disagree – Neutral – Partly agree – Completely agree.

|  | Completely disagree   |                       |                       |                       | Completely agree      |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| I am familiar with the NOS news broadcasts.          | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I am quite positive about the NOS news broadcasts.   | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I think the NOS newsreader speak exemplary Dutch.    | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I think English is a nice language.                  | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I think English is an important language.            | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I think it is important to be able to speak English. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| English words do not belong in the Dutch language    | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Foreign words pollute the Dutch language.            | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

44.

Do you have any particularly positive or negative experiences with the English language (an acquaintance, favourite series or an unpleasant teacher)?

- No
- Yes, namely:

45.

Where there any questions in this questionnaire that you did not fully understand?

- No
- Yes, namely:

46.

Did anything occur during your answering the questions that distracted you?

- No
- Yes, namely: