DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION AND MEDIA RESEARCH

Intranational cross-cultural adaptation of communication style on brand attitude

An exploration of communication style localization on social media to within-country cross-cultural differences in Switzerland

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Abstract

Fast-paced changes and emergent consumer behaviors incited by social media have driven businesses to revise their understanding of consumers. The potency of these platforms for developing, altering and improving consumers' brand attitude has led to a growing number of firms engaging with their consumers on social media. In some cases, firms facing audiences in multilingual countries have to choose between the use of multiple languages, or of a unique language to substitute them. Language has been found to be a factor of distinction between cultures, both internationally and on an intranational level. The prevalent approach in cross-cultural research has been the use of nation as a proxy for culture, hereby slighting within-country heterogeneity. Consequently, understanding of within-country adaptation, or conversely standardization, is limited. This study therefore seeks to address this gap by exploring the effects of various cultural and linguistic social media strategies on brand attitude. An experimental quantitative design was used to analyze the effects of culturally (in)congruent communication styles, translation quality and the use of English as a (*multi*)*lingua franca* in a Swiss retailer's manipulated Instagram post captions on French-speaking Swiss participants' brand attitude. The findings of this study thus suggest standardization of communication style across Switzerland to be acceptable with regards to brand attitude, for no significant difference was found. Moreover, results also imply that English could substitute national languages in Instagram captions as a (*multi*)*lingua franca*. These findings entail potential cost-saving strategies for firms addressing multilingual and multicultural audiences in Switzerland, and potentially in other countries.

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1. Introduction

The ramifications the advent of social media have had on contemporary digital spaces and marketplaces are paradoxically undeniable yet impugned in certain spheres (Dwivedi & McDonald, 2020; Anjorin, Raji & Olodo, 2024). Scholars examining the effects of social media and social media marketing might take one of two positions; while some question the effectiveness of social media investments, others argue that lack of results stems from gaps in marketers' understanding of consumers' behaviors online (Wei, 2024).

In spite of this existing skepticism, reality has witnessed increasing efforts from organizations across the board in developing a social media presence and social media strategies (Sundararaj & Rejeesh, 2021). Amidst the many businesses engaging in such activities, brands and the retail industry at large have sought to capture the opportunities brought forth by these new digital platforms (Anjorin, Raji & Olodo, 2024). Indeed, the important evolutions in consumer behavior led by the rapid growth of new online media have engendered undeniable implications for both managers and scholars (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016). Yearly increases in the number of active social media users and time spent on such platforms are not only altering users' consumption behaviors, but also their online behaviors. For the past decade, social media has gradually become internet users' pathway to brands and companies, for they use these platforms in lieu of search engines (Meltwater, 2023). Moreover, social media algorithms such as TikTok's can function as search engines (Hughes, 2024), and a progressing part of younger users are seemingly using it over Google when searching certain topics (Huang, 2022).

Users increasingly rely on social media at every step of their purchasing process. At the very root of it, social media as an external stimuli can trigger product needs, which in turn leads users to research products to satisfy their newfound needs. Social media can consequently be used to discover and gather information about products, their alternatives and competing brands, to consult product reviews from peers or social media influencers. Ultimately, these steps will inform and guide users in their purchase decisions (Bae & Zamrudi 2018; Mason, Narcum & Mason, 2021). Social media has therefore become intertwined with every step of the customer's buying process, allowing businesses to be more connected to them than ever before (Anjorin, Raji & Olodo, 2024). Moreover, social media marketing can allow firms to create content tailored to their prospects and customers' needs, rendering their activities more effective as a result (Salhab, Al-Amarneh, Aljabaly, Zoubi, & Othman, 2023).

Not only can firms' social media marketing influence users' purchasing processes, but social media as platforms themselves play a growing role. The selling and purchasing of products through social media – s-commerce – has become feasible through specific affordances on certain platforms, notably Instagram (Jayadi, Putra & Murwani, 2022) and TikTok (Andon & Annuar, 2023). On one hand, s-commerce allows retailers to promote and sell their products, and on the other hand, it allows users to buy products and track their purchases within the social media application (Andon & Annuar, 2023; Wiryawan, Suhartono, Luhukay, Karmawan & Gui, 2023). Amongst the various factors responsible for influencing s-commerce purchasing decisions, information quality – about the product attributes or the brand – has been found to be relevant (Hidayat, Fernando & Pangaribuan, 2022), highlighting the importance for brands and retailers to engage in social media marketing – that is, the integration of social media in promotional activities (Jamil et al., 2022).

These new and evolving behaviors are consequently urging "retailers (…) to rethink their approach to succeeding online" (Meltwater, 2023, p. 29). Over the years, retailers and companies at large have consequently realized the potential and importance of being present on social media (Copuš, & Čarnogurský, 2017). Indeed, opening direct contact channels and engaging in company-audience cocreation has proven fruitful, and two-way communication between both aforementioned parties has now become more important than ever (Tuten & Solomon, 2013). This heightened engagement and increased interactions between customers and firm have been linked to strong relationships (Gutierrez et al., 2023), brand loyalty, firm performance (Li, Kim & Choi, 2021), customer satisfaction (Ramanathan, Subramanian & Parrott, 2017) and customer experience (Anjorin, Raji & Olodo, 2024), as well as brand attitude (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016; Wei, 2024).

Brand attitude refers to consumers overall evaluations of a brand which predispose their responses to the brand's activities (Keller, 1993; Wei, 2024). The importance of brand attitude notably lies in its relation to brand equity, which has been defined as "the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand" (Keller, 1993, p. 8). It is to note, however, that this relationship between brand attitude and brand equity is indirect (Faircloth, Capella & Alford, 2001). Through this indirect relation, brand attitude has also been linked to brand loyalty (Taylor, Celuch and Goodwin, 2004), shown to have both direct and indirect positive effects for companies (Palmatier & Sridhar, 2021). More specifically on social media, brand attitude has also been related to brand loyalty through the mediation of social media brand love (Arghashi, Bozbay & Karami, 2021).

Insofar as attitudes are evaluations of objects against a standard, they are learnt through others, or through the acquisition of information, which thereby implies they can also be changed through information (Potter, 2017). The relevance of social media marketing hence lies in its ability to either generate, trigger or alter existing brand attitudes in consumers (Wei, 2024). These findings are consistent with Schivinski and Dabrowski's (2016), who similarly found that firm-generated social media content – as well as user-generated – has an effect on brand attitude.

Social media communication as part of brand management thus cannot be overlooked. Additionally, firms which operate internationally across diverse markets face a further substantial challenge, that of cross-cultural differences, which might be cause for adaptation or localization, as opposed to standardization. The influence of culture on social media users has notably been observed with regards to the collectivism-individualism dichotomy. According to Sohaib and Han (2023), differences in the value attributed to either individual or group well-being can impact users' behaviors on social media. Indeed, Mattison Thompson and Brouthers (2021) have found high individualism, potentially explained by extraversion, to be linked to increased sharing behaviors on social media. The authors also found significant effects of other cultural dimensions on clicking and sharing behaviors. More recently, scholars have identified the abovementioned dichotomy to impact purchase intentions through s-commerce; high collectivism was more strongly correlated to purchase intentions on social media than high individualism (Agag et al., 2024).

Collectivism when combined with the cultural dimension of power distance – which refers to the propensity to accept inequalities in a given society – has also been found to affect information search. In these cultures, individuals are more likely to trust information acquired through their group (Goodrich & De Mooij, 2013) – which can thereby impact the purchasing process and the development of attitudes, as consistent with (Mason, Narcum & Mason, 2021; Wei, 2024). Goodrich and De Mooij (2013) also highlighted the role of other cultural dimensions – uncertainty avoidance and long-term orientation – in online purchasing processes.

With regards to communication, differences across markets can also arise as the simple manifestation of language barriers. However, adaptation can require more than simple language translation, for language is an inherent element of culture (Usunier & Lee, 2012). De Mooij (2004) argues that, contradictory to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, which states that language shapes individuals' perceptions of the world and therefore their culture, the causal relationship occurs in the opposite direction. Through its normative quality, culture influences the way individuals behave with one another and hence communicate (Gudykunst et al., 1996).

Moreover, culture not only influences communication, but language as well, for language conveys meaning likely to refer to culture-specific symbolic referents, such as myths and history, as well as cultural values (De Mooij, 2004). The study of anthropology is strongly based on this link, and emphasizes the importance of learning the symbols and associations conveyed by language when seeking to understand a culture (Bradby, 2002).

Being based on language (Usunier & Lee, 2012), advertising is the marketing activity most frequently adapted to local markets as a result of culture (Powers & Loyka, 2010). Translation work is therefore critical in this regard. Séguinot (1955, as cited in Valdés Rodríguez, 2016) hence stated that "translators need to understand the basics of marketing; they need to know how cultural differences affect marketing; they must be aware of constraints placed by the form and functions of the source text" (p. 133). Such requirements consequently require internationalizing firms to heavily invest in translation processes. As a counterstrategy, the use of English across markets has been raised as a potential cost- and time-saving solution. However, the practice seems to be rather precarious for its benefits vary across contexts (Hornikx, Van Meurs, & De Boer, 2010; Miguel Alcantara-Pilar, Sánchez-Duarte, Rodríguez-López & Abdel-Lah, 2023) and are dependent on English understanding competencies (Valdés Rodríguez, 2016; De Mooij, 2004).

For English is yet to be systematically successful in advertising (Pagani, Goldsmith & Perracchio, 2015), translation and its inherent cultural understanding remain important. Cross-cultural differences and the need for message adaptation have been researched both on an international basis across countries, as well as within. Within-country cultural differences have however rarely been the object of scholarly studies as "many international marketing studies routinely treat the 'nation' as a homogeneous entity" (Poulis & Poulis, 2013, p. 358).

Yet, research has repeatedly identified the existence of within-country cultural differences (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010; Kaasa, Vadi & Varblane, 2014; Minkov & Hofstede, 2014). Reasons for intranational differences are many, language being one of them (Akaliyski, Welzel, Bond & Minkov, 2021). As such, companies operating on a national scale in multilingual countries face culturally and linguistically diverse audiences, which might necessitate catered approaches and strategies (Poulis & Poulis, 2013; Detienne, 2023).

A few studies which examine within-country cultural differences have recommended managerial considerations of intranational variation. Consumers with high collectivism, who therefore strive for harmony within their groups, are more heavily affected by social influence than individualistic consumers. Kongsompong, Green and Patterson (2009) therefore suggested

that “degree of collectivism may be a relevant segmentation variable even within countries” (p. 148). Hewett and Allman (2020) reached a similar conclusion with respect to self-construals and cognitive styles. Self-construals refer to the mindset in which individuals view their identities, either distinct from other – independent – or connected to others – interdependent. These self-construals have been found to be related to individualism and collectivism respectively (Usunier & Lee, 2012). Building upon previous research, Hewett and Allman (2020) linked both mindsets to differing cognitive style; an independent self-construal was associated with an analytic style, whereas an interdependent self-construal was associated with a holistic style. The authors found a significant difference in the way individuals with either analytical or holistic thinking evaluated brands – or in others words, their brand attitude (Wei, 2024). As intranational variation is extant, they underscored the need to consider within-country cultural differences.

Further evidence on the positive effect of cultural adaptation on brand attitude has been researched extensively in other domains, namely advertising (Polegato & Bjerke, 2006) as well as online websites (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010). However, research with regards to cultural adaptation on social media and brand attitudes in still scarce, though argued for (Copuš, & Čarnogurský, 2017).

Intranational adaptation on social media, albeit only linguistic, has nonetheless been observed in (Detienne, 2023). Faced with plurilingual audiences – in the presented study, in Belgium and Switzerland – brands varyingly opt for one of three strategies. The most common strategy for the brands examined was the use of the entire set of national languages, which the author posited as a way not to favor a specific linguistic community. In some cases however, one national language could be used over the others depending on the target audience. Finally, English – despite not being a national language in any of the nations studied – was also used in specific content formats. Although they have been observed, these different strategies’ effectiveness have yet to have been examined.

As has been presented in the aforementioned studies, the body of research on within-country cultural variation remains rather slim (Taras, Steel & Kirkman, 2016), and most particularly with regards to social media marketing (Alshoaibi, 2021). Nonetheless, social media marketing and brand attitude have been linked, as previously presented in (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016) and (Arghashi, Bozbay & Karami, 2021). Research has moreover found a specific social media marketing activity to be associated with users’ “[receptivity] to receiving information and learning about products” (Gardner, Hair & Melancon, 2022, p. 62), which as developed *supra*

is primordial in forming or changing attitudes. Linking these findings to Hewett and Allman's (2020), the cultural adaptation of social media communications to within-country variations rises as a potentially worthwhile effort for the shaping of brand attitude as a marketing objective.

This study thereby seeks to determine the nature, if yet the existence, of the effects of (perceived) cultural adaptation of social media message characteristics on brand attitude through a cultural and linguistic heterogeneity lens. Ergo, the present work aims at contributing to both academic knowledge and managerial practice. On the one hand, it strives to fill part of the knowledge gap in the debate on standardization vs. adaptation to within-country cultural differences with regards to communication beyond translation. On the other hand, it extends on previous observations of diverse approaches to multilingual audiences on social media (Detienne, 2023) and provides practical insight to the strategic potential of these practices.

With this goal, causal and mediatory links between culture, communication style and brand attitude are therefore posited. A quantitative, experimental design to find support for these hypotheses using analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) was thus developed using the Swiss retail industry. Within-country cultural heterogeneity in Switzerland has been quantified in a couple of studies (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010; Minkov & Hofstede, 2014) and manifests occasionally with regards to social and political discussions in the country (Eugster, Lalive, Steinhauer & Zweimüller, 2017). In order to fit the hypotheses formulated, the experimental design of this study uses the local department store chain Manor, which operates at a national level, in all four linguistic regions of Switzerland (Manor, n.d.-a), and employs both national languages and English in their social media communication (Manor, n.d-b).

Although various cultural models and formulae have been developed, this study employs Hofstede's (2001) framework – used in identifying intranational cultural differences in Switzerland (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010) – alongside Hall's (1976/1989) high-low context communication theory. These models are bridged with Gudykunst et al.'s (1996) contributions in De Mooij's (2004) framework for preferred communication and advertising styles, which serve as the basis for this study's manipulations.

These various works are presented in the subsequent chapter as part of a wider – yet uncomprehensive – literature review, which pores over the concept of culture and the differences across and within nations of its manifestations, more particularly with reference to cross-cultural communication and language. The longstanding debate opposing standardization and adaptation subsequently links to the question of cultural variation and brand attitude on

social media. Information on the specific frame of this study – Switzerland – is presented in a later section to provide context for the hypotheses outlined therein and the experimental method, itself developed in its designated chapter. Collected data and results are presented and discussed in a later section. This study finally concludes with addressing its findings, limitations and the potential avenues it identifies for future research.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Culture

The term *culture* as it is used today has emerged as the result of multiple evolutions and linguistic borrowings (Oxford English Dictionary, n.d.). Over the centuries, the notion of culture most relevant to this study – as opposed to its meaning of cultivating land – has adopted meanings from French *culture* and German *kultur*, which can both be traced back to their Latin root *cultura*, to now refer to "the distinctive ideas, customs, social behaviour, products, or way of life of a particular nation, society, people, or period." (Oxford English Dictionary, n.d., III.7.a.).

Academically, proposed definitions for the notion are numerous (Usunier & Lee, 2012). The common definition of culture cited hereinabove seemingly echoes Linton's (1998), who suggested it to be "the configuration of learned behavior and results of behavior whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society" (p. 21). Each element of this definition serves the purpose of limiting what is and is not to be considered as part of culture, while simultaneously allowing it to be immensely broad. Indeed, *behavior* for the author are both physical and psychological in nature, and *results of behavior* include not only material productions but also the psychological consequences of said behaviors – that is "attitudes, value systems and knowledge" (Linton, 1998, p. 22). These behaviors are influenced by the society an individual lives in as they are transmitted and taught, and consequently shared. Nonetheless, theses behaviors can vary while still remaining acceptable to the group, for they occur as a result of stimuli, two of which are never the same. As such, a given behavior can fall within or without a specific range which is recognized by one's society. These sets of accepted behaviors thus shape the form with which an individual lives in their society.

Geertz' (1973) conception of culture echoes Linton's (1988) insofar as culture patterns, or "significant symbols" (p. 45) as he described them, are used by individuals "spontaneously and with ease (…) to orient [themselves]" (p. 45). In other words, both Linton and Geertz viewed culture as aiding individuals perpetrating "everyday tasks" (Usunier & Lee, 2012, p. 5) by filling an "information gap" (Geertz, 1973, p. 50). Geertz, as opposed to Linton however, took a perhaps stronger stance on culture by arguing its otherwise lack thereof would imply chaos. Indeed, he asserted that cultural patterns, as one of several other mechanisms, has shaped the human species itself by granting it an evolutionary advantage. Therefore, culture as seen by Geertz is an intrinsic, "essential condition" (p. 46) to human nature, without which humans would be "incomplete or unfinished animals" (p. 49).

Geertz' (1973) views hold commonalities with Hofstede's (2001) as the latter stated that society can only function through shared "mental programs" (p. 1), which mirror computer programs in defining how the machines run, and play a similar role to Geertz' culture patterns. Within this frame coined "software of the mind" (p. 2), Hofstede defined human nature as shared by all, and thus universal and inherited. Culture on the other hand is defined as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (p. 9). In other words, culture is thus learnt – a definition in par with Linton's (1998) and Geertz'.

The notion that culture is specific to a group highlights the diversity and plurality of what is considered to be correct. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961, as cited in Usunier & Lee, 2012) referred to this plethora of norms as differentially preferred solutions to common human problems. These problems, of which there is a limited number, are defined by their universality across humankind and for which there exists an array – though limited – of possible solutions. It is then each group's preference for one solution that distinguishes it from other groups or cultures (Usunier & Lee, 2012).

These few perspectives on the notion of culture seemingly converge towards a consensus that culture influences individuals' behaviors, allowing for the creation and maintenance of social systems. Nevertheless, culture's breadth of influence remains limited. According to Wong and Lee (2017), culture is only one of many factors influencing personal values, along with genetics and one's environment. Similarly, Linton (1988) emphasized that a significant level of autonomy or individuality remains untouched by culture. Moreover, this individuality represents an important ability of humankind insofar as it allows for adaptability, as "no environment is ever completely static" (p. 15). On a cross-national scale, changes in the

environment can originate from two forces, the natural environment itself or human beings – forces which in turn indirectly influence societal norms and, when analyzed through a historical lens, are the sources of intra- and intercultural differences (Hofstede, 2001). As such, the next sections present the various models and conceptualizations of cultural differences and dimensions.

2.1.1. Cross-Cultural Differences Across Nations

Sometimes used interchangeably, intercultural and cross-cultural approaches ought to be distinguished; their definitions might however differ depending on the field of research or the author devising them. According to Usunier (1998) in the field of management, a cross-cultural approach is comparative and "aims to emphasize what is country specific and what is universal" (Usunier, 1998, p. 9). Consistent with this definition, Guitel (2006) viewed cross-cultural studies as comparing cultures on the basis of a set of characteristics. Similarly in the field of communication, a cross-cultural approach refers to the comparison between (sub-)cultures (Kim, 2001; Aneas & Sandín, 2009; Merkin, 2017).

Although these scholars concurred on the notion of cross-cultural approaches across their various fields of studies, they offered differing definitions for intercultural studies. Going back to Usunier (1998), the author suggested that an intercultural approach is one which focuses on the interactions between individuals of different cultural backgrounds; this definition is specifically offered within the field of export management. This notion of interaction was reprised by Guitel (2006), but was applied to the various types of cultures which exist within one country, such as corporate culture, and whose interactions therefore influence behaviors. Furthermore in cultural communication studies, Kim (2001) defined intercultural communication as "the communication process in which individual participants of differing cultural backgrounds come into direct contact and interaction with one another." (p. 140). These definitions therefore seem to reach a consensus. However, in the field of communication, an intercultural approach is considered the main domain of analysis, of which cross-cultural communication approaches would be a subfield (Merkin, 2017). Within this main domain, cross-cultural communication analysis differs from cultural approaches, which focus on one country's communication specifically (Aneas & Sandín, 2009). Despite these differences, the present study focuses on comparing (sub-)cultures and identifying the characteristics along

which they differ, which therefore relates to a cross-cultural approach, the definition of which is rather consensual.

Throughout the years, many scholars have proposed their own definition of cross-cultural differences, articulating various dimensions along which cultures could vary. According to Lewis (2006), this exercise of categorizing cultures is valuable, for it allows to better understand and predict (cultural) behaviors and facilitates cooperation between nations. Hereafter are presented various conceptualizations of culture and its dimensions.

Arguably one of the most prominent and comprehensive approach to culture (Magnani, 2022) is Hofstede's 1980 (as cited in Hofstede, 2001) work. Starting his research in 1966, Hofstede developed his four-, then six-dimensional model using data collected from IBM employees in over seventy countries. His findings undeniably impacted cross-cultural research, as the author developed in a (2001) ad-hoc chapter. Since the study's first publication, Hofstede's model, which has been replicated and validated, consists of the following dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, and long- vs. short-term orientation, a fifth dimension which was added subsequently (2001). Since then, the sixth dimension of indulgence vs. restraint has been added to the model (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

The first identified dimension is referred to as power distance (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). Simply put, this cultural dimensions refers to societies' beliefs and norms regarding "human inequality [, which] can occur in areas such as prestige, wealth, and power" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 79). Societies or cultures can thus differ in how they accept – or conversely reject – inequal distribution of power in relationship, whether they be familial, professional, or societal in general (Usunier & Lee, 2012).

The second cultural dimension identified by Hofstede (2001) is that of uncertainty avoidance, which refers to the way in which cultures behave, react to, and adapt to cope with uncertainty (Usunier & Lee, 2012). While some societies "aim to reduce it" (Usunier & Lee, 2012, p. 50), others simply deal with its consequences rather than try to exert power over it.

As conceptualized by other scholars before, the following dimension opposes individualism and collectivism. This dichotomy refers to interpersonal relationships and group boundaries. Individualism denotes a society in which its members are "expected to take care of their own and their immediate family's need" (Usunier & Lee, 2012, p. 49). Consequently, the smallest unit in such societies is the individual (Hofstede, 2001). Conversely, collectivist societies are

characterized by tight-knit ingroup cohesion and social bonds, which implies strong loyalty as well as interdependence. As such, the smallest unit is these societies is the nuclear family (Hofstede, 2001).

The next dimension to note is masculinity vs. femininity. This dimension is built upon an average observation of men and women's diverging goals and roles in society (Hofstede, 2001). Men's pursuit of "ego goals" (p. 49) reflects in the masculinity pole of this dimension through an "emphasis (...) on assertiveness, money, showing off possessions and caring less about the welfare of others." (Usunier & Lee, 2012, p. 50). In opposition to this, the feminine pole reflects womanly goals for social relationships (Hofstede, 2001) and societies are conversely more caring for others. These cultures are further distinguished with regards to gender roles, which are more highly differentiated in masculine societies than in feminine societies (Usunier & Lee, 2012). This dimension has since been renamed to *motivation towards achievement and success* (Hofstede-Insights, n.d.).

As touched on previously, the fifth dimension of Hofstede's (2001) model was added ulteriorly. The later addition of this dimension was explained by Hofstede as a Western bias in the developing of the surveys used in his research. To balance this bias, subsequent iterations of the survey introduced an Eastern bias in the form of a Chinese Value Survey (CVS) (Usunier & Lee, 2012). A dimension identified in the CVS data was not accounted for by Hofstede's model, a dimension which was thus coined long- vs. short-term orientation (Hofstede, 2001). Long-term orientation characterizes cultures which hold future-oriented values, and hence have a higher propensity for saving money, reporting rewards and success to the future, and thrifting. Conversely, short-term oriented cultures value past- and present-oriented values, such as traditions or "fulfilling social obligations" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 359).

Finally, a sixth dimension was added to the model: indulgence vs. severity, investigated by Minkov in his research on well-being (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). The poles of this dimension were highly predictive of happiness, in that the authors defined indulgence as "[standing] for a tendency to allow relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun." (p. 281). Cultures high in indulgence thereby show a higher propensity for spending money. On the opposite side of the spectrum, cultures high in severity are much more restrained and restrictive, and believe that the leisurely gratifications enjoyed by indulgent cultures are wrong. The authors additionally highlighted a slim yet sensical correlation with national wealth, in that "restraint is somewhat more likely under poverty" (p. 286).

A dimension researched in Hofstede's (2001) model, individualism vs. collectivism, is oftentimes echoed in other scholarly works. In his work on values, Schwart (1992) identified a number of ten values. More specifically, he characterized these values as motivational values, that is, as goals which guide individual behavior. In this sense, he argued that "if values are viewed as goals, then their attainment must serve the interests of the individual and/or some collectivity." (p. 13). The author identified three values which respond to collective interest – security – and five to individual interest – universalism. These ten values were then categorized into four high-order values, which themselves can be divided between universalism and security (Schwartz, 1994). Although Schwartz (2012) expanded on the link between values and norms – which themselves relate to culture – these values were constructed at an individual level. At a cultural level however, Schwartz (2009) proposed a set of seven values, based on three of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961, as cited in Usunier & Lee, 2012) aforementioned universal problems. Several of these seven cultural values correlate to some degree to Hofstede's dimensions. However, Schwartz (2009) underscored that "the cultural value orientations emphasize the normative aspect of culture more than the Hofstede and Inglehart dimensions do. The orientations specify the ways people are expected to think, feel, and act in order for society to function smoothly." (p. 134).

Apart from Hofstede's (2001), Schwartz (2009) also referred to Inglehart's (1997) two-dimensional cultural model, which articulates well-being vs. survival, and traditional vs. secular-rational authority. Inglehart based his approach on observations around modernity and postmodernity. According to him, a first shift occurred when (certain) societies moved away from traditional, religion-oriented values to modern, rational-legal values – which composes Inglehart's model's first axis. These more modern values were centered on economic growth and achievement. However these values, which had previously been upheld and engrained by scarcity conditions, progressively eroded and made way for the emergence of newer values. Postmodernity was hence characterized by the author as focused on individual well-being and self-expression. Inglehart's observations then produced two-dimensional model. The traditional-survival quadrant of the lower left is characterized by the previously mentioned scarcity conditions and poverty. Conversely, the high well-being and high secular-rational quadrant on the upper right benefits from postmodern economic development and wealth. However, this approach to cultural change has been heavily criticized for one the one hand, using inadequate measures (Lakatos, 2015) but also for the high convergence of the two dimensions on which he based his model (Beugelsdijk & Welzel, 2018).

Most commonly referred to in the context of cross-cultural communication for his conceptualization of contextuality (Kittler, Rygl & Mackinnon, 2011) – which will be examined in a later section – Hall (1976/1989) also devised another dimension along which cultures could fluctuate. According to him, cultures could be either mono- or poly-chronic, that is, they tend to complete tasks one at a time, or simultaneously. In monochronic – oftentimes low-context – cultures, individuals follow strict schedules and plan out their tasks, which they complete linearly. Conversely, polychronic – usually high-context – cultures prioritize maintaining agreeable relations with others over task completion, and consequently engage in multiple tasks at a time. Hall (1976/1989) therefore stated that these cultures "will view the entire process from very different angles and will have not only a different set of objectives but different priorities as well." (p. 150).

In Lewis' (2006) model, monochronicity characterizes the linear-active – and to a lesser degree, reactive – dimensions, whereas polychronicity defines multi-active cultures. Akin to Hall's (1976/1989) view, Lewis' dimension of multi-activity reflects a priority for human interaction, in that "multi-active people do not like to leave conversations unfinished" (p. 30). Reactive cultures, on the other hand, and as their qualifier suggests, wait and adjust to others. They neither follow a strictly planned schedule, nor do they prefer to function in irregular ways – they are reactive to their partner and adjust their behavior accordingly.

Communication in Lewis's (2006) model was explained somewhat similarly, in that any communicative act in a linear-active culture could be considered an activity of its own in the global action chain. Consequently, individuals in these cultures rarely interrupt other speakers. In multi-active cultures however, interruptions in dialogues are frequent, as to express engagement in the conversation. This once again echoes Hall's (1976/1989) theories which stated that poly-chronic cultures prioritize their social relationships. In reactive cultures, individuals wait until their counterpart finishes their monologue to react to it.

Other models and other scholars have similarly identified ways in which culture affects communication between individuals. Their contributions are presented in a further chapter.

2.1.2. Cross-Cultural Differences Within Nations

Cultural differences have so far been discussed at an international level. However, globalization has also increased "within-country diversity (...) whereas cross-country diversity has

diminished." (Usunier & Roulin, 2010, p. 192). This observation was later supported in (Kaasa, Vadi & Varblane, 2014) who specifically identified Spain, Portugal and France as having larger intranational cultural variations than cross-national.

These variations have been found to influence a number of domains, such as work values (Van Hoorn, 2015) or entrepreneurialism (García-Cabrera & García-Soto, 2008). Additionally, Puia and Ofori-Dankwa (2013), who found an effect of within-country variation to have an effect on national innovation, urged for further research on the topic in the domain of international business, for considering only national culture could lead to diminished understandings.

Indeed, empirical research has more recently raised concerns about the use of nation as a synonym for culture (Taras, Steel & Kirkman, 2016). Culture is not necessarily bound by national borders; there can be spill-over, such as could be the case for French-speaking Switzerland and the bordering French regions. Such a phenomenon was observed in (Lenartowicz, Johnson & White, 2003; Minkov & Hostede, 2014). Akaliyski, Welzel, Bond and Minkov (2021) suggested several causes to this, such as ecological, religious or economic factors. These factors are consistent with Hofstede's (2001) causes of cultural differences; as such, causes of differences between nations can also be the cause of cross-borders similarities.

In reaction to the criticism of the nation-culture proxy, Minkov and Hofstede (2014) identified clusters which generally matched national borders in Europe, results which were consistent with their previous findings on other continents. Nonetheless, the authors did admit to some exceptions; for instance, Greece was peculiar in that six of its thirteen regions were linked to either the Irish or Eastern European clusters, which themselves showed interesting levels of national heterogeneity. Their findings also noted Luxembourg, the Swiss Lemanic region and a French region to form their own cluster, embedded in the French cluster.

Culture can thus be fragmented within a nation. Within-country – or intranational – differences, can notably occur in large and highly diverse countries like India, Uruguay, Brazil or China (Lenartowicz, Johnson & White, 2003; Usunier & Roulin, 2010; Kwon, 2012). Migration can be a further factor for intranational cross-cultural differences. Depending on the individuals' acculturation strategies and/or level, and the host country's stance on immigration, migration could lead to within-country differences (De Mooij & Beniflah, 2016; Akaliyski, Welzel, Bond & Minkov, 2021).

Within-country sub-cultures can also emerge naturally during the transmission process, as institutions responsible for transmitting societal norms and culture are differentially influenced

by, and in turn reinforce, various factors mentioned previously in (Akaliyski, Welzel, Bond & Minkov, 2021) such as the economy, history, geography or even hygiene amongst others (Hofstede, 2001; Waehning, Sirkeci, Dahl & Zeyneloglu, 2018).

This stance was supported by Greenfield (2014), according to whom within-country cultural differences are growing further apart, whereas between-country differences are diminishing. The author argued that these trends were the result of globalization and economic growth; the development of virtually all socioeconomic strata across countries would be ensuring more similarities worldwide and more dissimilarities nationally between the "haves and the have-nots" (p. 38).

Wealth as part of modernization has indeed been identified in various studies as a factor for within-country cultural differences (Kara, Peterson & Søndergaard, 2021). In addition to economic systems, other dimensions of (post)modernity are thought to have functional consequences, namely institutions. Developed previously, institutions are one of the sources of cross-cultural diversity across nations (Usunier & Lee, 2012). However, Kara, Peterson and Søndergaard (2021) underscored the existence of "subnational regional governments." (p. 518), which are too often overlooked in research in favor of "central governments" (p. 519). Several of the countries mentioned in this section as having significant levels of within-country cultural differences, such as Spain, Switzerland or India, as well as the yet to be mentioned Canada and Belgium, function under federalism (Riker, 2017). Federalism refers to a governmental system in which "constituent governments acknowledge that a federal government has authority over all their territory and people for those functions covering the whole territory, while they retain for themselves those functions related just to their own territories" (Riker, 2017, p. 612). Interestingly, some of these countries are officially multilingual, which according to Akaliyski, Welzel, Bond and Minkov (2021), is another source of intranational cultural differences. This linguistic factor is examined more closely in a subsection of the following chapter.

2.2. Cross-cultural Communication

This study presents cross-cultural communication between nations and places an emphasis on within-nation differences by analyzing communication between national linguistic communities, or subcultures. This section first presents various cross-cultural communication

theories and models, as well as contemporary studies. The following subsection hones in on country-level intercultural communication.

Among the various contributions scholars have made to cultural communication studies, Hall's (1976/1989) theory of communication context remains widely influential. According to the author, culture and context are closely related, for the fact that culture acts as a screen or filter which aids cognitive functions by reducing the number of environmental stimuli processed. Culture would therefore influence the degree to which an individual collects information from their environment in processing communication. Hall thus distinguished cultures on the basis of their use of context cues, which he referred to as high- vs. low-context cultures. A low-context culture characterizes a direct and explicit communication style, in which the information conveyed is to be taken literally. Contrary to that, communication in a high-context culture is more implicit and meaning is to be extracted from context cues, such as "an understanding of who the other person is (...), the location (...), and type of conversation" (Usunier & Lee, 2012, p. 70).

Scholars have however noted Hall's (1976/1989) classification of countries across the low- to high-context continuum to be rather anecdotal, and further studies similarly used unfounded classifications for countries (Usunier & Roulin, 2010; Kittler, Rygl & Mackinnon, 2011; Broeder, 2021). Usunier and Roulin (2010) however argued that a more nuanced approach is preferable to a dichotomic view of low- vs. high-context, and empirical data in (Warner-Søderholm, 2013) provided support for the model. Consequently, despite the various critiques raised, a considerable body of work has been produced in relations to this high-low context model (Kittler, Rygl & Mackinnon, 2011).

In recent years, the advent of internet-mediated communication has lead to a growing number of studies on the effects of contextuality. The high-low context model has notably been found to be relevant in B2B web design (Usunier & Roulin, 2010). Moreover, it has also been linked to a differential use of emoticons, which consist of "artificial combinations of keyboard symbols (...) used to express emotions" (Lu et al., 2016, p. 771), as well as emojis, which are "pictural symbols" (Riordan, 2017a) that can represent both facial expressions and non-face objects.

High-context cultures, in which meaning is to be understood in nonverbal elements, have been found to use emoticons significantly more than low-context cultures in computer-mediated communication (Pflug, 2011). This can be explained by the disambiguating effect of emoticons,

which therefore provide additional, non-verbal information. Riordan (2017a; 2017b) identified a similar effect in emojis, noting that both face and non-face emojis reduce ambiguity.

Cultural differences in communication do not however arise only with regards to Hall's (1976/1989) dimensions, but can also be linked back to Hofstede's (2001) model. Bridging both models as well as findings by Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey (1988, as cited in De Mooij, 2004), De Mooij (2004) offers a framework for differentiating cultures along two axes – power distance and uncertainty avoidance – which she related to the high-low context model to generate four communication styles. The combination of low power distance, either low or high uncertainty avoidance, low context, as well as individualism, characterizes a direct-explicit style. Low context explains an explicit style, as meaning is carried verbally – as opposed to non-verbally in context-cues – while individualism explains directedness, as they are less likely to prioritize others and their feelings (Leonard, Van Scotter & Pakdil, 2009). Low power distance can further be linked to a direct communication style as individuals value equality (Hofstede, 2001). Conversely, high power distance is linked to collectivism and high context. On this end of the continuum, communication styles are distinguished by the level of uncertainty avoidance. Low uncertainty avoidance is related to an indirect-implicit style, whereas high uncertainty avoidance can define both (in)direct-implicit styles. Table 1 presents in more detail the various differences between these communication styles. In turn, De Mooij (2004) suggested four preferred advertising styles befitting culture with those specific cultural dimensions.

Graves' (1997) analysis further exemplifies the difference between cultures vis-à-vis communication. The author highlighted the way American vs. Canadian direct marketing letters are inherently adapted to their local customers through variations in the language which either reduce or instill distance between sender and receiver. Moreover, power distance in communication is further relevant in respect to each culture's language, which have varying systems and patterns to convey politeness and inequality (Morand, 2003). In French, this politeness and power distance is reflected in the use of the pronoun *vous* (second person plural or second person singular to convey politeness) (Ciprianová & Bírová, 2019). Additionally, Vanha-aho (2005) noted a difference between Finnish and French advertisements, with the former addressing the consumer with the informal Finnish "you" and the latter using the formal French "you". These differences can also found in Japanese or Korean, where use of the various pronouns "reinforce the status difference" (Lim, 2017, p. 185). Politeness in some cultures can also be conveyed through compliments. However in others, they might have the opposite effect.

Lim (2017) explained that in Korea, a high-power distance country (60) (Hofstede, Hofstede & Mikov, 2010), compliments are considered evaluations and are therefore not commonly given to superiors.

The link between culture and language becomes further relevant when considering multilingualism not at an international level, but an intranational one. The following section therefore explores communication practices targeting numerous national linguistic communities.

2.2.1. Intranational Cross-Cultural Communication

Insofar as cultural differences exist intranationally, De Mooij's (2004) framework for preferred communication and advertising styles might be applicable both across countries, and within them as well. Not only would within-country cross-cultural variation influence communication in that sense, but it has been shown to affect the effectiveness of communication and advertising strategies. Indeed, Mattison Thompson and Brouthers (2021) researched the effect of Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions on social media behavior, namely the propensity to click and/or share advertisements. The authors found a significant effect of the five dimensions – sans indulgence vs. severity – as well as a significant moderating effect of within-country variations on these particular behaviors. Intranational cultural differences, in this case caused by a generational effect, have also been found to influence consumer attitude towards CSR advertisements (Lee & Haley, 2018).

Circling back to a previous section, several factors have been identified by researchers as the root of within-country differences. An additional cause is that of language (Akaliyski, Welzel, Bond & Minkov, 2021). Multiple studies have indeed found an effect of language in multilingual countries, some highlighting disparities between linguistic communities of the same country (Lenartowicz, Johnson & White, 2003; Chen, Cronqvist & Zhang, 2017) and others identifying similarities between linguistic groups across nations (Na & Yan, 2022; Mueller et al., 2024).

There exists an important number of countries across the world which are officially multilingual due to their historical heritage (Treffers-Daller & Wyllemyns, 2002). A first area affected by this multilingualism is advertising, insofar as it can require translation across nations' various linguistic regions. De Pelsmacker (2001) indeed mentioned for the case of Belgium that

"everything in advertising has to be done twice" (p. 65). This same need is found in Switzerland, leading to additional costs in what is already an expensive advertising landscape (Vanetti, Dimigen & Mondada, 2002).

In the case of traditional advertising such as is approached above, specific linguistic groups can be targeted and catered to as they oftentimes form regions with rather clear borders (Lasagabaster & Huguet, 2006). However, on social media, organizations cannot do as such – lest they use geographically targeted sponsored posts, for which they can then adapt the language. As highlighted in (Detienne, 2023), firms on social media have to choose which languages to address their audiences in, which results in a number of strategies and language combinations. These results were also reached in (Català-Oltra, Martínez-Gras & Penalva-Verdú, 2022), where content analysis uncovered a differential use of language within and across various digital platforms.

Among these strategies, the use of English, either independently or simultaneously to the use of another language, was frequent. Detienne (2023) explained this to be due to an issue of limited space. Indeed, social media affordances can limit companies in their use of multiple languages as a result notably of limited screen space, leading either to their use of English or alternatively, favoring one national language and thus linguistic group over another. In (Català-Oltra, Martínez-Gras & Penalva-Verdú, 2022), mean percentages indicated a higher use of English than of a minority language within certain platforms. Interestingly, English was only a national language in two of the twenty-two countries examined. This use of English in non-anglophone countries is explored in the following section.

2.2.2. English as a (Multi)Lingua Franca

Definitions for *lingua franca* are in plethora, as demonstrated by Mondiano (2009), who compiled and argued the proposed meanings and usage of the concept in research. Broadly, *lingua franca* can refer to "a universal language used by non-native speakers" (p. 61). The author however highlighted that conceptualizations of *lingua franca* must not exclude native speakers using their language, in this case English, to communicate with non-native English speakers. The definition used by Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey (2011) adopts this position as well, for English as Lingua Franca (ELF) differs from English as a Native Language (ENL). The

authors further distinguished ELF from English as a Foreign Language (EFL), for which the objective is to be as close to native English as possible.

Lewandowska (2019) explained that the emergence of one language as *lingua franca* is dependent on many factors, namely political or economical. This is particularly true in the case of Europe, for Lacey (2015) stated: “The relatively quick process of European integration has made it more necessary for a growing number of individuals from different linguistic traditions to communicate efficiently and all evidence points to the fact that English is increasingly chosen for this task” (p. 363).

English has indeed been progressively gaining in importance in the European landscape in both a top-down manner through institutions – such as politics, education or research – as well as in a bottom-up way through popular culture (Seidlhofer, Breiteneder & Pitzl, 2006). As such, the language is progressively used by virtually all communities and social strata, therefore garnering an ability to connect people of diverse linguistic backgrounds.

This increased use of ELF in Europe has also been observed by Mondiano (2009), who noted the progressive transformation of English into a “mainland European language” (p. 72). The idea that ELF is not a language of England but rather of Europe stems from the communicative need it fulfills; as the goal of ELF is simply communicative and not emulative as opposed to EFL (Jenkins, Cogo & Dewey, 2011), English in a *lingua franca* perspective is neutral, that is, it is not connected to the English culture nor identities (House, 2008; Nickerson & Camiciottoli, 2013). This neutrality was further inspected by Gerritsen et al. (2007) who found that attitudes towards the use of English in advertisements were neutral. Similarly, Micu and Coulter (2010) found no difference between the use of local vs. English language on ad attitudes. Consistent with these findings, Nickerson and Camiciottoli (2013) noted neutral attitudes towards the use of English in advertisements. However, their results did show a preference for local language, as opposed to Micu and Coulter’s (2010).

As it is defined, ELF is thus used to facilitate communication between individuals of different linguistic groups, therefore being applicable to both international and intranational communication (Dürmüller, 1989). The need for ELF in intranational communication could arise from migration (Lacey, 2015), as well as in certain cases in multilingual countries (Ten Thije & Zeevaert, 2007). In later years, Jenkins (2015) offered a new conceptualization of ELF with respect to multilingual situations and suggested “a view of ELF that positions it within multilingualism, rather than the current view which sees multilingualism as an aspect of ELF.” (p. 73). The author coined this new approach ‘English as a Multilingua Franca’ (EMLF) to

reverse the previous paradigm which set English as superordinate; in EFML, English is merely one of the languages available to both speakers, but not always the one used in communication.

ELF has been increasingly used in various contexts, notably in scientific publications (Suzina, 2020; Giannakoulopoulos et al., 2020), advertising (Gerritsen et al. 2007), as well as on the Internet (Tagg, 2020). Giannakoulopoulos et al. (2020) indeed remarked English to be the language most used on the Internet and often as a *lingua franca* by users whose mother tongue is not English. The results of their study indicated that European websites, both from native and non-native English-speaking countries, favored the use of English. This dominance of the English language also extends to social media, as highlighted by Kim, Moon and Iacobucci (2019). ELF on social media has thus been found to characterize the general social media landscape (Moon, Kim & Iacobucci, 2019), specific nations (Dundua, 2023), as well as specific communities (Malik, 2020; Català-Oltra, Martínez-Gras & Penalva-Verdú, 2022).

A recent study by Navarro and Monclús (2021) examined the variations in language use by the streaming service Netflix across various markets and social media platforms. They compared three of the firm's social media accounts, which target the United Kingdom and Ireland, Spain and other Spanish-speaking countries, as well as Nordic European countries. The latter group differs from the first two in that it congregates countries which employ different languages. The researchers therefore found English to be a *lingua franca* on Netflix Nordic's Instagram and Twitter accounts. This practice can be related to Detienne's (2023) later observations; the affordances of Instagram and Twitter limit users in the space they have at their disposal. When posting videos of their shows, Netflix must therefore choose which language to write subtitles in. As to optimize understanding and possibly to maintain equity between the countries targeted (Detienne, 2023), Netflix Nordic seemingly resorts to ELF.

Despite the apparent neutrality of ELF found in the studies presented above, Hammes de Carvalho and Hammes de Carvalho (2019) warned against a potential for negative responses in users, caused both by comprehension of the English language – or lack thereof – as well as the relation between language and national identity. It must be noted however, that the authors' remarks were based on analysis of only one social media account. Nonetheless, there findings could be explained in the light of Kubat and Swaminathan's (2015) results; while their study focused on the practice of bilingualism in advertising, they noted that the introduction of a second or different language, and consequently cultural identity, could be threatening to "the integrity of [one's] culture" (p. 361). Hammes de Carvalho and Hammes de Carvalho's observations seem to echo Spielmann and Delvert's (2014). In their study, the authors found an

effect of language choice on brand attitude and brand quality, as well as advertising attitude in traditional media. Results showed that the use of English was more effective for global brands over local ones on brand attitude and quality. Negative responses to the use of English in (Hammes de Carvalho & Hammes de Carvalho, 2019) were indeed directed towards a local brand. The globalness, or conversely localness, of the brand must therefore be considered in language choice decisions.

Although ELF has been increasingly studied with regards to its use on the Internet and social media, research on EMLF has been more scarce. Going back to Navarro and Monclús' (2021) findings, the case of Netflix Nordic is per definition a use of EMLF, as the countries making up the 'Nordic' category do not share a language (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden). In Detienne (2023) however, English is used in multilingual countries. While national multilingualism does not necessarily equate to individual multilingualism (Rash, 2002), these countries' educational systems strive for at least individual bilingualism (Mettwie & Janssens, 2006; Lüdi, 2007). Therefore, the use of English in such contexts could also fit an EMLF approach. The effect of EMLF by brands on social media has however not been researched, though its practice has been observed, as previously cited in (Català-Oltra, Martínez-Gras & Penalva-Verdú, 2022; Detienne, 2023).

2.3. Standardization vs. Localization of the Marketing Mix

The sections covered previously therefore highlight the non-negligeable degree of variation which can take place both across – and to a lesser extent, within – nations. The existence of these differences have led to a decades-long debate between both scholars and practitioners regarding the adequacy and superiority of either standardizing the marketing mix across markets, or conversely, adapting it to local characteristics.

The notion of the marketing mix as it is most widely used today results from McCarthy's (1960, as cited in McCarthy & Perreault, 1993) conceptualization, which defines it as "the controllable variables the company puts together to satisfy [the] target group" (McCarthy & Perreault, 1993, p. 44). The variables the authors proposed can be referred to using the simple acronym '4Ps': product, place, promotion and price. These 4Ps group a larger number of variables or elements which were proposed by Neil Borden (2001), who first evocated the idea in the 1960s – idea which burgeoned from a colleague's work. Borden described the concept of the marketing mix

as emerging from Culliton (1948, as cited in Borden, 2001), who defined the business or marketing executive as a "mixer of ingredients" (Borden, 2001, p. 3). Over the years, Borden defined said ingredients as the fundamental elements which make up a marketing program – consequently coining the term *marketing mix.*

According to Van Waterschoot and Van den Bulte (1992), the elements which constitute the marketing mix were yet to be consensually agreed on and can vary in their nature – processes or parameters. Their number has been a further topic of discussion amongst academics; while Borden (2001) was the first to develop the schema with twelve elements, only four have been retained in McCarthy's (1960, as cited in McCarthy & Perreault, 1993) dominant model. While Van Waterschoot and Van den Bulte have exposed the flaws in McCarthy's framework as a schema, the 4Ps model has remained widely used and taught.

The following subsections present the arguments given in support or disproval of the standardization or localization strategies with a historical approach and with respect to each of the four elements of the marketing mix mentioned hereinabove.

2.3.1. Standardization of the Marketing Mix

The gradual international expansion of firms throughout the later half of the 19th century has led to the emergence of a still on-going debate decades later. This internationalization was characterized during the 1970s to 1980s by firms' considerations of local specificities and contexts, and subsequent adaptation of their marketing strategies. However, the following decade witnessed the growth of globalization, which not only increased organizational complexities for international firms, but also a shift in marketing approach (Magnani, 2022), support for which had been discussed among scholars since the early 1960s (Vrontis & Vignali, 1999, as cited in Vrontis, 2003). This approach advocates for global standardization, a term coined by Levitt (1983) and which proposes the idea that convergence and homogenization will smooth out local differences in terms of consumer needs and behaviors as a result of globalization. This phenomenon of globalization has been defined as the result of "trade liberalization and of technological developments that have permitted integrated global communications and the possibility for real-time financial transactions and worldwide manufacturing." (Magnani, 2022, p. 3). Two perspectives of standardization have subsequently

emerged; the first favors a widespread global strategy whereas the second proposes the export of a local strategy to global markets (Song, 2021).

Standardization was reportedly first argued for by Erik Elinder (1961, as cited in Vrontis, 2003) with respect to advertising in Europe. According to Elinder (1965), the growing trend of globalization in late 1960s Europe outweighed the importance of national contexts, for much of Europeans' consumption and living conditions were converging towards similar patterns, despite language disparities. However, the author argued that media – more specifically television – and mobility would bring about important disruptions vis-à-vis languages spoken in Europe. The progressive consumption of foreign television in Europe and children's absorption of those foreign languages led Elinder to believe in a potential widespread use of English in television and advertising.

However, Buzzell (1968) raised the issue of standardizing advertising "in isolation from other elements of a company's marketing 'mix'" (What About Marketing section, para. 2). While the author did not call for the neglect of national – and cultural – differences, Buzzell highlighted the various benefits to be gained from standardization of the marketing mix and suggested that this approach be considered.

Among the elements of the 4Ps, the product is generally considered to be most commonly standardized, namely as a means for cost reductions (Usunier & Lee, 2012). Numerous advantages of adaptation can be highlighted with respect to the product and the attributes – physical, services and symbolic – which compose it, such as economies of scale, learning and experience effects. Levitt (1983) strongly advocated for standardization in the face of globalization, stating that firms gradually sold standardized products which were widely accepted by consumers. According to him, "different cultural preferences, national tastes and standards, and business institutions are vestiges of the past" (p. 5) and he argued that the breadth of globalization would keep expanding with time and effort.

Arguments supporting the standardization of place, referring to distribution, are however much more limited. If products might be the element most compatible with the standardization view, there seems to be an agreement among scholars that place might not be fit for a global approach (Dimitrova & Rosenbloom, 2010). Despite stating that "nothing is exempt" (Levitt, 1983, Living in the Republic of Technology section, para. 5) from the effects of globalization, Levitt (1983) himself had not provided his views on the feasibility of standardized distribution. He did however argue for the standardization of the other elements.

With regards to price, Levitt (1983) believed consumers' desires were evolving towards a specific convergence, one for high quality goods and low prices. The standardization of price as another element of the 4Ps has been found to depend on the (dis)similarity of economic development between home and host countries, with standardization being most prevalent between similarly developed markets (Theodosiou & Katsikeas, 2001). Arguments in favor of price standardization state that "the global uniform price could ensure the profit deserved by the enterprise would not be lost" (Song, 2021, p. 62).

The final element of the 4Ps, promotion, was the model's weakest point according to Van Waterschoot and Van den Bulte (1992) as it generally encompasses "advertising, personal selling, publicity (...) and sales promotion" (p. 84). As aforementioned, the debate between standardization and adaptation dates back to the 1960s, when Elinder (1965) raised the potential for standardized advertising. According to him, increasingly similar consumption patterns and foreign media consumption across Europe engendered an opportunity for standardized advertising. Tourism and work-induced mobility was a further argument for the standardization of advertising. This important mobility was used by the author to set a parallel between the United States and Europe; for advertising to be most effective, repetition is crucial. He therefore argued for consistency across European countries first in advertising themes, and when possible, in advertising language as well – arguing for the use of English across the continent. More recently, scholars provided similar arguments in favor of this approach with regards to branding or costs, as the development of multiple local campaigns implies important additional expanses (Song, 2021).

Adherents to this global marketing approach (Magnani, 2022) thus consider the world as "composed of few standardized markets rather than many customized markets" (Levitt, 1983, The Hedgehog Knows section, para. 2). Convergence on a global scale has indeed been observed since the standardization approach was introduced. Usunier and Lee (2012) presented certain trends which imply macro-level convergence, such as the worldwide increase in democratic governments, communication systems, and socio-cultural and demographic similarities. With regards to consumption preferences, researchers have identified movements towards sustainable alternatives in healthcare and services (Magnani, 2022). In terms of the products themselves, Levitt (1983) used McDonald's and Coca Cola's success in internationalization to support the homogenization of consumption preferences. These same examples were however used to argue against said homogenization by Usunier and Lee, as the authors highlighted the various local adaptations both firms engage in across markets.

Moreover, they note that evidence for micro-level globalization in terms of consumption patterns remains inconclusive and that culture remains a source of influence that is not to be overlooked.

This lack of evidence was precisely an area for criticism of the approach. Boddewyn, Soehl and Picard (1986) questioned Levitt (1983) specifically, though offer criticism to both his supporters and detractors alike for their use of "singular anecdotes to 'prove' their points" (p. 70) over empirical data. The authors further developed that standardization faces barriers, the first of which are national differences. One of the disadvantages of standardization indeed lies in its intrinsic assumption that preferences and consumption patterns have evolved towards homogenization, leading in turn to a subsequent neglect of cultural influences (Magnani, 2022).

Despite the aforementioned trends towards macro-level convergence, scholars have observed the opposing phenomenon, that is, a strengthening of national differences, identities and nationalist consumption patterns – or consumer nationalism (Magnani, 2022). Moreover and according to Rugman (2001), globalization "does not, and has never existed in terms of a single world market with free trade." (p. 583). Additionally, digitalization and social media have led to the emergence of new and everchanging behaviors and attitudes, translating in a desire for more personalized experiences (Kotler, Kartajaya & Setiawan, 2017) – which arguably stands at the antipodes of standardization.

Furthermore, scholars have argued that standardization cannot be the source of long-term success as it is product-oriented (Cateora & Hess, 1993, as cited in Magnani, 2022). Yet, it is rather market-oriented strategies – focused on customers and competitors – which can lead to long-term success (Zou, Andrus & Wayne Norvell, 1997). Through essentially focusing on the market and its customers, the adaptation approach is much more market-oriented that the product-oriented standardization approach, and has been found to improve revenue and market share (Narayandas, Quelch & Swartz, 2000, as cited in Magnani, 2022). This advantage among other has garnered much support for this approach, though issues with regards to complexities of coordination, important costs and need for extensive and oftentimes lengthy market research have been raised.

2.3.2. Localization of the Marketing Mix

In spite of globalization trends, culture remains a source of influence on consumer behavior and should be considered, for "differences between markets are far greater than the convergence points." (Magnani, 2022, p. 6). National and cultural influences remain namely as the result of essential points listed by Usunier and Lee (2012). Firstly, the authors explained that the needs pursued by cultures vary both in their hierarchy, as well as in the way they are defined, and consequently in the way they are satisfied by products and services. Consumption patterns can also be influenced by institutions, which not only hold legal influence but normative influence, insofar as they can impose businesses' opening hours, create "institution-dependent [products] (p. 105) like wedding dresses, or dictate eating habits. A further element of influence which varies across cultures is the identity of a household's decision-maker. Usunier and Lee explain that consumption decisions are heavily influenced by others, whether they be family members or the group at large. Finally, cultural mindsets, which are contextually-dependent and influence cultural solutions, have been found to influence consumption behaviors such as motives for purchase or the symbolic referents.

Localization thus calls for the adaptation of the marketing mix to local markets through the study and consideration of their particularities. These particularities in the target market refer to characteristics such as geography and climate, education or economic development, as well as to cultural specificities, all of which influence the elements of the marketing mix (Magnani, 2022). The influence of culture on consumers has been increasingly researched in academia (Dimitrova & Rosenbloom, 2010) and the subsequent need for adaptation can once again be considered with respect to the four elements of the marketing mix.

As developed previously, the place element of the 4Ps is hardly viable in a standardization approach. Dimitrova and Rosenbloom (2010) argued that standardization of the marketing mix requires differential levels of intensity, most particularly with regards to distribution channels. Results showed that three forces erect barriers to the standardization of place, including two particularly cultural variables: culturally distant distribution behavior and distributive institution – which are intrinsically cultural – rigidity. Usunier and Lee (2012) supported this idea in stating that distribution, insofar as distribution channels pertain to habitual behaviors and relationship, making it the most culture-bound element of the marketing mix. Powers and Loyka (2010) indeed found that distribution was the element of the marketing mix which is most highly adapted. One dimension of distribution channels which is influenced by culture circles back to the influence of institutions, as mentioned *supra*. By imposing opening hours, institutions influence consumers' habits and behaviors. Other behaviors and attitudes vis-à-vis

shopping as well as the relationships entertained between consumers and distributors are also influenced by culture.

In Powers and Loyka's (2010) research, distribution was thus discovered to be subjected to the greatest level of adaptation, followed by price. It is important to note, however, that their results indicated variables such as competition and consumer preferences to have a stronger influence on price adaptation than cultural variation. Culture has nonetheless been found to influence price-related behaviors and attitudes. Usunier and Lee (2012) namely mentioned bargaining norms as differing across cultures, with such behaviors sometimes being legally restricted in more developed countries – though interestingly, price negotiations can sometimes be accepted above a certain threshold price in such countries. Attitudes regarding price can also be bounded to culture. For instance, the price-quality schema has been found to differ across cultures as a result of inequal access to the information needed to assess product quality (Usunier & Lee, 2012), as well as due to the influence of power distance – consumers in higher power distance cultures generally perceiving a stronger correlation between price and quality (Lalwani & Forcum, 2016). The effect of culture on price perceptions and attitudes has been found in relation to other culture dimensions as well (Bolton, Keh & Alba, 2010; Meng, 2011; Lee, Lalwani & Wang, 2020). Cultural symbols and superstition can additionally influence consumers' preference for certain price endings (Westjohn, Roschk & Magnusson, 2017). However, and as was highlighted by Powers and Loyka (2010), the influence of culture is lesser than that of other forces in the industry.

As aforementioned, the product element of the marketing mix is the most commonly standardized. Powers and Loyka's (2010) results indeed indicated that the product is the least adapted element. However, cultural differences play the most important part in its adaptation, followed by consumer preferences. In reality, even seemingly standardized products include some level of adaptation, such as Coca-Cola or McDonald's (Usunier & Lee, 2012).

Among the three types of product attributes, symbolic attributes often require important level of adaptation, for their meanings are essentially cultural. For instance, colors and their cultural meanings have been widely studied for they are an important component that impacts both products and branding. The effect of culture has been identified in influencing preferences as well as the associations individuals hold for colors (Madden, Hewett & Roth, 2000). Mentioned hereinabove, numbers have also been found to hold varying meanings across cultures (Westjohn, Roschk & Magnusson, 2017). Such effects of symbolic attributes, insofar as they can pertain to the interpretation of the physical attributes of products, oftentimes engender

adaptation needs of the core product (Usunier & Lee, 2012). Adaptations of physical attributes might also be obligatory with regards to national standards and regulations, and necessary with regards to consumer preferences, geography (climate, topography, etc.), and local product usage (Powers & Loyka, 2010).

Service attributes, that is, the services provided to add differentiation to the core product (Palmatier & Sridhar, 2021) have also been found to be influenced by culture, as they "are performed in direct relation to local customers" (Usunier & Lee, 2012, p. 253). Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions have notably been linked to differential assessments of service quality and subsequent behaviors (Liu, Furrer & Sudharshan, 2001). Furthermore, expectations for specific services can vary based on environmental factors (Usunier & Lee, 2012). As such, standardization of service attributes is rather limited and provides few advantages, whereas their adaptation to local consumers is arguably more aligned with a market orientation, previously presented as preferable (Magnani, 2022).

Finally, Powers and Loyka (2010) found that cultural differences influenced the degree of adaptation the most for the promotion element of the marketing mix. Akin to the previous elements of the 4Ps, support for both standardization and adaptation of promotion has been provided. Standardization allows for the consistency of themes advocated by Elinder (1965), of brand image and lower costs (Theodosiou & Leonidou, 2003). However, advertising, as part of promotion, has been defined as "the most culture-bound element of the marketing mix." (Usunier & Lee, 2012, p. 372) for its language-based nature. Indeed, De Mooij (2004) stated that languages are inherently linked to history and specific referents. Through being shared by "speakers (...) who live during the same historical period in a specific geographic region" (De Mooij, 2004, p. 181), language is an inherent element of culture (Usunier & Lee, 2012). Standardization or localization of advertising applies to both the advertising strategy and advertising execution, which encapsulates the issue of language (Usunier & Lee, 2012).

Advertising strategy refers to the message conveyed by an advertisement (Usunier & Lee, 2012). As such, decisions pertaining to advertising strategy comprise communication style, developed *supra* in (De Mooij, 2004), as well as the appeals used and the content itself. Communication styles, which are influenced by cultural dimensions, can determine the types of appeals used in advertising. Usunier and Lee (2012) highlighted the differential frequencies at which the same appeals are used in US and Japanese, as well as Arab, French or Swedish advertisements as a result. With regards to content, the amount of information communicated has been found to be highly culture-bound and can vary depending on education and literacy

level, expected type of information (rational vs. emotional), as well as on the locally preferred advertising style. Information-oriented styles or strategies will convey the most amount of information, whereas persuasion- and dream-oriented strategies have less information (Usunier & Lee, 2012).

As previously mentioned, language is an intrinsic element of advertising execution. Duncan and Ramaprasad (1995) found language standardization across all markets to be quite rare at 11%, and across some markets at 41%, making adaptation the most prevalent execution strategy. Translation for adapting language can however be problematic and messages can sometimes require to be entirely written anew in the target language. Even when translations accurately conveys concepts, their interpretations might still differ as "association norms [can] differ cross-culturally." (Usunier & Lee, 2012, p. 381).

Standardization and adaptation approaches can thus be argued both for and against, and the decision of which to deploy must be considered contextually. Over the decades this dilemma has fueled research, scholars and practitioners have progressively come to the understanding that standardization and adaptation must not be considered as antithetical, but rather as compatible simultaneously. Bridging global marketing – which views the world as a global, homogenous market – and international marketing – which advocates for localized strategies – intercultural marketing "suggests that we standardize where true cost reductions can be achieved and localize when necessary" (Usunier & Lee, 2012, p. 220).

The effects of standardization or localization have been studied with regards to a variety of variables relevant to marketing activities and firms, such as purchase intentions and willingness to pay (Tsuchiya, Fu & Huang, 2021), general performance (Brei, d'Avila, Camargo & Engels, 2011), perceived trustworthiness (Pornpitakpan, 2003), as well as satisfaction (Ding & Keh, 2016) amongst others. Additionally, the standardization vs. localization debate has also been discussed in relations to brand attitude, as is discussed below.

2.4. Brand Attitude

As developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), the notion of attitude is one for which numerous conceptualizations can be offered, due in part to the various approaches to studying its formation and essence. The authors nonetheless posited that an attitude is characterized by three

parameters which define it as “a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object.” (p. 10). This response refers to the individual’s affective evaluation of an “object, person, issue or event” (p. 12). Insofar as brands can be considered an object, or “a product, but one that adds other dimensions that differentiate it in some way from other products designed to satisfy the same need” (Keller, 2013, p. 61), they as well can be the object of an individual’s evaluation and therefore be associated with a specific attitude.

Brand attitude has therefore been defined as “consumers’ overall evaluations of a brand [and] the basis for consumer behavior” (Keller, 1993, p. 4)” and one of many constructs which constitute brand image, with which it is often – mistakenly – used interchangeably (Faircloth, Capella & Alford, 2001). According to Bettman (1979, as cited in Faircloth, Capella & Alford, 2001), brand attitude influences consumer behavior as it is used by consumers as a heuristic in their choices of alternatives. Rather than systematically comparing brands – a cognitively costly exercise – consumers instead rely on their brand attitudes.

While brand attitude can thus be used as a heuristic, it can also be formed through them. Keller (1993) noted that in specific conditions, consumers can base their judgement of a brand on simple signals over the careful evaluation of its attributes. One of such conditions is the inability to evaluate the product – or in this case, brand – and which could be due to a lack of information about the attitude object. This consequently leads consumers to make inferences based on the little information they have about the brand (Olson & Jacoby, 1972, as cited in Keller, 1993). Indeed, brand attitudes are acquired through the information one has about an object, or more specifically, the beliefs they hold about it (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). As beliefs refer to the probability that an object be associated with an attribute (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Potter, 2017), attitudes towards an object are the function of the individual’s beliefs that said object is associated with certain attributes, for which they already hold certain attitudes.

Consistent with Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), Mitchell and Olson (1981) viewed attitudes as being “relatively stable and enduring predispositions” (p. 318), making them useful in predicting consumer behavior. This quality of brand attitude has engendered much interest for it in the marketing discipline, and later research has uncovered its importance in brand management. As previously exposed, the importance of brand attitude notably lies in its relations with brand image, brand equity and brand loyalty. Faircloth, Capella and Alford (2001) indeed identified a direct effect of brand attitude on brand image, which is itself correlated with brand equity. In turn, these direct and indirect effects find further relevance and importance due

to their correlation with brand loyalty (Taylor, Celuch and Goodwin, 2004), which has numerous positive consequences for businesses (Palmatier & Sridhar, 2021).

2.4.1. Brand Attitude in Social Media Communication

In spite of the growing body of literature on the topic in recent years, there appears to be a lack of a unanimous definition for social media. A plethora of suggestions has been offered across disciplines, such as marketing, education, or even healthcare and banking (Dwivedi, Kapoor & Chen, 2015). In attempts at defining the term, several scholars have split the two notions composing it, proposing social media to widely refer to internet-mediated social activities (Wakefield & Wakefield, 2016; Kudeshia & Kumar, 2017). In the information systems domain, Kapoor et al. (2018) have recently provided the definition hereinbelow (p. 536):

> Social media is made up of various user-driven platforms that facilitate diffusion of compelling content, dialogue creation, and communication to a broader audience. It is essentially a digital space created by the people and for the people, and provides an environment that is conducive for interactions and networking to occur at different levels (for instance, personal, professional, business, marketing, political, and societal).

Timmons (2015, as cited in Kudeshia & Kumar, 2017) provided a categorization of social media in which Kapoor et al.'s (2018) various levels of interaction could be allocated. The first category, network-oriented social media, is defined as "[including] communication between family, friends and colleagues; for example YouTube, Pinterest and Facebook." (Kudeshia & Kumar, 2017, p. 312). However, Timmons widened the breadth of the definition by further considering collaboration-based media, which pertains to non-personal information, and entertainment-based social media, whose primary objective is not interaction but can include it (Kudeshia & Kumar, 2017).

Platforms like Facebook classified hereinabove as network-oriented social media have also been referred to as social network sites (SNS) in (Ellison & Boyd, 2013, p. 158), who defined it as:

> A social network site is a *networked communication platform* in which participants 1) have uniquely identifiable profiles that consist of user-supplied content, content

> provided by other users, and/or system-level data; 2) *can publicly articulate connections* that can be viewed and traversed by others; and 3) can consume, produce, and/ or interact with *streams of user-generated content* provided by their connections on the site.

Despite being now over a decade-old, Ellison and Boyd's (2013) definition still seems to holds true in light of the evolutions of such platforms over the years. For instance, Instagram's recent Collaboration feature allows users to jointly publish content; the same post can be displayed on both accounts' pages without being duplicated (Instagram Help Center, 2024). This new affordance of the platform thus relates to "content provided by other users" in the definition hereinabove.

Applications and platforms such as the aforementioned Facebook and Instagram, as well as Twitter among others, are the tools (non-)users generally refer to as social media (Carr & Hayes, 2015). As previous definitions suggest however, the notion of social media covers a wider array of internet-based platforms, and the common conception of social media actually refers to what could be considered its subcategory of SNS.

The effect of social media and SNS communication has been increasingly researched in recent years and quite particularly in marketing. Dwivedi, Kapoor and Chen (2015) provided a comprehensive review of social media marketing and its various effects, notably on marketing performance and metrics. Scholars have indeed identified social media, and SNS more specifically, to be influential on purchase intentions, brand loyalty, brand equity, (Dwivedi & McDonald, 2020) as well as brand identification and consumer satisfaction (Arghashi, Bozbay & Karami, 2021). The effect of social media communication on purchase intentions has also been linked to a mediating effect of word-of-mouth (WOM) in (Leung, Bai & Stahura, 2015).

While numerous other effects can be discussed, the aforementioned studies commonly research the effect of social media communication on brand attitude. Going back to (Leung, Bai & Stahura, 2015), the authors found that a positive social media – or in alignment with the definitions exposed *supra*, SNS – experience improved the attitude towards the social media page and subsequently towards the brand. This correlation between social media communication and brand attitude was further identified in (Schivinski & Dabrowki, 2016), who uncovered the influence of both firm- and user-generated content on brand attitude.

Moreover and consistent with prior findings regarding traditional media communication Goldsmith, Lafferty & Newell, 2000), researchers have observed improved brand attitude to

influence purchase intention (Leung, Kapoor & Chen, 2015; Sallam & Algammash, 2016; Kudeshia & Kumar, 2017). Additionally, brand attitude was also found to affect willingness to pay a price premium (Dwivedi & McDonald, 2020).

Communication, whether it regard traditional or social media, is therefore a high-potential activity for firms insofar as it contributes to brand attitude. As early as the late 2000s, Keller (2009) advocated for the integration of marketing communication in building brand equity. Since then, the considerable evolutions in the media landscape have only exacerbated the importance of brand management through communication. Li, Larimo and Leonidou (2021) underscored three main shifts engendered by social media: the degree at which firms and customers are connected, interact and influence each other, and at which firms can manage their customer relationships. The findings on brand attitude developed previously further highlight the importance of leveraging social media communication as a mean to managing brands.

With an ever-growing number of firms developing their presence on SNS (Solomon & Tuten, 2018), the ways in which to best manage brands on such platforms have become increasingly relevant. Among the many discussions on the topic, the notion of standardization vs. localization is not yet widely considered with regards to SNS but has focused more heavily on brand websites (Rashkova, Moi, Marku & Cabiddu, 2023).

3. Conceptual Framework

The previous section of this study has presented various cross-disciplinary literature on the topics of culture, marketing and communication. The imbalance between each subsection is exemplary in illustrating a gap in the literature explored. Although they are increasingly studied, within-country cross-cultural differences remain generally overlooked (Taras, Steel & Kirkman, 2016). While regional adaptation might be unnecessary for most of the elements of the marketing mix, a minimal level of localization – translation – remains relevant in multilingual countries. As has been repeated, language is culture-bound and translation might not always convey the desired meanings (Usunier & Lee, 2012). In spite of this, adaptation of communication or advertising appeals has seemingly focused solely on cross-country differences, as a recent meta-analysis showed (Hornikx, Janssen & O'Keefe, 2023). Within-country adaptation remains therefore largely unexplored.

In the light of previous findings and the identification of gaps in the literature, this present work seeks to study the potential effects of the adaptation of SNS message characteristics to intranational cross-cultural differences on brand attitude. For reasons of relevancy and convenience, the country chosen for this study is the multilingual country of Switzerland. A first subsection presents the characteristics of this country before exploring the extant literature on standardization vs. adaptation of digital channels on brand attitude. The E(M)LF model is further examined in the Swiss context in the final subsection.

3.1. Cross-Cultural Differences in Switzerland

As developed by Hofstede (2001), historical analysis allows for a better understanding of cultural differences, not only across nations, but within them as well. Switzerland's history of multilingualism can be traced back to before its origins. The current territory of Switzerland was previously occupied by a number of Celtic tribes. The main people, the Helvetians – from whom the country inherited its name of Helvetic Confederation – inhabited the northern and western regions (Stępkowska, 2019). Later Roman conquests imposed Latin upon the western territories (Issa, Kamal & Ali, 2022), language which was adopted by the Burgundians during Germanic tribe invasions after the fall of the Roman Empire (Rasch, 2002; Issa, Kamal & Ali, 2022). On the other hand, the other invading tribe, the Alemannii imposed their language upon the northern regions (Rasch, 2022), and further German conquests (Eugster, Lalive, Steinhauer & Zweimüller, 2017) reinforced the German language in northern Switzerland. To the south, the origins of the Italian language in the country can be found in the settling of the Ligurian people (Issa, Kamal & Ali, 2022).

The ensuing creation of Switzerland originates in the formation of a confederation of three cantons in 1291, which later grew to thirteen – mainly French- and German speaking – cantons The Italian-speaking canton of Ticino was only integrated in the early 19th century (Stępkowska, 2019; Issa, Kamal & Ali, 2022).

The languages' status changed throughout the following decades until the 1848 Constitution officialized French, German and Italian as equal official languages (Stępkowska, 2019), a parity maintained through federalism, which allows for "linguistic and cultural differences to be maintained and perpetuated" (Rash, 2002, p. 117). The country's fourth language, Romansch,

was only officially considered a national language in a later revision, though not an official government language (Rash, 2002).

This history of conquests was determinant in defining the borders between each linguistic region (Eugster, Lalive, Steinhauer & Zweimüller, 2017). Today, Switzerland is composed of 22 monolingual cantons, 17 of which are German-speaking, four French-speaking, and one Italian-speaking. Three cantons are German-French bilingual, and only the canton of Grison is Romansch-speaking, as well as German- and Italian-speaking, making it the only trilingual canton of Switzerland (Werlen, 2007).

These cantons thus make up four linguistic regions between which borders can be drawn, of which the *Röstigraben* is a negatively-connotated term commonly used to refer to the French-German border of Switzerland (Rash, 2002; Stępkowska, 2019). Indeed, Eugster, Lalive, Steinhauer and Zweimüller (2017) pointed out in their study the sharp shift in spoken language within a slim 5km-radius of the border. However, this boundary between the two main regions of Switzerland does not only separate the people linguistically, but also culturally. As examined previously, Kara, Peterson and Søndergaard (2021) considered governmental systems such as federalism to be a factor of within-country cultural differences. This effect is relevant to Switzerland for it is indeed a federal government (Riker, 2017). According to Rasch (2002), federalism in Switzerland can have both "the effect of reinforcing as well as reducing the linguistic divisions." (p. 117).

Wyss (1986, as cited in Vanetti, Dimigen & Mondada, 2002) held for view that cultural differences between the two main cultural regions of Switzerland, French- and German-speaking, are rather small. Indices exposed by Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010) indeed indicated minor differences and only between these two regions of Switzerland. The French- and German-speaking regions vary the most across the power distance dimension (FR = 70; DE = 26). As for uncertainty avoidance, variation between both Swiss regions are rather small (FR = 70; DE = 56). Along with power distance, uncertainty avoidance is thus the second dimension on which the two Swiss regions differ the most. These two dimensions developed by Hofstede (2001) are the most relevant in terms of preferred communication styles in De Mooij's (2004) framework. The gap between regions closes further, with German-speaking Switzerland scoring higher (73) than French-speaking Switzerland (58) on the more masculine end of the masculinity vs. femininity dimension, and with very similar scores on the individualism vs. collectivism axis (FR = 64; DE =69). While Hofstede's model is comprised of two additional

dimensions, long-term orientation (74) and indulgence vs. severity (66), specific data scores for the two Swiss regions are not available (Hofstede Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

Though using varied variables to determine cultural differences, several studies have identified disparities between French- and German-speaking Switzerland, notably with regards to unemployment insurance (Eugster, Lalive, Steinhauer & Zweimüller, 2017), foreign business acquisition (Dow, Cuypers & Ertug, 2016), investment efficiency (Kim, Kim & Zhou, 2021) or even compliance to COVID-19 policies (Mazzonna, 2020).

As previously mentioned, a study by Minkov and Hofstede (2014) sought to provide evidence for the relation between nation and culture. While their findings mostly supported their positions, some exceptions remained, notably Switzerland. The authors analyzed regional differences by using a finer categorization of seven regions. Their results using hierarchical clustering found that only four regions formed a national cluster – the three remaining regions were either totally or partially embedded in other national clusters (French or German). Indeed, the Lemanique region – composed of French-speaking Geneva and Vaud, and the French-German bilingual canton of Valais (Office federal du développement territorial [ARE], n. d.) – was found to be attached to the French cluster.

Consistent with Rash (2002), the dominance of the French language spoken in these three cantons would explain this cultural spill-over, as "the French-speaking community sees itself as belonging to a supranational francophone cultural community" (p. 124). Partial evidence for this cross-national language-based community was provided in (Mueller et al., 2024), who found similarities among French-speakers in Belgium, Canada, France and Switzerland.

On the other hand, the national cluster found by Minkov and Hofstede (2014) was made up of Switzerland's four German-speaking regions – Northwestern Switzerland, Zürich, Eastern Switzerland and Central Switzerland (ARE, n. d.). The reason this cluster remains separate – although close – to the German cluster could similarly be explained by language. These cantons favor national Swiss German dialects, which differ from Standard German, considered by some a foreign language (Werlen, 2007). Rasch (2002) noted: "Whereas Germanophone Swiss regard their dialects as symbols of national identity, the French Swiss do not value dialect at all highly." (p. 124). This linguistic distance and link to national identity could therefore explain the absence of cultural spill-over with the German cluster.

3.1.1. Cross-Cultural Differences in Communication in Switzerland

Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010) stated that "[language] and culture are not so closely linked that sharing a language implies sharing a culture, nor should a difference in language always impose a difference in cultural values." (p. 389). Indeed, differences between linguistic groups in Switzerland are rather slim.

Despite these light differences however, Vanetti, Dimigen and Mondada (2002) supported that advertisement as part of the marketing mix in Switzerland must be adapted at least linguistically to the different languages spoken in the country. This however brings about an issue of "general untranslatability" (Payer, 1990, as cited in Vanetti, Dimigen & Mondada, 2002, p. 271) when the messages carry some cultural meanings. Even when such meanings are conveyed, Delorme Benites (2021) found that topics emphasized in translated texts (German to French) still differed from texts originally written in French. In advertising, translation however remains hardly inevitable for many businesses in multilingual countries such as Switzerland or Canada, as the alternative of developing localized campaigns is too costly (Vanetti, Dimigen & Mondada, 2002; Elkin & Hill, 2008). However, several studies argue that cultural adaptation can benefit translated work (Franklin & Wilton, 2000; Copuš, & Čarnogurský, 2017).

Going back to De Mooij's (2004) communication and advertising styles framework, differences between both regions become more noticeable. Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov's (2010) data on German-speaking Switzerland would describe the region as having weak uncertainty avoidance (56), low power distance (26), and being individualistic (69). In congruence with Rösch and Segler's (1987) findings which classified German-speaking Switzerland as being a low-context culture, De Mooij's (2004) framework would classify the region as having a direct, explicit, as well as personal advertising style. Rösch and Segler had however not provided a categorization for French-speaking Switzerland. However, De Mooij's framework would categorize the latter as having a (in)direct-implicit style. Indeed, French-speaking Switzerland differs from its neighboring region by having strong uncertainty avoidance (70) and strong power distance (70) – individualism scores are rather similar at 64 (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

Consistent with findings in (Vanha-aho, 2005), Manno (2005) noted that the use of the informal second person singular pronoun – the French *tu* or equivalent German *du* – is more frequent in the German-speaking region, where power distance is reportedly lower (Hofstede, Hofstede &

Minkov, 2010). Manno also mentioned a differential propensity for engaging in small talk in telephonic conversations. Whereas French-speaking Swiss are more likely to engage in it, German-speaking Swiss are seemingly more direct in announcing their intentions. This would concur with De Mooij's (2004) framework, which would categorize the latter as preferring a direct communication style, in which the speaker's intentions are clear.

However, Manno (2005) evoked a general tendency of Swiss people to "hide their qualities" (p. 107); this relates to self-effacement, a communication style linked to the preferred indirect-implicit style of the French-speaking Swiss. Conversely, German-speaking Swiss should prefer self-enhancement, characteristic of a direct-explicit communication style (De Mooij, 2004, Rygg, 2012). According to Hofstede (2017), the self-effacement and self-enhancement continuum can be related to long- or short-term orientation respectively. As previously mentioned however, specific long-term orientation scores for each Swiss regions were not provided (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). Nonetheless, findings in (Rasch, 2002; Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010; Minkov & Hofstede, 2014; Mueller et al., 2024) would suggest a similarity of French-speaking Switzerland to France, and German-speaking Switzerland to Germany. Therefore, the main Swiss regions might differ in terms of long-term orientation – and consequently self-effacement or self-enhancement – as France scores slightly lower (63) than Germany (83).

The literature examined *supra* would indicate a difference in preferred communication – and in turn advertising – styles between the French- and German-speaking regions of Switzerland. As such, this research posits the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1. Literal translations of originally German-written messages are perceived as more culturally incongruent to French-speaking Swiss users than culturally congruent translations.

3.2. Standardization vs. Adaptation in Brand-Owned Digital Channels

Defined by Straker, Wrigley and Rosemann (2015) as "routes of communication between an organization and its customers" (p. 111), digital channels have been found to include both firm- or brand-owned websites, as well as their pages on SNS and social media at large. Among these digital channels and as suggested hereinabove, research on standardization or adaptation in the

digital landscape is rather succinct and has thus far focused more so on firms- and brands-owned websites than on their SNS (Rashkova, Moi, Marku & Cabiddu, 2023).

A number of studies conducted since the early 2000s have identified several elements of web design – both in B2B and B2C websites – which can be influenced by cultural dimensions (Singh & Matsuo, 2004; Yalcin, Singh, Dwivedi, Apil & Sayfullin, 2011; Singh, Park & Kalliny, 2013; Nordhoff, August, Oliveira & Reinecke, 2018). Indeed, research has not only found a preference in users for adapted websites, but it has also highlighted the effect of adaptation on perceived website effectiveness, as well as on purchase intention and attitude toward the websites (Singh, Furrer & Ostinelli, 2004). Transferring similar and previous findings on website localization, Alshoaibi (2021) argued that culturally adapted social media content could improve users' brand attitudes. This line of questioning could be argued for based on previously mentioned findings. Results in (Singh, Furrer and Ostinelli, 2004) suggested that local adaptation of websites improves users' attitudes towards them, though they do not hint at a potential effect on brand attitude. In (Leung, Bai & Stahura, 2015) however, positive attitude towards sites – in this case, social media sites – did engender positive attitude towards the brand.

In later years, Rashkova, Moi, Marku and Cabiddu (2023) identified four strategies brands implemented across their digital channels. These strategies vary based on the combination of standardization and adaptation of either or website and SNS. The first strategy, cross-media convergence, combines website standardization and social media adaptation in the two countries observed. Adaptation on SNS did not only refer to content, but also to the strategies put in place to increase performance. The second strategy, standardized convergence, applies standardization widely across digital channels and countries. This general standardization approach, while benefiting from the discussed advantages of scale economies, fails to respond to local specificities and in creating a sense of recognition. The opposite approach to this is called adaptive convergence. By localizing content and strategies to each country, brands using this approach can build and benefit from synergies across digital channels. Conversely, high levels of local adaptation prevent the creation of global synergies, which might affect brand recognition. Finally, the last strategy, mixed convergence, describes a differential application of standardization in one country and adaptation in the other. Akin to the previous strategy, mixed convergence does not allow for global synergies.

The observation of a combined approach was also made within SNS in Copuš and Čarnogurský's (2017) research. The authors' comparative analysis underscored an effect of cultural adaptation on the efficiency of SNS communication and prescribed "reasonable

adaptation to the local culture" (p. 205). Nonetheless, they also mentioned various other factors of influence for communication efficiency as well as the limitations of their study, calling for further research.

At an intranational scale, Detienne (2023) observed that companies operating in Switzerland and Belgium resorted to three possible strategies in their SNS, more specifically Instagram: the use of all national languages, the prioritization of one national language, or the use of English – even when English was not a national language. This particular use of English will be touched on in the following subsection.

The issue of translation arises from the use of multiple or all national languages on SNS. As mentioned, language is highly culture-bound and translated work can sometimes be inaccurate, even when grammatically correct (Usunier & Lee, 2012). In Switzerland, the tertiary sector, media and advertising marketplaces are seemingly dominated by the German language, with big enterprises being relatively more concentrated in the German-speaking cantons of Switzerland (OFS, 2019). The country's main advertising agencies are similarly located, with an important representation in Zürich (Vanetti, Dimigen & Mondala, 2002). Moreover, a recent study noted the disparity in the digital media landscape, with content being predominantly offered in German (75%) (Udris, Ryfell, Vogler, 2023) whereas German-speakers in the country only account for slight above of 60% of the population (OFS, 2022).

As previously developed, power distance – dimension on which French- and German-speaking regions differ the most – can reflect in communication through politeness (Vanha-aho, 2005; Lim, 2017; Ciprianová & Bírová, 2019). In a recent study, scholars found that politeness in advertisements increased individuals' reaction toward the brand, notably their evaluation of it, which is an inherent aspect of brand attitude (Li, Kreuzbauer, Chiu & Keh, 2020). Although this study was most specifically focused on global brands, these findings are nonetheless interesting with regards to the Swiss mediascape presented hereinabove, and the difference between French-speaking Switzerland and German-speaking Switzerland in using formal (polite) and informal (impolite) pronouns (Manno, 2005). Issues with regards to cultural adaptation of translated work from German to French – as well as Italian and Romansch – are therefore not to be disregarded.

Moreover, Pedraz-Delhaes, Aljukhadar, and Sénécal (2010) found that poor language quality – notably as a result of mistranslations – negatively affects customers' evaluations not only of the text itself, but also on the brand who wrote it due to a spillover effect. Qualitative data from the same study would imply that poor language quality reflects a company or brand's neglect

toward its customers. Though these findings were uncovered in the context of instruction guides, the relationship between language or translation quality and brand attitude remains relevant. Interestingly, this issue of translation quality in Switzerland had already been protested in 1987 by French-speaking Swiss advertisement adapters (Vanetti, Dimigen & Mondada, 2002).

The presented literature consequently lacks evidence favoring either the standardization or adaptation of SNS message characteristics, and most specifically with regards to intranational differences. However, the rapidly growing relevance of social media communication with regards to marketing levers and brand management calls for more insight on this question. Consistent with (Singh, Furrer & Ostinelli, 2004; Leung, Bai & Stahura, 2015; Pedraz-Delhaes, Aljukhadar, & Sénécal, 2010), this study therefore posits the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2. Compared to culturally incongruent translated messages, culturally congruent translated messages result in more positive user brand attitude.
Hypothesis 3. Culturally congruent high-quality translations result in more positive user brand attitude than culturally congruent low-quality translations.

3.3. English as a (*Multi*)*Lingua Franca* in Switzerland

The linguistic diversity of Switzerland has been mentioned to be integral to the country's – as well as its people's – identity (Lüdi, 2007). However, English has neither been accepted as an official language in Switzerland, nor is it relevant in the country's history (Demont-Heinrich, 2005). Nonetheless, there have been demands – most specifically from the scientific community – to make English an official language of Switzerland (Davidson, 2010). This growing spread of the English language in Switzerland (Lüdi, 2007) despite its foreign origins has led Murray and Dingwall (2001) to state that English "strikes at the heart of the Swiss national identity." (p. 89).

In Switzerland, the notion of English as an emerging language has been brought up as early as the late 1980s by Dürmüller (1989) who underscored already then the use of English as second in conversational situations when neither speaker could use their mother tongue, and so even before resorting to a third national language. Cheshire and Moser (1994) attributed this increased use of English to its 'neutral' status "as a (...) second language for all the Swiss language groups." (p. 453).

This phenomenon has become progressively relevant as, since these studies, the competency levels of French-speaking Swiss in German has decreased, with half of this linguistic community reporting having difficulties using the language (RTS, 2014). This competency for the German language seems to have been replaced in younger generations by the English language. A recent study by Krüger (2023) identified an upwards trend for younger generations engaging in English content on social media, notably as a result of the "dominance of the English language on the internet and the fact that most adolescents use the internet daily" (p. 20). Not only is this age group increasingly exposed to English content, but it also seeks it out, as TV series, shows and movies are more readily available to them in their original – most frequently English – language.

Supporting these trends, official national statistics on the use of English in Switzerland have recently been released: 6.7% (OFS, 2022), which does not fall far from national language Italian at 7.8% (OFS, 2024). These numbers must however be considered carefully, as the sample population includes "foreign nationals who have held a residence or permanent residence permit for a minimum of 12 months" (OFS, n.d.).

Parallel to this growing use of English by consumers, the language has been found to be increasingly employed in professional spheres such as the banking industry or academia (Demont-Heinrich, 2005). Additionally, Cheshire and Moser (1994) underscored the amount of advertisements made in English in Switzerland. They noted that the language was used particularly for products reflecting social identity, such as the likes of cars, clothes, or watches amongst others. In the advertisements analyzed, as high as 30.8% of the advertisements were for Swiss products. Schneider (2019) developed these findings further. The author found that English was used systematically more than German in the German edition of a national newspaper, suggesting that this choice related to the reluctance of this linguistic group to use Standard-German over their mother tongue Swiss-German, of which there are several dialects across the region and is considered a spoken – rather than written – language (Werlen, 2007). In the French edition of the newspaper however, the proportion of English-using advertisements was found to be decreasing over time in favor of French-monolingual advertisements, both for Swiss and foreign brands.

Schneider (2019) explained this difference across the *Röstigraben* as being due to a "Helvetic malaise" (p. 189), a term coined by Cheshire and Moser (1994) as "a sense of self-doubt and dissatisfaction with the status quo, and a shift of attention (...) towards the internal divisions of [Switzerland]" (p. 467). Schneider explained that the use of English allows Swiss consumers to

view their products and their country akin to how tourists view Switzerland, that is, as having a unified identity. Although this effect of English has been theorized in the German-speaking region of Switzerland, the effect of E(M)LF in French-speaking Switzerland has yet to be acknowledged.

De Mooij (2004) argued that "speaking a foreign language correlates with low uncertainty avoidance." (p. 185). French-speaking Swiss are however characterized as having strong uncertainty avoidance. This uncertainty avoidance could nonetheless be counteracted by an effect of age, as current trends seemingly indicate in younger Swiss generations. Though results are to be read with reservations due to the method of data collection, the EF English Proficiency Index points to a stark drop of English level in populations over 40 years old (EF, 2023). While the use of E(M)LF might prove effective when targeting younger audiences, who are progressively more exposed to the English language and seek out content in English (Krüger, 2023), it might not be the case of other age groups. Data shows that in Switzerland, the number of languages used by individuals decreases with age and depends on education level (OFS, 2021). Regarding English specifically, it is reported that only "15% of 75 year-olds or higher use it at least once a week." (OFS, 2021). Furthermore, the frequency of use of the English language in Switzerland appears to be correlated with education level (OFS, 2016). The favorability of English would thus seemingly depend on these variables.

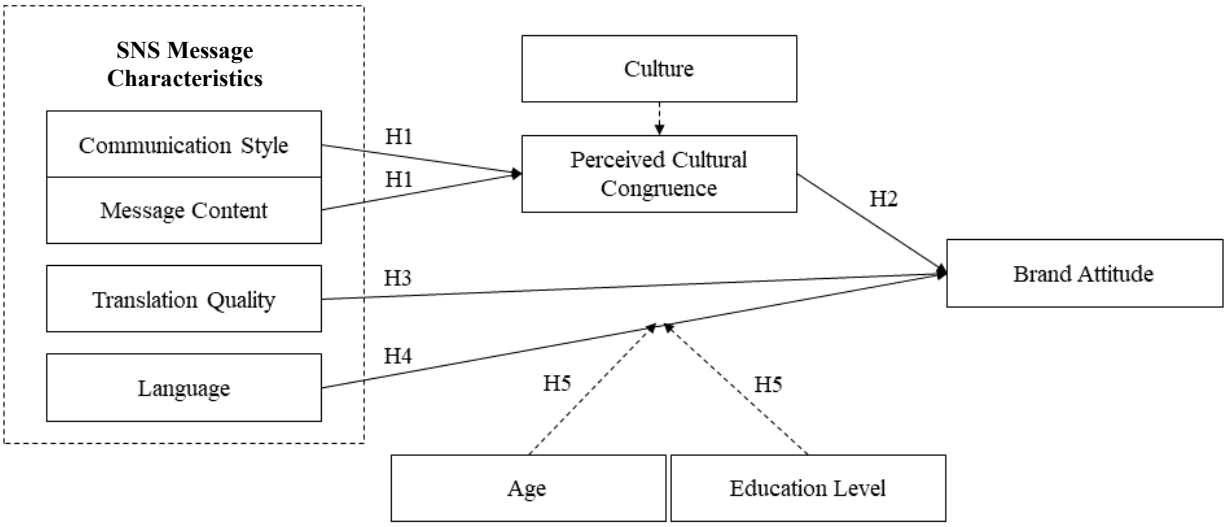
Coupled with (Cheschire & Moser, 1994; Gerritsen et al., 2007; House, 2008; Nickerson & Camiciottoli, 2013) on the neutrality of English across Europe and in Switzerland, the findings and data examined above bring forth the formulation of the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4. The use of English as (*multi*)lingua *franca* has (a) a more positive effect on users' brand attitude than culturally incongruent messages, and (b) a less positive effect than culturally congruent messages.

Hypothesis 5. The effect of the use of English, compared to translated messages on users' brand attitude, is moderated by (a) age and (b) education.

Figure 1 below illustrates how the five hypotheses postulated herein this work articulate with one another, and their relevant variables.

Figure 1
Conceptual Framework of SNS Message Characteristics on Brand Attitude



4. Research Methodology

The research question and hypotheses under their current formulation imply a causal relationship. Consequently, an experimental design lends itself appropriately to this study (Maxwell, Delaney & Kelley, 2018). Being somewhat remote from reality (Blaikie, 2009), experimental methods have their shortcomings in terms of external validity (Bryman, 2012). Nonetheless, they allow for the isolation and manipulation of specific variables (Maxwell & Delaney, 2004), which is sought after in this study. As the focus of this research is to determine the potential mediating effect of culture on brand attitude in an intranational approach, cultural communication styles were manipulated through the use of vignettes. Choosing the right measurements was therefore important to assess individual cultural differences and inform stimuli manipulation. These challenges are addressed in a subsection below.

4.1. Participants & Data Collection

With respect to the literature reviewed hereinabove and Switzerland's media landscape, this study focuses on the French-speaking region of Switzerland. The hypotheses posited require a wide and diverse sample of individuals, notably in terms of age and education level.

Consequently, this research used an online survey in order to facilitate sharing and data collection. Moreover, an online setting is better adapted than a real-life, laboratory experiment to the use of social media or SNS stimuli (AlRabiah, 2021). As Clifford & Jerit (2014) have found, there is little difference between both settings in experimental research – an online experiment was therefore appropriate.

The survey was created on the platform Lime Survey and distributed online to family, friends, and coworkers; the sampling method was hence a combination of convenience, snowball and purposive sampling (Howitt & Cramer, 2020). Questions pertaining to personal information were marked as non-compulsory and a specific answer item provided participants with the option not to answer certain questions.

A priori power analysis using G*Power 3.1.9.7 resulted in a required sample size of N = 162, with a significance level of $\alpha = .05$ for detecting an effect size at 0.40, considered to be large (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang & Buchner, 2007).

4.2. Apparatus

4.2.1. Cultural Dimensions

As the method used for this study is one for which textual stimuli require to be manipulated according to cultural communication styles, measuring culture to assess the fit between these elements is crucial. Consistent with the cultural communication style frameworks this study is based on – mainly De Mooij's (2004) – the model used to measure culture is Hofstede's (2001).

Replicated by several studies after its initial publication, the research instrument developed to measure the Hofstede dimensions was validated at a national level (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). However, Hofstede (2011) underscored the importance of considering aggregation levels when measuring culture. According to the author himself, the first pitfall in using the instrument in research is "confusing cultures with individuals" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 463). Several scholars including Hofstede have found low reliability and thus proven the inadequacy of the instrument at the individual level (Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011). Foregoing Hofstede's warnings would thus lead to making an ecological fallacy, that is, "wrongly generalizing relationships observed at the group to the individual level" (Taras & Steel, 2009, p. 47). A reason as to why the instrument cannot accurately measure

individual-level cultural orientation lies in the fact that "the items address issues from the standpoint of how the respondents believe most people think, not how they think as individuals." (McCoy, Galetta and King, 2005, p. 215).

From this perspective, national culture cannot explain the totality of an individual's behaviors, which are based on other factors such as personality or wealth (Magnani, 2022), as well as education levels amongst others (Hofstede, 2001). Measuring culture and cultural dimensions at the individual level is however "often necessary for countries with heterogeneous population" (Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011, p. 195). Moreover, Schiffinger (2024) stated the following (p. 196):

> If one gives up the dogmatic view of culture strictly being a country-level(?) phenomenon and admits the idea mentioned earlier of individual-level culture perceptions representing an aggregate psychological climate, this allows using, empirically examining, and discussing the individual perceptions of the included culture dimensions and their within-country variation (or more precisely: agreement) for the collected sample.

For this study focuses on within-country differences and Switzerland in particular, the use of Hofstede's instrument is therefore not suitable. The same observations and pitfalls can be found in generalizing Hall's (1976/1989) framework at an individual level (Adair, Buchan & Chen, 2009). As De Mooij's (2004) framework, which is used in this study, also articulates Hall's high-low context theory, individual-level scales are thus necessary for both of these models.

Several scales have been developed throughout the years with the objective of measuring the Hofstede dimensions at the individual level, most with many shortcomings, as pointed out by Yoo, Donthu and Lenartowicz (2011). Emphasizing the importance of developing such as scale, the authors proposed their own Cultural Values Scale, or CVSCALE. From an initial set of 230 items, 125 items were selected for exploratory factor analysis and reduced to a set of 26 items. Further tests on US and Korean samples reported high reliability across the five factors, with factor loadings ranging between 0.79 and 0.91 for the US sample, and 0.78 to 0.89 for the Korean sample. Level of fit for both samples was also highly satisfactory (US: $\chi 2 = 496.27$, df = 289, TLI = .90, CFI = 0.91, RMSEA = 0.058; Korean: $\chi 2 = 416.34$, df = 289, TLI = 0.93, CFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.039). An additional comparison between Brazil and Poland validated the cross-cultural usability of the scale anew, with factor loadings ranging between 0.71 and 0.84 for the Polish sample, and 0.70 to 0.85 for the Brazilian sample.

In (Mazanec, Crotts, Gursoy & Lu, 2015), the scale was deemed both a "valid and reliable [mean] of measuring Hofstede's five cultural dimensions on the individual or psychological level" (p. 303), and has since been utilized in several cross-cultural studies (Yoo & Shin, 2017). More recently, it was used to examine the (mediating) effects of power distance beliefs, collectivism and uncertainty avoidance on brand attitude (Yao, Hu & Du, 2023; Shen, Zhao & Yu, 2024). Furthermore, it has also proven to be reliable in within-country cross-cultural research (Kavak, Turhan & Eryigit, 2018). Yoo, Donthu and Lenartowicz's (2011) CVSCALE therefore lends itself appropriately to this study.

Individual-level cultural orientation using the 26 CVSCALE items is measured through a 5-point Lickert scale labeled as 1 = "strongly disagree" and 5 = "strongly agree". Long-term orientation items were adapted to match this scale as per the limitations of the survey platform used, and with the objective of avoiding a response bias. All measurement items can be found in Table 1 below. Their translation from English to French was retrieved and adapted from Dubuis (2016) and can be found in Appendix B.

A further cultural aspect to consider with regards to De Mooij (2004) used in this study is the high-low context dimension. As aforementioned, Hall's (1976/1989) classification of nations along the high-low context spectrum was mainly anecdotal, leading to posterior studies seeking to develop more adequate measurements (Kittler, Rygl & Mackinnon, 2011). Richardson and Smith's (2007) scale is one commonly used in other works, such as in (Hornikx & Le Pair, 2017), in which its Cronbach's alpha is adequate ($\alpha = 0.68$) or in (Yang, Hou & Arth, 2021), in which reliability proved to be slightly better ($\alpha = 0.84$).

Despite the support for this scale, this study uses Warner-Søderholm's (2013) measures for high-low context. The scale used is a five-item Lickert type scale – although the author warns on the multicollinearity of one item. After removal of said item, the scale showed adequate reliability ($\alpha = 0.734$). In a later study, Wang, McNally and Lenihan (2019) reported the deletion of two items. In spite of this, this study chooses to use this scale for the reason it was developed and tested in an intranational differences study. Indeed, the author was able to uncover differences in communication style across several regions in Norway and thereby called for the replication of the scale in future intranational research (Warner-Søderholm, 2013). The five High-Low Context items can be found in Table 1 hereinbelow, following the CVSCALE items.

Table 1
Variables and Measurement Items for Cultural Dimensions

Variables	Items	Sources
Power Distance (PDI)	1. People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions. 2. People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently. 3. People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions. 4. People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions. 5. People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.	Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011
Uncertainty Avoidance (UAV)	1. It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do. 2. It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures. 3. Rules and regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me. 4. Standardized work procedures are helpful. 5. Instructions for operations are important	Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011
Individualism (vs. Collectivism) (IND)	1. Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group (either at school or the work place). 2. Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties. 3. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards. 4. Group success is more important than individual success 5. Individuals should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group. 6. Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011
Masculinity (vs. Femininity) (MAS)	1. It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women. 2. Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition. 3. Solving difficult problems usually requires an active, forcible approach, which is typical of men. 4. There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman	Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011
Long-term orientation (LTO)	1. Having a careful management of money is important.	Adapted from Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011

Table 1 (continued).

Long-term orientation (LTO)	2. It is important to go on resolutely in spite of opposition. 3. Personal steadiness and stability are important. 4. It is important to plan on the long-term. 5. It is important to give up today's fun for success in the future. 6. Working hard for success in the future is important.	Adapted from Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011
High- vs. Low-Context (HLC)	1. In our region we value honesty in meetings and discussions. 2. In our region we try to avoid showing disagreement openly in a discussion because we prefer to maintain a sense of harmony in meetings. 3. In our region we like to 'say it as it is'. 4. In our region, it is actually how we say 'yes' or 'no' that signals what we really mean. 5. In our region, we believe that maintaining harmony and a positive tone in a meeting is more important than speaking honestly.	Warner-Søderholm, 2013

4.1.2. Brand attitude

As indexed by Bruner and Hensel (1996, as cited in Low & Lamb Jr, 2000), brand attitude is a commonly used dependent variable in marketing research, notably on advertising effects. The prevalent use of this concept hence engendered a plethora of measurements in literature. According to Ajzen (2008), " numerous studies have shown that attitudes towards products or services and toward other aspects of consumer behavior, such as attitudes toward ads or toward retailers, can easily and reliably be assessed in this manner." (p. 532), making this method rather prevalent in marketing literature.

The scale chosen for this study is a seven-point Lickert type semantic differential scale developed by Spears and Singh (2004). From an originally 52 items-long list, the scale was reduced to five items, which are also commonly used in other works (Yoo & MacInnis, 2005; Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2013). The scale showed high reliability, with factor loadings between 0.90 and 0.95 in exploratory tests, and 0.84 to 0.93 in a further study. Composite reliability and AVE were in the first and second tests 0.97 and 0.86, and 0.94 and 0.77 respectively. The list of items can be found below.

Table 2
Variables and Measurement Items for Brand Attitude

Variables	Items	Sources
Brand Attitude	1. Unappealing/appealing 2. Bad/Good 3. Unpleasant/pleasant 4. Unfavorable/favorable 5. Unlikeable/likeable	Spears & Singh, 2004

4.3. Procedures

Participants were made aware of and consented to answering the survey under the caveat that their data was anonymous and kept only for the duration of the study. Participants who did not consent to this were redirected to the survey's ending screen and no data was collected from them.

The first section of the survey invited participants to evaluate a series of statements and state their level of agreement; this first section was comprised of the 31 CVSCALE and High-Low Context items exposed previously. An additional question was added as an attention check. Participants who did not answer correctly to the attention check could not answer the further sections of the survey and were redirected to the ending screen. All items in this section appeared in a randomized order to avoid order effect (Perreault, 1975).

The following section was designed to measure concomitant variables, or covariates (Maxwell, Delaney & Kelley, 2018). The covariate measured in this section was the attitude toward the brand prior to stimuli exposure. Participants were first asked if they knew the brand; depending on their answer, a question asking them to evaluate the brand appeared. They were also asked about their occupational history with the brand.

Participants were then shown a series of two randomized vignettes. The development of these vignettes is addressed in the following subsection. Brand attitude was measured for each of these vignettes and another set of questions served as a manipulation check. Randomization of the vignettes was possible using Lime Survey codes.

Finally, the last section of the survey asked participants for their personal information. None of the items were compulsory; participants could either select an option to refuse answering or skip the question altogether. Answers were also made to be inclusive when possible ('Other' option for Gender).

The survey took between 10-20 minutes to complete. Participants were given the option to leave and return to the survey for later completion, and could also return to previous pages when answering to the questionnaire. The full set of survey questions can be found in Appendix B.

4.4. Stimuli

This study examines the effect of various language strategies on social media on users' brand attitude. Several caveats were taken into account in choosing an appropriate brand for the experiment.

A first stage filtered out global brands from the pool of retailers. The use of English in non English-speaking countries has already been linked to more positive brand attitudes for global brands than for local brands, as informed by Spielmann and Delvert (2014). The authors did not, however, test the use of English vs. local language on attitude towards local brands. Kubat and Swaminathan's (2015) results inferred, however, that the integration of a non-national language in advertisement is less effective for a reason of cultural fit. For local brands highly associated with their national culture, the introduction of another cultural identity is perceived as incongruent. This study therefore seeks to apply these results to the Swiss context and as such focuses on local brands.

A further selection process centered down on a specifical retail format within the various Swiss retailers. In order to test H5, this study requires insight from various customer segments – most particularly in terms of age. Consequently, the choice of retail format to use for this study falls on department stores. Department stores, as opposed to other retail formats, have varied assortments in terms of product categories (Zentes, Morschett & Schramm-Klein, 2017), thus reaching a wider variety of consumers, especially when they offer Food offerings alongside Non-Food offerings. A number of retailers in Switzerland compete on the market through this format, such as Manor, Globus, Jelmoli, or Bongénie Grieder. As opposed to most of its competitors positioned on high-end, luxury segments (Intercontinental Group of Department Stores [IDGS], 2021; Bongénie Grieder, n.d.), Manor seeks to lead in the mid-range positioning (Güntert, 2023) – thereby making it more suitable for testing H5 by catering to a wider, less exclusive array of consumers.

A further criteria for choosing Manor as the frame of this experience lies in its social media practices. On its Instagram page, Manor (Manor, n.d.-b) has previously used both national languages – German, French and Italian – for its Post captions, and English for Stories. Interestingly, it was using only Swiss-German dialect on its TikTok page (T. Luternauer, personal communication, July 18, 2024). During the writing of this paper, Manor had included the use of E(M)LF alternatively to the use of national languages to target a significant foreign customer base during a test period, at the end of which it fully switched to an E(M)LF strategy (T. Luternauer, personal communication, May 14, 2024). The effect the use of E(M)LF by a local retailer could have on Swiss customers is however still unknown. Additionally, Manor's Instagram post descriptions are written by a German-speaking Swiss native (T. Luternauer, personal communication, May 14, 2024). This, therefore, allows to test H1, in that literal translations would match a Swiss-German communication style rather than a Swiss-French style. As such, this particular retailer is suitable to use with regards to the hypotheses developed.

The stimuli in this study are thus manipulated Instagram posts retrieved from Manor's (n.d.) page. With 3.7 million active users, Instagram is the biggest social networking site in Switzerland, closely followed by LinkedIn and Facebook (Federal Department of Economic Affairs, Education and Research [EAER], 2022). Moreover, the cross-cultural approach of this study requires the triggering of cultural orientations or dimensions during the experiment. Previous studies have highlighted such an effect in socially visible products in advertisements (Hoeken et al., 2003). The choice of Instagram for its "visual-centric approach" (Anjorin, Raji & Olodo, 2024, p. 1557) is therefore appropriate for this experiment.

The format of Posts (image and captions) was chosen over Reels as per the limitations of the survey platform, as well as over Stories as per the limitations of Instagram in terms of space for textual manipulation. The choice of posts for this experiment was based on the level of social visibility associated with the products advertised (jewelry and apparel), as consistent with (Hoeken et al. 2003). A further criteria relates to the brands of the products advertised. In order to avoid brand attitude spillover, the products in the posts selected were of Manor's own private labels.

The manipulations of this experiment concern the textual elements of the posts. All images were consequently kept the same across the several variations required from the hypotheses. Post descriptions were thus adapted in terms of communication style and local vocabulary for H1 and H2, translation quality for H3, as well as adapted to English for H4 and H5.

Four conditions were thus created: Culturally Congruent × High Quality Translation (CC-HQ), Culturally Congruent × Low Quality Translation (CC-LQ), Culturally Incongruent (CI), and English as a (*multi*)*lingua franca* (E(M)LF). Congruency of communication style was developed using previous literature. Moreover, they were also manipulated in terms of context-level using emojis. Though scholars offer varying explanations for their use, emojis have been integrated into digital communication and marketing campaigns more and more (Eru & Yakin, 2019). Their use has been found to enhance advertisement attitude (Eru & Yakin, 2019), eWOM volume (Orazi, Rajan & Cheng, 2023), engagement (McShane, Pancer, Poole & Deng, 2021; Duffet & Maraule, 2024), purchase intentions (Diestel, Effet, Petrovic, Phan & Wiesinger, 2022; Duffet & Maraule, 2024) and most importantly to this study, brand attitude (Zhepeng, 2020). Considering their various effects and the "sociocultural norms" (Lu et al., 2016, p. 772) they carry in their meanings, emojis represent a crucial lever in marketing communication and must be approached with a cultural lens. Pflug's (2011) aforementioned findings highlighted an increased use of emoticons in high-context cultures as a way to provide additional nonverbal communication. Similarly to emoticons, Riordan (2017a; 2017b) shows that emojis – both representing faces or items – have a disambiguating effect on messages.

Communication style manipulation therefore varied the number of emojis used in post descriptions. Moreover, sentence-initial vs. sentence-final positions were also taken into account. According to Robus, Hand, Filik and Pitchford (2020), emojis placed at the beginning of a sentence engender quicker reading. Yang, Yang, Xiu and Yu (2022) similarly found that the priming effect of sentence-initial emoji placement, especially when the emojis were congruent with the verbal content, "facilitated the processing of the linguistic information" (p. 1320). As such, for the indirect implicit style, emojis were more numerous, highly congruent, and placed in a sentence-initial position to enhance non-verbal understanding.

The specificities of each style – direct explicit vs. indirect implicit – can be found in Table 3 hereinbelow.

Table 3
Summary of Cultural Communication Styles

Advertisement Style	Communication Style	Characteristics	Sources
Direct Explicit	Exacting/precise style	Exact, to the point, respect of the quantity and relevancy maxims	Gudykunst et al, 1996; DeMooij, 2004; Rygg, 2012

Table 2 (continued).

	Linear style	Communication is straight to the point, respect of the manner maxim	Gudykunst et al, 1996 ; Rygg, 2012
	Upfront style	Open, honest, speaker's intentions are clear, respect of the quality maxim	Gudykunst et al, 1996 ; Mascarenhas, Paiva, Degens, Mcbreen & Hofstede, 2011; Rygg, 2012
	Person-oriented style / verbal personal style	Individuals are equal, person-oriented	Rygg, 2012; DeMooij, 2004
	Self-enhancement style	Emphasis on personal accomplishments, self-boasting, self-promotion	Mascarenhas, Paiva, Degens, Mcbreen & Hofstede, 2011; Rygg, 2012
Indirect Implicit	Elaborative style	Expressive, metaphors, strings of adjectives, idioms, repetitions, violation of quantity and relevancy maxim	Gudykunst et al, 1996; DeMooij, 2004; Rygg, 2012
	Understated style	Vague, speaker's intentions are concealed, subtle messaging, violation of the quality maxim	Gudykunst et al, 1996 ; Mascarenhas, Paiva, Degens, Mcbreen & Hofstede, 2011; Rygg, 2012
	Non-linear style	Communication is disorganized, roundabout, violation of the manner maxim	Gudykunst et al, 1996 ; Rygg, 2012
	Status-oriented style / verbal contextual style	Individuals are not equal, politeness, formality, role-centered	Rygg, 2012; DeMooij, 2004
	Self-effacement	Modesty, humility	Mascarenhas, Paiva, Degens, Mcbreen & Hofstede, 2011; Rygg, 2012

4.5. Pretest

A pretest was conducted (N = 6) to check for the quality of the manipulations – mainly with regards to the perceived local adaptation – and of the general survey. Participants were either French-speaking Swiss natives or binational French-Swiss residents, between the ages of 25 and 65, and of various education levels. Following the pretest, several changes were made. Firstly, the length of the survey was reduced from an initial four sets of stimuli to two, both for a matter of duration, as well as quality of the manipulations. The remaining vignettes were then

adjusted on two levels; local vocabulary and phrases were integrated to increase perceived cultural adaptation to French-speaking Switzerland, and translation quality (low vs. high) was made more salient through the use of cultural idioms. The final eight vignettes retained can be found in Appendix A. Items meant to measure perceived cultural adaptation were consequently modified as well, based on and adapted from the scale created by Singh, Furrer and Ostinelli (2004, as cited in Singh, Fassott, Chao & Hoffmann, 2006).

Additionally, general changes to optimize the survey interface to mobile phones were made, such as the labelling of items to fit a vertical, radio display.

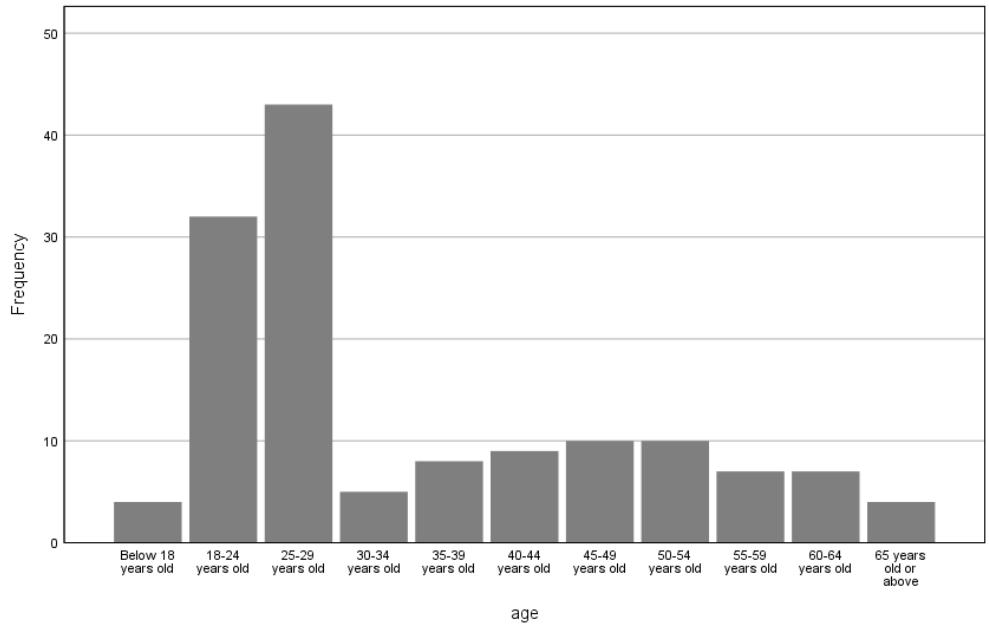
5. Results

5.1. Sample Description

Participants could only take part in the survey if they understood French, as the survey was not available in any other language. Overall, a total of 370 people responded to the invitation and of those, 139 completed the questionnaire; this total number of participants unfortunately falls short of the *a priori* analysis generated by G*Power (3.1.9.7) of 162 participants.

The sample is composed of 94 (67.6%) Women, 40 (28.8%) Men, and 3 (2.2%) people who identified as another gender. 2 (1.4%) participants chose not to answer the question. In terms of age, the sample ranged between below 18 to 65 years old or above, with a median in the 25-29 years old range (30.9%).

Figure 2
Age Range Frequencies



With regards to education, 49.6% of respondents have reached or completed higher academic education. This constitutes the most represented category, along with higher vocational education (20.9%) and vocational education (12.9%). Concerning country of origin, 122 (87.8%) participants indicated having Swiss nationality. 116 (95.1%) of them originate from French-speaking Switzerland, 3 (2.5%) from German-speaking Switzerland, 1 (0.8%) from Italian-speaking Switzerland and 1 (0.8%) from Romansch-speaking Switzerland. 2 (1.6%) participants preferred not to answer.

Table 4
Description of the sample for Gender and Education

Characteristic	N	%
Gender		
Woman	94	67.6
Men	40	28.8
Other	3	2.2
Missing Cases	2	1.4
Education		
Mandatory Education	5	3.6
Vocational Education	18	12.9
General Education	17	12.2
Higher Vocational Education	29	20.9
Higher Academic Education	69	49.6
Missing Cases	1	0.7

Note. N = 139

Table 5
Description of the sample for Origins

Characteristic	N	Percent of Cases
Country of Origin		
Swiss	122	87.8
French	23	16.5
Other	19	13.7
Missing Cases	1	0.7
Swiss Origins		
French-speaking Region	116	95.1
German-speaking Region	3	2.5
Italian-speaking Region	1	0.8
Romansch-speaking Region	1	0.8
Missing Cases	2	1.6

Note. N = 139

5.2. Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis

Following Yoo, Donthu and Lenartowicz (2011), an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted using an orthogonal (Varimax) rotation with the entire 31-item list composed of the authors' 26-item CVSCALE and Warner-Søderholm's (2013) high-low context scale. Although there is strong evidence in literature supporting the models, EFA was chosen over confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in order to account for adaptation of the scales from English to French (Orçan, 2018).

Factor analysis reduces the complexity of data by identifying related items and explaining their common variance using underlying or latent variables, or factors (Field, 2013; Shrestha, 2021). In order to determine the adequacy of the sample for factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) measure must be interpreted. This measure ranges from 0 to 1 (Williams, Onsman & Brown, 2010) and the minimum accepted value to pursue with factor analysis is 0.5 (Hadi, Abdullah & Sentosa, 2016). Factor analysis of the 31 items indicated a KMO of 0.634, which while considered mediocre, is acceptable. Additionally, Barlett's test of sphericity must also be considered to pursue with the analysis. The test indicates whether correlations in the matrix differ significantly from zero (Field, 2013) and should therefore be significant at an alpha level of 0.05, which is used for all tests in this study. Barlett's test for the 31 items was significant (χ^2=1015.228, ddl=465, p<.001) and the analysis can thus be continued. A total of 11 factors responded to Kaiser's criteria of superior to 1 eigenvalues (Howitt & Cramer, 2017) and explained 65.11% of the variance.

Multiple items loaded with several factors and were thus removed progressively, and factor analyses were repeated. A number of 16 items clustered in six factors remained after this process, with a KMO of 0.606, which is still mediocre yet acceptable, and a significant Barlett's test (χ^2=354.458, ddl=120, p<.001). The table below displays the results of the factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha values across all six factors are however not considered acceptable according to Nunally's (1970, as cited in Agbo, 2010) prescriptions. The cut-off point value for Cronbach's alpha has however been debated, and values between 0.6 and 0.8 can also be considered acceptable (Hajjar, 2018).

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics for Exploratory Factor Analysis

Constructs	M	SD	Loadings	α
Power Distance	1.450	.603		.617
PDI1	1.43	.702	.831	
PDI2	1.47	.715	.812	
Uncertainty Avoidance	3.806	.619		.654
UVA2	3.73	.841	.776	
UVA3	4.05	.755	.769	
UVA4	3.64	.817	.696	
Individualism	2.731	.779		.589
IND1	2.41	.969	.763	
IND3	2.76	1.004	.727	
IND5	3.02	1.170	.703	
Masculinity	1.701	.775		.582
MAS2	1.94	1.009	.831	
MAS3	1.47	.0828	.790	
Long-term Orientation	3.942	.608		.545
LTO3	4.30	.610	.768	
LTO4	3.92	.860	.750	
LTO6	3.60	1.004	.634	
High-Low Context	3.333	.780		.659
HLC2	3.38	1.045	.836	
HLC3	3.19	1.026	.815	
HLC5	3.43	.963	.624	

Note. N = 139
* For the definition of the items, see Table 1.

Means for the six cultural dimensions computed using the remaining items can be read below for both French-speaking Switzerland-originating participants, and participants from other origins.

Table 7
Means for Cultural Dimensions by Origins

Cultural Dimension	French-speaking Swiss Origins	M	SD
Power Distance	No	1.37	.57
	Yes	1.47	.61
Uncertainty Avoidance	No	3.97	.57
	Yes	3.77	.63

Table 7 (continued).

Individualism	No	2.54	.67
	Yes	2.77	.80
Masculinity	No	1.98	.75
	Yes	.65	.77
Long-term Orientation	No	4.09	.65
	Yes	3.91	.60
High-Low Context	No	3.30	.89
	Yes	3.34	.76

Note. N = 139

As for the 5 brand attitude items, reliability analysis indicated a Cronbach's alpha of 0.912, which can be considered excellent. All items were consequently kept.

5.3. Hypotheses Tests

5.3.1. Perceived Cultural Congruence

Manipulation Check. Independent sample t-tests were run to check for the manipulation of cultural congruence in the CC-HQ and the CI conditions in terms of conciseness.

For the first vignette STIM1, the participants who were exposed to the CC-HQ condition (N = 30, $M_{CC\text{-}HQ1}$ = 3.6, SD = 1.070) differed significantly from those exposed to the CI condition (N = 36, M_{CI1} = 4.08, SD = 0.770), t(64) = -2.130, p = 0.37. The CI condition was perceived as more concise in communication style. As for the second vignette STIM2, results showed that there was no significant differences between groups, t(74) = -1.028, p = 0.307, in spite of a small variation between the CC-HQ group ($M_{CC\text{-}HQ2}$ = 3.39, SD = 0.903) and the CI group (M_{CI2} = 3.63, SD = 1.079).

Perceived Cultural Congruence Test. Two ANCOVAs were conducted to compare perceived cultural congruence between groups when controlling for Origins (French-speaking Swiss Origins vs. Other) and culture.

For STIM1, Levene's test was non-significant (p=0.573) and the analysis was carried out. ANCOVA results showed that there was no significant effect of Group Condition on perceived cultural congruence, F(1, 0.991) = 0.868, p = 0.467, as well as no significant effect of culture, although the partial Eta Squared value would be considered close to a moderate effect (η^2_{STIM1}

= 0.467) (Wilcox, 2006). Estimated marginal means (EMM) in the table below showed slight differences after adjusting for culture and origins.

Table 8
(Un)adjusted Means for Perceived Cultural Congruence for STIM1

Group Condition	Swiss French-speaking Switzerland Origins	*M*	*SD*	*EMM*	*SD*
Culturally Congruent	No	3.000	1.095	3.035	.358
	Yes	3.771	.847	3.820	.183
Culturally Incongruent	No	3.875	.629	3.993	.466
	Yes	3.844	.827	3.785	.158

The analysis was repeated for STIM2 and Levene's test was non-significant (p = 0.284). Results showed mainly non-significant results of Group or Culture. The interaction between Group and Origins was however significant, F(1, 53.702) = 4.325, p = 0.041. Partial Eta Squared is considered small (η^2_{STIM2} = 0.061) (Wilcox, 2006); the interaction therefore explains 6.1% of the variance in perceived cultural congruence. The table below illustrates the differences between groups after adjusting for the effects of the covariates.

Table 9
(Un)adjusted Means for Perceived Cultural Congruence for STIM2

Group Condition	Swiss French-speaking Switzerland Origins	*M*	*SD*	*EMM*	*SD*
Culturally Congruent	No	2.786	1.220	2.711	.352
	Yes	3.793	.738	3.824	.171
Culturally Incongruent	No	3.500	.901	3.459	.309
	Yes	3.484	.926	3.483	.163

5.3.2. Cultural Congruence on Brand Attitude

ANCOVAs were conducted to determine the effects of cultural congruence on brand attitude. Culture and Pre-Test Brand Attitude were included as covariates, and Origins as random factor. Job History (having worked or currently working at Manor) could not be included in the models as it caused errors to the computations.

For STIM1, the results of Levene's test were significant, p = 0.022; the homogeneity of variance assumption was thus not met. As the interpretation of this test with regards to ANCOVA has been debated (Field, 2013, 2016) and ANCOVA is rather robust against violation of this assumption when samples are of equal size (Ateş, Kaymaz, Tekindal & Erdoğan, 2020), results

were still examined, although with some reservations. Results showed there was no significant effect of group ($N_{CC\text{-}HQ1}$ =28; N_{CI1} = 32) on brand attitude (p = 0.605). The cultural factor High-Low Context (HLC) was however significant, F(1, 49) = 2.029, p = 0.042. Partial Eta Squared values indicated that the covariate explained 8.2% of the variance. Brand attitude pre-exposure to the manipulated stimuli was also significant, F(1, 49) = 19.307, p<0.001, η^2 = 0.283.

As the homogeneity of variance assumption was nonetheless violated, a bootstrap was used and the analysis was repeated following Field's (2013) recommendations. The random factor Origins had however to be removed from the analysis. Levene's test was non-significant, p = 0.356. ANCOVA results were again examined and showed similar results (HLC_{STIM2}: F(1, 51) = 4.253, p = 0.044. Partial Eta Squared values slightly increased, with HLC explaining 9.37% of the variance. Pre-test brand attitude was again significant, F(1, 51) = 15.234, p<0.001, η^2 = 0.230.

Table 10
ANCOVA Summary Table for Brand Attitude for STIM1

Source	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	η^2
Corrected Model	34.707	8	4.338	4.362	<0.001	.406
Intercept	4.114	1	4.114	4.136	.047	.075
UVA	0.592	1	.592	.595	.444	.012
HLC	4.226	1	4.229	4.253	.044	.077
IND	0.020	1	.020	.020	.888	.000
LTO	2.453	1	2.453	2.466	.123	.046
PDI	0.254	1	.254	.255	.616	.005
MAS	0.078	1	.078	.078	.781	.002
Pre-test Brand Attitude	15.151	1	15.151	15.234	<.0001	.230
Group Condition	0.054	1	.054	.054	.817	.001
Error	50.772	51				
Total	1498.720	60				
Corrected Total	85.429	59				

Note. For the definition of the items, see Table X.

Table 11
(Un)Adjusted Means for Cultural Congruence on Brand Attitude for STIM1

Group Condition	*M*	*SD*	*EMM*	*SD*
Culturally Congruent	4.657	1.446	4.819	.196
Culturally Incongruent	5.025	.932	4.883	.182

Levene's test for homogeneity of variance was non-significant for STIM2, p = 0.273 – the analysis could thus be pursued without adjustments. Between-Subjects effects showed no

significant effect of group, F(1, 59) = 0.028, p = 0.895, nor of cultural covariates. The covariate Pre-test Brand Attitude was significant, F(1, 59) = 33.872, p<0.001, explaining 36.5% of the variance ($\eta^2 = 0.365$).

Table 12
(Un)Adjusted Means for Cultural Congruence on Brand Attitude for STIM2

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	*M*	*SD*	*EMM*	*SD*
Culturally Congruent	No	5.067	.902	4.652	.573
	Yes	4.764	1.280	4.826	.189
Culturally Incongruent	No	4.975	1.249	5.098	.352
	Yes	4.555	1.165	4.507	.177

5.3.3. Translation Quality on Brand Attitude

ANCOVAs were once again conducted to examine the effects of low vs. high translation quality on brand attitude. Culture and Pre-Test Brand Attitude were included as covariates, and Origins as a random factor.

The result of Levene's test of homogeneity of variance for STIM1 was non-significant (p = 0.084) and analysis could be pursued. The main analysis was non-significant, F(1, 0.830) = 0.424, p = 0.650, showing no significant difference between the groups exposed to low-quality translations (N = 26) and high-quality translations (N = 28), although Partial Eta Squared value indicated that the variable explained 33.8% of the variance. HLC was the only covariate which was significant, F(1, 43) = 7.340, p = 0.010, $\eta^2 = 0.146$.

Table 13
(Un)adjusted Means for Brand Attitude for STIM1

Translation Quality	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	*M*	*SD*	*EMM*	*SD*
High-Quality Translation	No	5.000	.717	4.438	.439
	Yes	4.583	1.563	4.509	.200
Low-Quality Translation	No	4.400	1.371	4.865	.530
	Yes	4.305	1.106	4.409	.220

As for STIM2, the homogeneity of variance assumption was met (p = 0.169) and ANCOVA results could be examined. Values for fixed (Group Condition) and random (Origins) factors could however not be computed and are missing from the analysis output. Values for the interaction of these two variables, however, were available and non-significant, F(1, 49) = 0.013, p = 0.911. Only Pre-Test Brand Attitude (F(1, 49) = 35.77, p<0.001) and HLC (F(1,49)

= 6.852, p = 0.12) were significant, and explained respectively 42.2% and 12.2% of the variance.

Table 14
(Un)adjusted Means for Brand Attitude for STIM2

Translation Quality	Swiss French-speaking Switzerland Origins	*M*	*SD*	*EMM*	*SD*
High-Quality Translation	No	5.067	.902	4.659	.534
	Yes	4.764	1.280	4.737	.171
Low-Quality Translation	No	4.700	.141	4.402	.709
	Yes	4.274	1.367	4.370	.176

5.3.4. English as a (Multi)Lingua Franca on Brand Attitude

Comparative Effects Test. To compare the effects of cultural congruence and language between the three groups, ANCOVAs were once again conducted. In a first series of tests, Culture and Pre-Test Brand Attitude were included as covariates, and Origins as random factor. Further random factors were included in the following subsection.

For STIM1, Levene's test was non-significant (p = 0.080), indicating the outputs could be interpreted. Although there was no significant effect of Group ($N_{CC\text{-}HQ1}$ = 28, N_{CI1} = 31, N_{ELF1} = 43), F(2, 2.011) = 0.719, p = 0.581, its interaction with random factor Origins was significant, F(2,89) = 3.216, p = 0.045, η^2 = 0.067. The covariate Long-Term Orientation (LTO) was the only significant cultural variables, F(1, 89) = 6.251, p = 0.014, explaining 6.6% of the variance. Akin to previous analyses, brand attitude prior to the participant's exposure to the stimuli was once again significant, F(1, 89) = 34.105, p<0.001, with the Partial Eta squares value explaining 27.7% of the variation (η^2 = 0.277).

Table 15
(Un)adjusted Means for Brand Attitude for STIM1

Message Style Group	Swiss French-speaking Switzerland Origins	*M*	*SD*	*EMM*	*SD*
Culturally Congruent Style	No	5.000	.707	4.748	.485
	Yes	4.583	1.563	4.773	.227
Culturally Incongruent Style	No	4.200	1.7697	2.980	.791
	Yes	5.048	.881	4.971	.205
English as (*multi*)*lingua franca*	No	5.450	.412	5.301	.547
	Yes	4.744	1.462	4.799	.175

The same steps were repeated for STIM2 ($N_{CC\text{-}HQ2}$ = 31, N_{CI2} = 29, N_{ELF2} = 31). Homogeneity of variance was non-significant (p = 0.552) and the assumption thus met. Only the Pre-Test Brand Attitude covariate was significant, F(1, 88) = 30.337, p <0.001, η^2 = 0.256. Partial Eta Squared for Group Condition indicated however a moderate effect (Wilcox, 2006) of the variable, explaining 50.7% of the variance. Although non-significant, slight differences in means can be observed in the table below.

Table 16
(Un)adjusted Means for Brand Attitude for STIM2

Message Style Group	Swiss French-speaking Switzerland Origins	*M*	*SD*	*EMM*	*SD*
Culturally Congruent Style	No	5.067	.902	4.787	.602
	Yes	4.764	1.280	4.917	.200
Culturally Incongruent Style	No	4.975	1.249	5.100	.369
	Yes	4.555	1.165	4.551	.186
English as (*multi*)*lingua franca*	No	4.850	.870	4.399	.538
	Yes	4.5585	1.178	4.491	.200

Moderating Effects Test. To examine the effects of Education and Age on the relationship between language and cultural congruence on brand attitude, the two variables were added to the model as random factors.

Levene's tests for education was non-significant for STIM1 (p = 0.318). For certain values were missing from the main analysis due to errors, the random factor Origins was removed from the analysis and the model met the homogeneity of variance assumption (p = 0.491). The inclusion of education in the model was non-significant although very close to being so, F(5, 21.605) = 2.647, p = 0.051. The Partial Eta Squared indicated that education explained 38.0% of the variance. Pre-Test Brand Attitude and LTO were the only variables to be significant. There was thus no significant effect of Education on the interaction between language use and Brand Attitude.

As for Age, the inclusion of Origins in the model once again led to values missing. Its exclusion, however, led to Levene's test being significant (p = 0.038). Consistent with Field (2016), the analysis was still examined although with reservations. Results showed that Age had a non-significant effect on the model, F(10, 20.16) = 1.09. p = 0.42, η^2 = 0.35. Although there is some missing data due to sample size, Tables C20 to be found in Appendix C present the data computed.

The inclusion of both Education and Age in the same model was also tested and met the assumption of homogeneity of variance (p = 0.459). The interaction between both factors proved to be non-significant, F(17, 7.986) = 1.590, p = 0.257. The Partial Eta Squared value however indicated the interaction explained 77.2% of the variance. Due to sample size however, marginal means could not be computed.

Table 17
ANCOVA Summary Table for Education on Brand Attitude for STIM1

Source		*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	η^2
Intercept	Hypothesis	5.257	1	5.257	4.276	.042	.048
	Error	104.956	85.368	1.229			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	3.137	1	3.137	2.600	.111	.031
	Error	96.502	80	1.206			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	1.370	1	1.370	1.136	.290	.014
	Error	96.502	80	1.206			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.112	1	.112	.093	.761	.001
	Error	96.502	80	1.206			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	3.914	1	3.914	3.245	.075	.039
	Error	96.502	80	1.206			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	2.188	1	2.188	1.813	.182	.022
	Error	96.502	80	1.206			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.066	1	.066	.055	.815	.001
	Error	96.502	80	1.206			
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	33.568	1	33.568	27.828	.000	.258
	Error	96.502	80	1.206			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	.388	2	.194	.268	.767	.022
	Error	17.220	23.828	.723			
Education	Hypothesis	9.349	5	1.870	2.647	.051	.380
	Error	15.259	21.605	.706			
Group Condition * Education	Hypothesis	3.706	7	.529	.439	.875	.037
	Error	96.502	80	1.206			

Note. For the definition of the items, see Table X.

As for STIM2, Levene's test was non-significant (p = 0.118), Education was once again non-significant, F(5, 0.941) = 2.261, p = 0.449, η^2 = 0.933. As for previous analyses, only Pre-Test Brand Attitude was significant. Table 18 below presents the adjusted and non-adjusted means for the model. Although non-significant, slim differences can be observed.

Table 18
(Un)adjusted Means for Education on Brand Attitude for E(M)LF for STIM2

Education Level	*M*	*SD*	*EMM*	*SD*
Mandatory Education	5.000	.	4.525	1.015
Vocational Education	4.933	.902	3.972	.632
General Education	4.720	1.171	4.556	.442
Higher Vocational Education	3.400	1.356	2.946	.515
Higher Academic Education	4.894	.898	4.778	.319
Missing Cases	3.000	.	2.436	.977

With regards to the moderating effects of Age, Levene's test was significant when both including and excluding the Origins factor, the significance value increasing slightly after its exclusion (p = 0.20 vs. p = 0.025). Results were nonetheless examined although cannot be considered conclusive. The Between-Subjects Effects test showed a non-significant effect of Age on the model, F(9, 20.625) = 0.973, p = 489, η^2 = 0.298. Apart from Pre-Test Brand Attitude, no variable was significant. Slight differences can nonetheless be seen in the adjusted means below.

Table 19
(Un)adjusted Means for Age on Brand Attitude for E(M)LF for STIM2

Age Range	*M*	*SD*	*EMM*	*SD*
18-24 years old	4.867	.115	4.794	.583
25-29 years old	4.860	4.489	4.921	.301
30-34 years old	6.000	.	5.116	.966
35-39 years old	5.200	1.121	4.883	.692
40-44 years old	4.600	1.083	4.176	.484
45-49 years old	4.100	1.352	3.922	.502
50-54 years old	3.267	2.553	2.897	562
55-59 years old	4.500	.707	3.838	.714
60-64 years old	5.000	.	4.739	1.014
65 years old or above	5.000	.	5.008	.978

Unlike for STIM1 however, the inclusion of both education and age in the model for STIM2 did not meet the homogeneity of variance assumption (p = 0.002), and the model was non-significant. Further outputs were not examined.

6. Discussion

6.1. Summary of Results

The analysis results unfolded hereinabove do not provide support for the hypotheses posited in this present study. Despite slight differences in (adjusted) means, the results of the comparative analyses conducted were largely non-significant and the variance observed was not sufficient to provide support for the hypotheses. The key results of this study therefore imply that cultural communication styles do not have a significant impact on customer brand attitude on an

intranational level, although the results must be read under the caveat of certain limitations – which will be expanded upon further below.

T-tests were first conducted in an effort to determine whether the participants perceived the stimuli shown to be culturally (in)congruent based on the manipulations. In terms of conciseness, a characteristic pertaining to German-speaking Switzerland, there was only a significant difference for STIM1, although STIM2 means showed a minute difference. The means showed small evidence that participants perceived the CI condition to be more concise, which provides slim support for the manipulation of the stimuli. However, participants did not perceive the CC(-HQ) condition to be more adapted or congruent than the CI condition. Moreover for STIM1, the CI condition was unexpectedly perceived as slightly more congruent than its counterpart, although differences were non-significant.

When controlling for Origins, however, the adjusted means in Tables C9 and C10 in Appendix C showed that participants who did not originate from French-speaking Switzerland rated the CC(-HQ) condition as incongruent, and conversely for the CI condition. This could imply that the manipulation of the stimuli was accurate; the CC(-HQ) conditions included phrases and words that were congruent to French-speaking Switzerland and incongruent to participants from other regions or countries. The lack of difference between both conditions for the French-speaking Swiss participants could be explained by the fact that the words and idioms used in the CI conditions are still commonly used in the region, despite there existing regional, cultural equivalents. As per the design of the study, participants were only exposed to one condition of each stimulus and were not able to compare between the two conditions. If perceived cultural congruence might have been different had the participants been exposed to both, the results of this analysis shows that participants from French-speaking Switzerland do not perceive non-regional terms to be foreign, and perceive standard French terms to be culturally congruent. The results therefore do not support Hypothesis 1, which is consequently rejected.

Building upon these findings, results showed that there is no effect of intranational cultural adaptation of communication style of brand attitude. The main analyses for both STIM1 and STIM2 were non-significant. Only HLC was found to be significant, although only for STIM1. Adjusted means for STIM2 showed a slight variation between French-speaking Swiss participants exposed to the CC(-HQ) ($M = 4.82$) and CI conditions ($M = 4.51$). The difference remains nonetheless too slim to be conclusive. Closely related to the first hypothesis, the lack of perceived difference between test conditions is mirrored by a lack of significant effects on brand attitude. Hypothesis 2 is thus also rejected.

These findings echo Wyss' (1986, as cited in Vanetti, Dimigen & Mondada, 2002) position, affirming that cultural differences within Switzerland are small. Similarly, Chevrier (2009) argued that Switzerland shares a common culture despite its internal heterogeneity. Moreover, Kaasa, Vadi and Varblane (2014) stated that "while one or more regions of a country are remarkably distinct on one or two dimensions, there are no signs of regional differences on other dimensions." (p. 848). Referring back to Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov's (2010) findings, Switzerland's regions vary importantly on only two dimensions, power distance and to a lesser extent, uncertainty avoidance. Regarding the high-low context dimension, Hall (1976/1989) had not distinguished between French- and German-speaking regions of Switzerland. Extant literature would however, as has been discussed previously, consider both regions as diverging on this dimension (De Mooij, 2004). To the knowledge of the author, no study has sought to confirm or infirm Hall's position. Furthermore, German-speaking Switzerland could be considered as high-context (Takhtarova, Abuzyarova & Kuzmina, 2019), which would go against Hall's categorization. Although this study's results would label French-speaking Switzerland a moderate-high-context (M = 3.34), it is unclear whether it differs from its neighboring region. The few dimensions along which Switzerland's main regions differ would therefore not be sufficient cause for within-country, regional adaptation.

The effect of translation quality was also studied. Surprisingly, ANCOVA results showed no significant effect of translation quality (low vs. high) on brand attitude. Only slim differences can be observed, even when controlling for Origins. Although adjusted means appear to be slightly superior for high-quality translations, the variation is not sufficient. These results therefore infirm Hypothesis 3.

This hypothesis was based on Pedraz-Delhaes, Aljukhadar and Sénécal's (2010) findings which found that translations of low quality negatively affected participants' attitude towards the brand. It must be noted that this study was conducted on assembly guides, a medium which, by essence, users must read attentively. SNS captions however, which were the object of manipulation in this study, are not always read as attentively. Yu, Hong and Egger, (2024) noted that average social media user attention span ranges between 7-15 seconds. In their study, the authors also highlighted the effect of sentence structure on user engagement, with more complex structures having a negative effect. Simple and shorter messages might therefore be preferred to longer and more complex sentences with regards to user engagement. The textual component of the vignettes used in this study might not have been adequate on this front, and participants' attention levels might not have been sufficiently high to notice the quality of the

translation. On the other hand, Müller, Martin-Lacroux and Lacroux (2019) found in their study that spelling errors are less noticed by website users than typographical errors. Although both types of errors have been found to have negative impacts on brand attitude, they underscore that users' attention levels play an important part in the relation and should be taken into account.

Finally, the effects of language used were also examined with regards to the use of E(M)LF. The results of the analyses were non-significant, indicating that no group vastly differed from the others in terms of brand attitude means. Moreover, when controlling for Origins, Brand Attitude means for the CI condition of STIM1 were slightly higher than for other conditions, directly opposing Hypothesis 4. For STIM2, the adjusted means observed followed the assumptions of Hypothesis 4, although they were not significant. Hypothesis 4 is consequently rejected. The lack of significant differences between the groups is consistent with previous findings in literature (Gerritsen et al., 2007; Micu and Coulter, 2010; Nickerson & Camiciottoli, 2013), which found no significant difference of E(M)FL on advertisement attitude, as well as with findings pertaining to Switzerland more specifically (Dürmüller, 1989; Cheshire & Moser, 1994).

The effect of Education and Age were not found to be significant on the relationship between the use of E(M)LF and Brand Attitude, both when included independently in the models, as well as conjointly. When accounting for Age, the adjusted mean values show that the age ranges between 30-34 and 35-39 years old to be the highest. Conversely, adjusted means for the age groups between 45 and 59 years old are the lowest, with values below 4. The 0.7 point decrease between the 40-44 years old and the younger age group appears to correspond to EF's (2023) observations, which showed a shift in proficiency in English above 40 years old. However, the values for the last two age groups, 60-64 and 65 years old and above, surprisingly increase to similar levels to the younger age groups. These results are thus opposite to extant evidence (EF, 2023; Krüger, 2023). It remains to be noted, however, that sample sizes for the two highest age groups are rather modest. Additionally, this same limitation led to the lack of results with regards to the combined effect of Age and Education. A larger sample would be preferred to yield more conclusive results. Nonetheless, the findings of this current study cannot provide support for Hypothesis 5.

6.2. Limitations of the Study

All five hypotheses posited in the present study are thereby rejected. However, this paper is subject to a number of limitations which must be highlighted, for their impact may have conflicted with the results and conclusions. A first limitation, which was mentioned hereinabove, is that of sample size. *A priori* power analysis computed a required sample size that was much larger than the effective sample gathered for this study (162 vs. 139). This shortcoming can impact research outcomes as "a smaller sample will give a result which may not be sufficiently powered to detect a difference between the groups and the study may turn out to be falsely negative leading to a type II error." (Nayak, 2010, p. 469).

Moreover, the sample size of 162 estimated prior to the research would perhaps not have been sufficient either. This study's results show the effect of culture to be small, whereas the *a priori* power analysis conducted for this study was based on a large effect size. When effect size is expected to be small, however, sample size must be increased (Nayak, 2010). The present study therefore suffers from its shortcoming of sample size and might have concluded differently had its sample been larger.

Furthermore, for the sample was largely collected through non-random sampling – mainly convenience and snowball sampling – it may not be representative of the population. The low participant rate further undermines the appropriateness and representativeness of the sample used, as the individuals who did not participate or fully complete the questionnaire may have different characteristics to the sample which motivated their choice for not participating (Howitt & Cramer, 2020).

Additionally, sampling of the brand used in this present study's apparatus must be discussed. Only one brand, Manor, was selected for this study. Using a larger number of brands could be an area of improvement to address this limitation. It must be noted, however, that such an apparatus could induce a fatigue effect in participants, if they were to evaluate multiple brands in a within-subjects design (Howitt & Cramer, 2020). A between-subjects design could overcome this effect, but would, however, require a much larger sample.

Sample size limitations further originate from this study's delimitations. The author's own limitations with regards to German language fluency impacted the study's design; as the questionnaire could only be provided and distributed to francophone participants, the design of the study itself was consequently adapted to this limitation. As comparisons between French-

and German-speaking Swiss participants were as a result not possible, this study approached comparative effects from a perceived cultural congruence standpoint. This delimitation coupled with the limitations of the stimuli's manipulation may have affected the results.

An additional limitation of this study lies in the lack of a validated translated version of Yoo, Donthu and Lenartowicz's (2011) CVSCALE and Warner-Søderholm's (2013) High-Low Context scale to French. EFA could not reproduce the factors developed by the authors and several items were removed as a result. Cronbach's alpha results for the remaining factors were all inferior to 0.7, which is generally considered the cutoff point. According to Hajjar (2018), values above 0.6 may also be considered acceptable. However, only three of the six factors – power distance (PDI), uncertainty avoidance (UVA) and HLC – have Cronbach's alphas of above 0.6. These values indicate that the factor items are not reliable. Moreover, Cronbach's alpha can also be affected by sample size, which has been established as a prior limitation. The low reliability of the cultural factors used in this study may therefore have impacted the results obtained above.

External validity is yet another concern, which has been highlighted as a general issue with experimental studies (Bryman, 2012). Although the survey was conducted online, a setting which is better adapted to SNS stimuli (AlRabiah, 2021), this study's research design consisted of exposing participants to social media – Instagram – stimuli outside of the native platform. Additionally, the stimuli shown did not accurately recreate content consumption conditions of Instagram; on the platform, post captions are truncated after 125 characters (Zhang & Su, 2022) and require user action to display the remaining characters. This study did not implement this characteristic of the platform. However, familiarity with regards to experimental setting has been denoted as important to the generalizability of research results (Winkler & Murphy, 1973). The unrealistic conditions of the experiment therefore affect the external validity of this study.

The limitations of this study could however be addressed in future research either in the Swiss context or in other multilingual, culturally diverse countries. A study design measuring and comparing all linguistic and cultural communities and reaching sufficient sample size would provide a better attempt at answering the research question and hypotheses formulated in the present study.

7. Conclusion

New and everchanging behaviors in consumers engendered by the advent of social media have driven businesses across a vast range of industries to integrate social media activities into their marketing strategies. Among these industries, the retail industry has been denoted as facing important opportunities, for evidence points to social media, and SNS more specifically, being highly influential in determining marketing success (Anjorin, Raji & Odolo, 2024) through their ability to affect a wide array of levers (Dwivedi & McDonald, 2020; Arghashi, Bozbay & Karami, 2021; Leung, Bai & Stahura, 2015), including brand attitude (Schivinski & Lebrwoski, 2016).

For brand attitude is intrinsically linked to brand equity, loyalty and firm success (Taylor, Celuch and Goodwin, 2004), understanding the effects of social media and social media marketing on consumer behavior has therefore become increasingly relevant over the years for both managers and scholars alike. The global quality of social media has further prompted researchers to investigate the moderating effects of culture (Mattison Thompson & Brouthers, 2021; Agag et al., 2024), which has been widely discussed as varying across nations (Geertz, 1973; Linton, 1998; Hofstede, 2001) as well as within them (Kaasa, Vadi & Varblane, 2014).

Many factors have been identified as causing intranational cultural differences (Hofstede, 2001; Waehning, Sirkeci, Dahl & Zeyneloglu, 2018), language being one of them (Akaliyski, Welzel, Bond & Minkov, 2021). In spite of the important debate opposing the standardization of the marketing mix and the adaptation of its elements to local culture, little interest has been granted to within-country cross-cultural differences (Poulis & Poulis, 2013). Although different cultural and linguistic groups can be targeted individually by traditional advertising when separated by clear geographical borders (Lasagabaster & Huguet, 2006), it is not the case on social media, and firms have been found to apply various strategies to address multilingual markets which include the use of multiple national languages or the use of English as a substitute for national languages, or as a (*multi*)*lingua franca* (Català-Oltra, Martínez-Gras & Penalva-Verdú, 2022; Detienne, 2023).

The use of multiple national languages, however, entails a need for translation, which is an exercise grounded not only in linguistic competencies, but also cultural and to a certain extent, marketing competencies as well (Séguinot, 1955, as cited in Valdés Rodríguez, 2016). Accurate translation work indeed requires an understanding of the base and target languages' cultures,

symbolic referents, and culturally-dependent communication styles in order to grasp and convey the true meaning of messages (De Mooij, 2004). Whilst within-country cultural adaptation has been increasingly studied, it had not yet been explored with regards to social media marketing and cultural communication styles (Alshoaibi, 2021).

The purpose of this present study was therefore to examine the effects of various cultural and linguistic strategies at an intranational level on social media with the aim of determining whether these strategies had a significant ability to affect social media users' brand attitude. The use of multiple languages was examined with regards to the need for translation, translation quality, as well as the subsequent differences of culturally-dependent communication styles, and compared to the use of E(M)LF.

Although limited by the multiple factors discussed previously, this study's main results seem to indicate a lack of differential effects of the aforementioned strategies on participants' attitudes toward a Swiss retail brand. Within-country cultural adaptation of communication styles did not result in higher brand attitude, and conversely, the standardization of another national cultural group's communication style did not result in lower brand attitude. Translation quality did similarly not impact brand attitude, as was initially hypothesized; neither typographical nor grammatical mistakes, as well as mistakes due to the literal translation of cultural idioms had a significant effect on brand attitude. Finally, the use of the English language as substitute to the use of multiple national languages did not significantly differ in terms of brand attitude to the use of national languages, even when accounting for age and education levels. Results obtained herein this study can therefore not provide sufficient evidence to support the five hypotheses developed, which were hereby rejected.

The results of this study have two key practical implications vis-à-vis social media marketing and communication practices. The lack of effect of within-country cultural adaptation of communication styles on social media provides support for their standardization. Proponents of this approach have largely acclaimed its benefits in terms of cost reductions (Magnani, 2022). The possibility of standardizing social media communication in terms of communication style may allow for businesses addressing the multilingual market of Switzerland on social media to spare a number of costs, which may otherwise have been spent on market research, without negatively affecting consumers' evaluations of their brand.

Furthermore, the use of E(M)LF could be a more cost-saving solution yet. Although it is premature to draw decisive conclusions from this study's results, the use of English would appear not to have a differential effect to the use of multiple national languages on brand

attitude, despite not being an official language in Switzerland. As was previously mentioned, the Swiss population, despite living in a multilingual country, is not necessarily plurilingual. Costs linked with translating or having messages be translated into multiple national languages could consequently be avoided by favoring the use of E(M)LF on social media, even for brands with a national identity like Manor, used herein this study.

Moreover, costs related to employing a multilingual strategy do not pertain only to translation, but also to content creation, as firms must then consider which language to produce the content in, whether it be written text in images, spoken text in videos, and if used, the subtitles used in said videos. By using only one language, firms can make several types of cost-related economies, including time costs. Additionally, this strategy would better fit SNS characteristics, most precisely Instagram as was used in this study. The use of multiple national languages entails longer captions, which might consequently be truncated by Instagram's 125 character limit. Depending on the structure of the caption, this strategy might require user action to display the caption in the language they understand. The use of a *lingua franca* allows for the display of the entirety, or most of the message, before it is truncated. The use of E(M)LF might therefore facilitate or ensure the marketing message reaching social media users.

However, it remains to be noted that Kaasa, Vadi and Varblane (2014) recommended systematic research for any specific country. Although the effects of within-country adaptation of communication style proved to have no significant effect on brand attitude in Switzerland, other (multilingual) countries with intranational cross-cultural differences might benefit from such research and adaptation efforts. The conclusions drawn from this study can therefore not be extended to other contexts, and only apply to Switzerland, communication styles and brand attitude.

If the limitations of this study may hinder drawing compelling or conclusive evidence from the results obtained, it raises a number of questions with regards to within-country cross-cultural differences. The results of the present work suggest that the cultural differences between Switzerland's main two regions are not significant in terms of preferred communication style, whose theory is largely based on Hofstede's (2001) and Hall's (1976/1989) cultural dimensions (De Mooij, 2004). Means across the six cultural dimensions studied show French-speaking Swiss participants to have somewhat differing cultural orientations to what was expected. Power distance, individualism and uncertainty avoidance scores were all lower than Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov's (2010) findings suggested, and more similar to what is expected of German-speaking Switzerland. Cross-cultural differences in Switzerland may therefore be less

significant than extant literature leads to believe. This theoretical implication could be an area of future research, as this present work did not study a German-speaking sample with which to compare the French-speaking sample. These findings thus raise a need for updated measurements of within-country cross-cultural differences in Switzerland, as well as perhaps in other countries.

In order, however, to further scholarly work on intranational cross-cultural differences not only in Switzerland but in general, it would be recommended for future research to focus on the developing of adequate cultural scales. As discussed *supra*, the results obtained in this study partly depend on the inadequacy of the scales used to measure cultural dimensions at an individual level. Despite the repeated prior validations of the scales used, this study's factor analysis could not reproduce the expected results, and reliability was as a result low. The use of individual-level scales such as the CVSCALE (Yoo, Donthu and Lenartowicz's (2011) or Warner-Søderholm's (2013) High-Low Context scale to measure individual cultural orientation, as opposed to using national culture as a proxy, is however preferred in order to better understand individual consumer behavior (Schiffinger, 2024). The development and validation of translated versions of these scales, at least to the French language, as well as others thereby represent an avenue which might benefit – and benefit – from further research.

With regards to translation quality, future research could further develop on the findings obtained herein. Although brand attitude has been found to be affected by errors, the results of this study did not find an significant effect, which could be attributed to participants' attention levels not being accounted for, as briefly touched on previously (Müller, Martin-Lacroux & Lacroux, 2019). Future research could therefore expand upon these findings in an effort to provide more conclusive evidence.

In addition to the previously mentioned avenues, future research could also be conducted with respect to other industries and firms within them. As previously discussed, only one retailer – more specifically a department store with a mid-end positioning – was used in this study. Including a higher number of brands could not only address an issue of robustness, but it could also provide additional knowledge pertaining to various markets and positionings. As different customer targets possess varying sets of characteristics, their evaluation of various brands could differ across the multiple social media strategies discussed in this study. There is consequently a need for further research in order to fully grasp the influence of the aforementioned strategies on brand attitude in multilingual and/or multicultural countries.

Despite the many limitations of this study and the questionable generalizability of its findings, the research conducted presently raises interesting new areas of research within the fields of social media marketing, cross-cultural communication and the use of English as a non-cultural language and as (*multi*)*lingua franca*, as well as on within-country cultural differences. Extant literature has largely used nation synonymously to culture, despite evidence-based recommendations to forego this common practice. This study aimed at contributing to the current body of knowledge on within-country cross-cultural research and communication. In summary, no clear support was provided for the need to adapt communication styles to intranational cultural groups with regards to brand attitude, and constitutes a potential avenue for future research both specifically for Switzerland, as well as for other multicultural countries.

The key finding of this study lies in the effect of E(M)LF in Switzerland, which was not significantly different from the use of national languages. These results as they are interpreted have practical significance for firms operating in Switzerland, and potentially in other multilingual countries. Although the findings of this study must be read contextually, extant literature suggests non-cultural English to be a European *lingua franca* (Mondiano, 2009). While further research would be necessary to draw conclusions concerning other multilingual nations in Europe and elsewhere, E(M)LF could reveal itself to be a cost-reducing strategy for businesses, and the retail industry more specifically, engaging in social media marketing.

In a nation which holds multilingualism as an integral part of its national identity (Lüdi, 2007), these findings could suggest a potential change in the status of the English language in Switzerland. As of current, English is not considered an official language, but is increasingly used, notably by younger generations, and in a plethora of domains, ranging from business environments to personal entertainment (Krüger, 2023).

The development of the use of English in Switzerland perhaps echoes a cultural shift in the country. Although the existence of the *Röstigraben* dividing Switzerland's main regions can still be felt with regards to political and welfare discussions in the country (Eugster, Lalive, Steinhauer & Zweimüller, 2017), this study's results vary from the expected cultural orientation of French-speaking Switzerland and seem to resemble its neighboring region's expected cultural characteristics. While culture is generally considered to have a stable and enduring effect, the gradually increasing place taken by the non-national, non-cultural language used to increase cooperation that is English may be engendering a convergence of cultures between French-, German-, and perhaps Italian- and Romansch-speaking groups in Switzerland which remains to be observed.

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9. Appendices

Appendix A

Experiment Apparatus

Figure A1
STIM1 – Culturally Congruent – High Quality Translation Vignette

Figure A2

STIM1 – Culturally Congruent – Low Quality Translation Vignette

Figure A3
STIM1 – Culturally Incongruent

Figure A4
STIM1 – E(M)LF

Figure A5

STIM2 – Culturally Congruent – High Quality Translation Vignette

Figure A6

STIM2 – Culturally Congruent – Low Quality Translation Vignette

Figure A7
STIM2 – Culturally Incongruent

1 910 J'aime

manor Kaiserwetter im Juni - Packen Sie Ihre Regenmäntel weg! 🌞 Die orangen Akzente machen dieses leichte, gesteppte Jacket zum Hingucker! Entdecke die neue Frühlingskollektion, jetzt bei Manor. 🌱

.

Les températures remontent au mois de juin ! 🌞 Échange ton imperméable contre cette veste légère aux accents oranges accrocheurs ! Découvre la nouvelle collection de printemps de Manor. 🌱

.

Arcobaleno porta il sereno - mettere via il tuo impermeabile! 🌞 Gli accenti arancioni fanno di questa giacca trapuntata leggera la protagonista dell'outfit! La nuova collezione primavera, ora da Manor. 🌱

.

#manor #specialeveryday

Figure A8
STIM2 – E(M)LF

Appendix B

Survey Instrument

Introduction
Bonjour, je suis étudiante en Master à l'Université de Fribourg. Dans le cadre de mes recherches sur les styles de communication en Suisse romande et l'attitude envers la marque, j'aurais besoin de votre contribution.

Il n'y a pas de bonnes ou mauvaises réponses: merci de répondre à toutes les questions de manière sincère et consciencieuse.

Vous devriez pouvoir remplir ce questionnaire en 10-15 minutes.

Merci pour votre participation !

Data Collection Consent
Vos données seront traitées de manière anonyme et ne seront conservées que pour la durée de cette étude. Vos réponses seront combinées avec celles d'autres participants lors de l'analyse et ne permettront pas de vous identifier.

( ) Je souhaite participer à cette étude.
( ) Je ne souhaite pas participer à cette étude.

Logic: Hidden unless – Data Collection Consent *has for answer "*Je souhaite participer à cette étude."

Section 1: Cultural Dimensions
Dans cette section, vous serez amené-e à donner votre avis sur des énoncés. *Veuillez les lire attentivement et répondre honnêtement.*
Dans quelle mesure êtes-vous d'accord ou pas d'accord avec les énoncés suivants ?

1. Les personnes occupant des positions supérieures devraient prendre la plupart des décisions sans consulter les personnes occupant des positions inférieures.
2. Les personnes occupant des positions supérieures ne devraient pas demander l'opinion des personnes occupant des positions inférieures trop souvent.
3. Les personnes occupant des positions supérieures devraient éviter les interactions sociales avec des personnes occupant des positions inférieures.
4. Les personnes occupant des positions inférieures ne devraient pas être en désaccord avec des personnes occupant une position supérieure.
5. Les personnes occupant des positions supérieures ne devraient pas déléguer de tâches importantes à des personnes occupant des positions inférieures.
6. Avoir des instructions détaillées est important pour que je sache toujours ce que je suis censé-e faire.
7. Il est important de suivre de près les instructions et les procédures.
8. Les règles et règlementations sont importantes car elles m'informent sur ce qui est attendu de moi.
9. Les procédés de travail standardisés sont utiles.
10. Les instructions de fonctionnement sont importantes.
11. Les individus doivent sacrifier leur intérêt propre au profit du groupe.
12. Les individus doivent rester soudés au groupe même à travers les difficultés.
13. Le bien-être du groupe est plus important que le bien-être individuel.
14. Le succès du groupe est plus important que le succès individuel.

15. Les individus doivent poursuivre leurs objectifs seulement après avoir considéré le bien-être du groupe.
16. La loyauté envers le groupe devrait être encouragée même si cela va à l'encontre des objectifs individuels.
17. Avoir une carrière est plus important pour un homme que pour une femme.
18. Les hommes résolvent plus souvent les problèmes qu'ils rencontrent grâce à leur analyse tandis que les femmes le font grâce à leur intuition.
19. Résoudre les problèmes difficiles nécessite de les prendre à-bras-le-corps, ce qui est typique des hommes.
20. Il existe certains métiers qu'un homme fera toujours mieux qu'une femme.
21. Dans notre région, nous accordons de la valeur à l'honnêteté dans les réunions et discussions.
22. Dans notre région, nous essayons d'éviter de montrer notre désaccord ouvertement car nous préférons maintenir un sentiment d'harmonie dans les réunions.
23. Dans notre région, nous aimons dire les choses telles qu'elles sont.
24. Dans notre région, c'est la manière dont nous disons « oui » ou « non » qui indique ce que l'on veut vraiment dire.
25. Dans notre région, nous pensons qu'il est plus important de maintenir l'harmonie et un ton positif dans les réunions que de parler franchement.
26. Avoir une gestion prudente de l'argent est important.
27. Il est important de persévérer avec détermination malgré l'opposition.
28. La régularité et la stabilité personnelle sont importantes.
29. Il est important de planifier sur le long-terme.
30. Renoncer au plaisir d'aujourd'hui pour réussir dans l'avenir est important.
31. Il est important de travailler dur pour réussir dans l'avenir.
32. Veuillez sélectionnez l'option 'Plutôt d'accord'.
    ( ) Pas du tout d'accord
    ( ) Plutôt pas d'accord
    ( ) Ni d'accord, ni pas d'accord
    ( ) Plutôt d'accord
    ( ) Tout à fait d'accord

*Logic: Hidden unless – Question 32 has for answer "*Plutôt d'accord*".*

Section 2: Brand Attitude

Dans cette section, vous serez amené-e à répondre à des questions sur les grands magasins Manor. *Veuillez les lire attentivement et répondre honnêtement.*

33. Connaissez-vous les grands magasins Manor ?
    ( ) Oui
    ( ) Non

*Logic: Hidden unless – Question 33 has for answer "*Oui.*"*

34. Travaillez-vous actuellement chez Manor ou avez-vous travaillé chez Manor par le passé ?
    ( ) Oui
    ( ) Non
35. Veuillez indiquer votre opinion générale de Manor.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Repoussant	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Attirant
Mauvaise	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Bonne
Déplaisante	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Plaisante
Défavorable	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Favorable

Désagréable	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Agréable

Dans cette section, vous allez voir 2 publications Instagram de Manor. *Veuillez lire les descriptions en français attentivement et répondre aux questions honnêtement.*
Logic: Random vignette STIM1 shown

36. Veuillez indiquer votre opinion générale de Manor.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Repoussant	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Attirant
Mauvaise	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Bonne
Déplaisante	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Plaisante
Défavorable	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Favorable
Désagréable	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Agréable

Dans quelle mesure êtes-vous d'accord ou pas d'accord avec les énoncés suivants ?
37. Le message contient des expressions, termes ou mots utilisés dans ma région.
38. Les expressions, termes ou mots dans le message sont utilisés couramment dans ma région.
39. Le message est concis.
- ( ) Pas du tout d'accord
- ( ) Plutôt pas d'accord
- ( ) Ni d'accord, ni pas d'accord
- ( ) Plutôt d'accord
- ( ) Tout à fait d'accord

Logic: Random vignette STIM2 shown
40. Veuillez indiquer votre opinion générale de Manor.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Repoussant	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Attirant
Mauvaise	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Bonne
Déplaisante	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Plaisante
Défavorable	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Favorable
Désagréable	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	Agréable

Dans quelle mesure êtes-vous d'accord ou pas d'accord avec les énoncés suivants ?
41. Le message contient des expressions, termes ou mots utilisés dans ma région.
42. Les expressions, termes ou mots dans le message sont utilisés couramment dans ma région.
43. Le message est concis.
- ( ) Pas du tout d'accord
- ( ) Plutôt pas d'accord
- ( ) Ni d'accord, ni pas d'accord
- ( ) Plutôt d'accord
- ( ) Tout à fait d'accord

Section 3: Demographics
Dans cette section, nous aimerions vous poser des questions sur vous-même. Vos réponses ne nous permettront pas de vous identifier. *Veuillez les lire attentivement et répondre honnêtement.*

44. À quel genre vous identifiez-vous ?
- ( ) Femme
- ( ) Homme

( ) Autre
( ) Je préfère ne pas répondre

45. Quel âge avez-vous ?
( ) 18-24 ans
( ) 25-29 ans
( ) 30-34 ans
( ) 35-39 ans
( ) 45-49 ans
( ) 50-54 ans
( ) 55-59 ans
( ) 60-64 ans
( ) 65 ans ou plus
( ) Je préfère ne pas répondre

46. De quelle(s) nationalité(s) êtes-vous ? *Cochez tout ce qui s'applique.*
[ ] Suisse
[ ] Française
[ ] Autre
( ) Je préfère ne pas répondre

*Logic: Hidden unless – Question 46 has for answer "*Suisse*".*

47. De quelle(s) région(s) êtes-vous originaire ? * *Cochez tout ce qui s'applique.*
[ ] Suisse alémanique
[ ] Suisse romande
[ ] Suisse italienne
[ ] Suisse romanche
( ) Je préfère ne pas répondre

48. Quel est le plus haut niveau d'éducation que vous ayez atteint ? *Veuillez sélectionner une seule des propositions suivantes:*
( ) Scolarité obligatoire
( ) Degré secondaire II: Formation professionnelle initiale
( ) Degré secondaire II: Maturité gymnasiale (lycée)
( ) Degré tertiaire: Haute école spécialisée
( ) Degré tertiaire: Haute école universitaire
( ) Je préfère ne pas répondre

Ending.

Le questionnaire est terminé. Vos réponses ont été enregistrées. Vous pouvez fermer la page. Merci pour votre temps et participation !

Appendix C

Output Tables

Tables C1

Descriptive Analyses

gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Femme	94	67.6	68.6	68.6
	Homme	40	28.8	29.2	97.8
	Autre	3	2.2	2.2	100.0
	Total	137	98.6	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.4		
Total		139	100.0		

age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below 18 years old	4	2.9	2.9	2.9
	18-24 years old	32	23.0	23.0	25.9
	25-29 years old	43	30.9	30.9	56.8
	30-34 years old	5	3.4	3.6	60.4
	35-39 years old	8	5.8	5.8	66.2
	40-44 years old	9	6.5	6.5	72.7
	45-49 years old	10	7.2	7.2	79.9
	50-54 years old	10	7.2	7.2	87.1
	55-59 years old	7	5.0	5.0	92.1
	60-64 years old	7	5.0	5.0	97.1
	65 years old or above	4	2.9	2.9	100.0
Total		139	100.0		

education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Mandatory Education	5	3.6	3.6	3.6
	Vocational Education	18	12.9	12.9	16.5
	General Education	17	12.2	12.2	28.8
	Higher Vocational Education	29	20.9	20.9	49.6
	Higher Academic Education	69	49.6	49.6	99.3
	I prefer not to answer	1	.7	.7	100.0
Total		139	100.0		

Country of Origin

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Swiss	122	1	1	1.00	.000
French	23	1	1	1.00	.000

Other	19	1	1	1.00	.000
I prefer not to answer	1	1	1	1.00	.
Valid N (listwise)	0				

Swiss Origins

	N	Percent	Percent of Cases
German-Speaking Swiss	3	2.4%	2.5%
French-Speaking Swiss	116	94.3%	95.1%
Italian-Speaking Swiss	1	0.8%	0.8%
Romansch-Speaking Swiss	1	0.8%	0.8%
I prefer not to answer	2	1.6%	1.6%
Total	123	100.0%	100.8%

Tables C2

Exploratory Factor Analysis for Cultural Dimensions Scales – 31 items

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.634
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1015.228
	df	465
	Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.843	12.397	12.397	3.843	12.397	12.397	2.480	8.001	8.001
2	2.938	9.478	21.874	2.938	9.478	21.874	2.255	7.276	15.277
3	2.239	7.222	29.097	2.239	7.222	29.097	2.223	7.171	22.448
4	1.955	6.306	35.403	1.955	6.306	35.403	2.169	6.998	29.446
5	1.665	5.370	40.773	1.665	5.370	40.773	2.031	6.551	35.997
6	1.516	4.889	45.662	1.516	4.889	45.662	1.715	5.533	41.530
7	1.360	4.387	50.049	1.360	4.387	50.049	1.639	5.287	46.817
8	1.298	4.187	54.236	1.298	4.187	54.236	1.514	4.883	51.700
9	1.171	3.779	58.015	1.171	3.779	58.015	1.482	4.780	56.480
10	1.141	3.682	61.697	1.141	3.682	61.697	1.385	4.469	60.949
11	1.057	3.411	65.107	1.057	3.411	65.107	1.289	4.159	65.107
12	.871	2.810	67.917						
13	.839	2.706	70.623						
14	.820	2.644	73.267						
15	.743	2.398	75.665						
16	.711	2.293	77.958						
17	.671	2.165	80.123						
18	.667	2.150	82.273						
19	.639	2.061	84.335						
20	.591	1.907	86.241						
21	.559	1.803	88.045						
22	.500	1.613	89.658						
23	.485	1.566	91.224						

24	.462	1.491	92.714
25	.455	1.467	94.181
26	.360	1.161	95.343
27	.332	1.071	96.413
28	.313	1.010	97.423
29	.281	.908	98.331
30	.267	.861	99.191
31	.251	.809	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
IND1	.723										
IND3	.710				.313						
IND4	.610										
IND5	.609									.471	
IND6	.577										.439
IND2	.429								.399		
HLC2		.775									
HLC5		.761									
HLC3		.678									
HLC1		-.596							.498		
UVA4			.753								
UVA2			.740								
UVA3			.660								
UAV1			.412	.329				.359			
LTO4				.761							
LTO3				.691							
LTO6				.596							
UVA5			.377	.457						.302	.407
MAS3					.739						
MAS2					.651		.378				
PDI4					.579	.372			.368		
LTO5				.323	.497						
PDI2						.811					
PDI1						.714		.314			
MAS1							.801				

MAS4		.652		
PDI5		.746		
PDI3		.729		.305
HLC4			.735	
LTO2				-.786
LTO1	.362			-.638

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

Tables C3

Exploratory Factor Analysis for Cultural Dimensions Scales – 16 items

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.606
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	354.458
	df	120
	Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.468	15.428	15.428	2.468	15.428	15.428	1.834	11.463	11.463
2	2.016	12.599	28.026	2.016	12.599	28.026	1.823	11.394	22.857
3	1.639	10.241	38.268	1.639	10.241	38.268	1.742	10.888	33.745
4	1.500	9.372	47.640	1.500	9.372	47.640	1.641	10.257	44.002
5	1.348	8.428	56.067	1.348	8.428	56.067	1.560	9.750	53.751
6	1.149	7.183	63.251	1.149	7.183	63.251	1.520	9.499	63.251
7	.833	5.207	68.457						
8	.760	4.749	73.207						
9	.711	4.443	77.650						
10	.660	4.125	81.775						
11	.595	3.721	85.495						
12	.558	3.489	88.984						
13	.509	3.182	92.167						
14	.477	2.978	95.145						
15	.421	2.632	97.777						
16	.356	2.223	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
UVA3	.776					
UVA2	.769					

UVA4	.696					
HLC5		.836				
HLC2		.815				
HLC3		.624				
IND5			.763			
IND3			.727			
IND1			.703			
LTO4				.768		
LTO3				.750		
LTO6				.634		
PDI1					.831	
PDI2					.812	
MAS3						.831
MAS2						.790

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Tables C4

Reliability Analyses for Cultural Dimensions Scales

Power Distance

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.617	2

Uncertainty Avoidance

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.654	3

Individualism

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.589	3

Masculinity

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.582	2

Long-Term Orientation

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.545	3

High-Low Context

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.659	3

Tables C5

Means for Cultural Dimensions by Origins

		Power Distance		Uncertainty Avoidance		Individualism		Masculinity		Long-Term Orientation		High-Low Context	
		Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	No	1.37	.57	3.97	.57	2.54	.67	1.98	.75	4.09	.65	3.30	.89
	Yes	1.47	.61	3.77	.63	2.77	.80	1.65	.77	3.91	.60	3.34	.76

Tables C6

Reliability Analysis for Brand Attitude

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.912	5

Tables C7

Conciseness Check – STIM1

Group Statistics

	CC-HQ vs. CI - STIM1	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Conciseness	Culturally Congruent	30	3.60	1.070	.195
	Culturally Incongruent	36	4.08	.770	.128

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Conciseness	Equal variances assumed	3.357	.072	-2.130	64	.037	-.483	.227	-.937	-.030
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.068	51.486	.044	-.483	.234	-.952	-.014

Tables C8

Conciseness Check – STIM2

Group Statistics

	CC-HQ vs. CI - STIM2	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Conciseness	Culturally Congruent	36	3.39	.903	.151
	Culturally Incongruent	40	3.63	1.079	.171

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Conciseness	Equal variances assumed	.888	.349	-1.028	74	.307	-.236	.230	-.694	.221
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.038	73.637	.303	-.236	.227	-.689	.217

Tables C9

Perceived Cultural Congruence Tests – STIM1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
CC-HQ vs. CI - STIM1	1.00	Culturally Congruent	30
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	36
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	0	Non sélectionné	10
	1	Oui	56

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Perceived Congruence

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	No	3.0000	1.09545	6
	Yes	3.7708	.84672	24
	Total	3.6167	.93480	30
Culturally Incongruent	No	3.8750	.62915	4
	Yes	3.8437	.85607	32
	Total	3.8472	.82652	36
Total	No	3.3500	1.00139	10
	Yes	3.8125	.84511	56
	Total	3.7424	.87812	66

[a]

Dependent Variable: Perceived Congruence

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.672	3	62	.573

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.[a]

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + GH2_1 + CH_FR + GH2_1 * CH_FR

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Perceived Congruence

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Intercept	Hypothesis	385.859	1	385.859	635.006
	Error	.650	1.070	.608[a]	
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	.383	1	.383	.503
	Error	42.575	56	.760[b]	
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	.001	1	.001	.002
	Error	42.575	56	.760[b]	
Individualism	Hypothesis	1.056	1	1.056	1.389
	Error	42.575	56	.760[b]	
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	1.374	1	1.374	1.807
	Error	42.575	56	.760[b]	
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.566	1	.566	.744
	Error	42.575	56	.760[b]	
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.550	1	.550	.723
	Error	42.575	56	.760[b]	
Group Condition	Hypothesis	1.635	1	1.635	.868
	Error	1.867	.991	1.884[c]	
	Hypothesis	.603	1	.603	.332

French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Error	1.893	1.040	1.819[d]	
Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	1.871	1	1.871	2.461
	Error	42.575	56	.760[b]	

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Perceived Congruence

Source		Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	.020	.998
	Error		
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	.481	.009
	Error		
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	.966	.000
	Error		
Individualism	Hypothesis	.244	.024
	Error		
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	.184	.031
	Error		
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.392	.013
	Error		
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.399	.013
	Error		
Group Condition	Hypothesis	.524	.467
	Error		
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	.664	.242
	Error		
Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	.122	.042
	Error		

a. ,974 MS(CH_FR) + ,026 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. 1,011 MS(GH2_1 * CH_FR) - ,011 MS(Error)
d. ,953 MS(GH2_1 * CH_FR) + ,047 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins*

Dependent Variable: Perceived Congruence

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	No	3.035[a]	.358	2.317	3.753
	Yes	3.820[a]	.183	3.453	4.188
Culturally Incongruent	No	3.993[a]	.466	3.060	4.926
	Yes	3.785[a]	.158	3.469	4.101

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0172257, High-Low Context = ,1557285, Individualism = -,1540239, Long-term Orientation = -,0238223, Power Distance = -,1521421, Masculinity = ,0215515.

Tables C10

Perceived Cultural Congruence Tests – STIM2

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	36
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	40
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	0	Non sélectionné	16
	1	Oui	60

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Perceived Congruence

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	No	2.7857	1.21988	7
	Yes	3.7931	.73821	29
	Total	3.5972	.92443	36
Culturally Incongruent	No	3.5000	.90139	9
	Yes	3.4839	.92632	31
	Total	3.4875	.90926	40
Total	No	3.1875	1.07819	16
	Yes	3.6333	.84806	60
	Total	3.5395	.91201	76

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Perceived Congruence

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.290	3	72	.284

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.[a]

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + GH2_2 + CH_FR + GH2_2 * CH_FR

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Perceived Congruence

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Intercept	Hypothesis	534.576	1	534.576	140.540
	Error	3.764	.990	3.804[a]	
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	.689	1	.689	.846
	Error	53.702	66	.814[b]	
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	.224	1	.224	.275
	Error	53.702	66	.814[b]	
Individualism	Hypothesis	1.130	1	1.130	1.389
	Error	53.702	66	.814[b]	
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	.086	1	.086	.106
	Error	53.702	66	.814[b]	
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.418	1	.418	.513
	Error	53.702	66	.814[b]	
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.306	1	.306	.376
	Error	53.702	66	.814[b]	
Group Condition	Hypothesis	.492	1	.492	.140
	Error	3.517	1.001	3.513[c]	
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	3.733	1	3.733	1.084
	Error	3.489	1.013	3.444[d]	

Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	3.519	1	3.519	4.325
	Error	53.702	66	.814[b]	

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Perceived Congruence

Source		Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	.055	.993
	Error		
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	.361	.013
	Error		
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	.602	.004
	Error		
Individualism	Hypothesis	.243	.021
	Error		
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	.746	.002
	Error		
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.476	.008
	Error		
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.542	.006
	Error		
Group Condition	Hypothesis	.772	.123
	Error		
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	.485	.517
	Error		
Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	.041	.061
	Error		

a. 1,024 MS(CH_FR) - ,024 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. ,998 MS(GH2_2 * CH_FR) + ,002 MS(Error)
d. ,972 MS(GH2_2 * CH_FR) + ,028 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins*

Dependent Variable: Perceived Congruence

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	No	2.711[a]	.352	2.009	3.413
	Yes	3.824[a]	.171	3.483	4.166
Culturally Incongruent	No	3.459[a]	.309	2.843	4.076
	Yes	3.483[a]	.163	3.158	3.809

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = -,0422259, High-Low Context = ,0840454, Individualism = -,0272957, Long-term Orientation = ,0027546, Power Distance = -,0424815, Masculinity = -,0378545.

Tables C11

ANCOVA for Effect of Cultural Communication Style on Brand Attitude – STIM1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	28
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	32
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	0	No	8
	1	Yes	52

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	No	5.0000	.70711	5
	Yes	4.5826	1.56311	23
	Total	4.6571	1.44618	28
Culturally Incongruent	No	4.8000	1.58745	3
	Yes	5.0483	.88100	29
	Total	5.0250	.93222	32
Total	No	4.9250	1.00818	8
	Yes	4.8423	1.23881	52
	Total	4.8533	1.20331	60

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
3.458	3	56	.022

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH2_1 + CH_FR + GH2_1 * CH_FR

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	.836	1	.836	.789	.383	.030
	Error	26.951	25.440	1.059[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	.861	1	.861	.912	.344	.018
	Error	46.267	49	.944[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	4.120	1	4.120	4.364	.042	.082
	Error	46.267	49	.944[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.148	1	.148	.157	.694	.003
	Error	46.267	49	.944[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	1.916	1	1.916	2.029	.161	.040
	Error	46.267	49	.944[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.025	1	.025	.026	.872	.001
	Error	46.267	49	.944[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.006	1	.006	.006	.936	.000

	Error	46.267	49	.944[b]			
Pre-Test Brand	Hypothesis	18.230	1	18.230	19.307	.000	.283
Attitude	Error	46.267	49	.944[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	1.284	1	1.284	.504	.605	.330
	Error	2.607	1.024	2.546[c]			
French-Speaking	Hypothesis	3.048	1	3.048	1.270	.448	.536
Swiss Origins	Error	2.643	1.101	2.401[d]			
Group Condition *	Hypothesis	2.599	1	2.599	2.752	.104	.053
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Error	46.267	49	.944[b]			

a. ,055 MS(CH_FR) + ,945 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. ,968 MS(GH2_1 * CH_FR) + ,032 MS(Error)
d. ,881 MS(GH2_1 * CH_FR) + ,119 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins*
Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	No	4.732[a]	.448	3.530	5.934
	Yes	4.833[a]	.209	4.272	5.394
Culturally Incongruent	No	3.612[a]	.612	1.972	5.252
	Yes	5.019[a]	.188	4.515	5.524

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0343543, High-Low Context = ,1928875, Individualism = -,0859173, Long-term Orientation = ,0132314, Power Distance = -,1186593, Masculinity = ,0163978, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,1767.

With Bootstrap

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	28
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	32

Descriptive Statistics
Dependent Variable: avg_post_brand_attitude_STIM1_H2

Group Condition	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	4.6571	1.44618	28
Culturally Incongruent	5.0250	.93222	32
Total	4.8533	1.20331	60

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]
Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.867	1	58	.356

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.
a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH2_1

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects
Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	34.707[a]	8	4.338	4.362	.000	.406
Intercept	4.114	1	4.114	4.136	.047	.075
Uncertainty Avoidance	.592	1	.592	.595	.444	.012

High-Low Context	4.229	1	4.229	4.253	.044	.077
Individualism	.020	1	.020	.020	.888	.000
Long-Term Orientation	2.453	1	2.453	2.466	.123	.046
Power Distance	.254	1	.254	.255	.616	.005
Masculinity	.078	1	.078	.078	.781	.002
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	15.151	1	15.151	15.234	.000	.230
Group Condition	.054	1	.054	.054	.817	.001
Error	50.722	51	.995			
Total	1498.720	60				
Corrected Total	85.429	59				

a. R Squared = ,406 (Adjusted R Squared = ,313)

Estimated Marginal Means

Group Condition

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

			95% Confidence Interval	
Group Condition	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	4.819[a]	.196	4.296	5.343
Culturally Incongruent	4.883[a]	.182	4.396	5.371

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0343543, High-Low Context = ,1928875, Individualism = -,0859173, Long-term Orientation = ,0132314, Power Distance = -,1186593, Masculinity = ,0163978, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,1767.

Tables C12

ANCOVA for Effect of Cultural Communication Style on Brand Attitude – STIM2

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
STIM2 CC-HQ vs. CI	1.00	Culturally Congruent	31
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	39
CH_FR	0	Non sélectionné	11
	1	Oui	59

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	No	5.0667	.90185	3
	Yes	4.7643	1.28011	28
	Total	4.7935	1.23988	31
Culturally Incongruent	No	4.9750	1.24871	8
	Yes	4.5548	1.16471	31
	Total	4.6410	1.17803	39
Total	No	5.0000	1.12071	11
	Yes	4.6542	1.21475	59
	Total	4.7086	1.19936	70

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.326	3	66	.273

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH2_2 + CH_FR + GH2_2 * CH_FR

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	6.436	1	6.436	7.256	.009	.110
	Error	52.316	58.976	.887[a]			
Uncertainty	Hypothesis	.701	1	.701	.741	.393	.012
Avoidance	Error	55.786	59	.946[b]			
High-Low	Hypothesis	1.761	1	1.761	1.863	.177	.031
Context	Error	55.786	59	.946[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.140	1	.140	.148	.702	.002
	Error	55.786	59	.946[b]			
Long-Term	Hypothesis	.003	1	.003	.003	.956	.000
Orientation	Error	55.786	59	.946[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.101	1	.101	.107	.744	.002
	Error	55.786	59	.946[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.068	1	.068	.072	.789	.001
	Error	55.786	59	.946[b]			

Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	32.027	1	32.027	33.872	.000	.365
	Error	55.786	59	.946[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	.029	1	.029	.028	.895	.027
	Error	1.068	1.014	1.053[c]			
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	.319	1	.319	.302	.683	.239
	Error	1.015	.961	1.056[d]			
Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	1.054	1	1.054	1.114	.295	.019
	Error	55.786	59	.946[b]			

a. ,093 MS(CH_FR) + ,907 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. ,992 MS(GH2_2 * CH_FR) + ,008 MS(Error)
d. 1,022 MS(GH2_2 * CH_FR) - ,022 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins*

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

				95% Confidence Interval	
Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	No	4.652[a]	.573	3.126	6.177
	Yes	4.826[a]	.189	4.323	5.329
Culturally Incongruent	No	5.098[a]	.352	4.162	6.034
	Yes	4.507[a]	.177	4.036	4.979

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0232688, High-Low Context = ,0654455, Individualism = ,0100030, Long-term Orientation = ,0152188, Power Distance = -,0137537, Masculinity = -,0928671, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,0114.

Tables C13

ANCOVA for Effect of Translation Quality on Brand Attitude – STIM1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	High Quality Translation	28
	2.00	Low Quality Translation	26
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	0	No	10
	1	Yes	44

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
High Quality Translation	No	5.0000	.70711	5
	Yes	4.5826	1.56311	23
	Total	4.6571	1.44618	28
Low Quality Translation	No	4.4000	1.37113	5
	Yes	4.3048	1.10566	21
	Total	4.3231	1.13148	26
Total	No	4.7000	1.07600	10
	Yes	4.4500	1.35587	44
	Total	4.4963	1.30297	54

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.342	3	50	.084

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH3_1 + CH_FR + GH3_1 * CH_FR

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	1.468	1	1.468	1.755	.192	.038
	Error	36.812	43.995	.837[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	.836	1	.836	.941	.337	.021
	Error	38.191	43	.888[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	6.519	1	6.519	7.340	.010	.146
	Error	38.191	43	.888[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.091	1	.091	.102	.751	.002
	Error	38.191	43	.888[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	3.339	1	3.339	3.760	.059	.080
	Error	38.191	43	.888[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	2.459	1	2.459	2.769	.103	.060
	Error	38.191	43	.888[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.239	1	.239	.269	.607	.006
	Error	38.191	43	.888[b]			
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	27.209	1	27.209	30.636	.000	.416
	Error	38.191	43	.888[b]			

Group Condition	Hypothesis	.165	1	.165	.424	.650	.338
	Error	.323	.830	.389[c]			
French-Speaking	Hypothesis	.228	1	.228	.583	.603	.408
Swiss Origins	Error	.331	.846	.391[d]			
Group Condition *	Hypothesis	.409	1	.409	.461	.501	.011
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Error	38.191	43	.888[b]			

a. ,078 MS(CH_FR) + ,922 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. 1,043 MS(GH3_1 * CH_FR) - ,043 MS(Error)
d. 1,038 MS(GH3_1 * CH_FR) - ,038 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins*

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
High Quality Translation	No	4.438[a]	.439	3.256	5.620
	Yes	4.509[a]	.200	3.969	5.048
Low Quality Translation	No	4.865[a]	.530	3.436	6.293
	Yes	4.409[a]	.220	3.815	5.003

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0870632, High-Low Context = -,1083764, Individualism = ,1027468, Long-term Orientation = -,1081165, Power Distance = -,0127387, Masculinity = -,0231485, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 4,9222.

Tables C14

ANCOVA for Effect of Translation Quality on Brand Attitude – STIM2

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
STIM2 HQ vs. LQ	1.00	High Quality Translation	31
	2.00	Low Quality Translation	29
CH_FR	0	Non sélectionné	5
	1	Oui	55

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: avg_post_brand_attitude_STIM2_H3

STIM2 HQ vs. LQ	CH_FR	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
High Quality Translation	Non sélectionné	5.0667	.90185	3
	Oui	4.7643	1.28011	28
	Total	4.7935	1.23988	31
Low Quality Translation	Non sélectionné	4.7000	.14142	2
	Oui	4.2741	1.36680	27
	Total	4.3034	1.32193	29
Total	Non sélectionné	4.9200	.67231	5
	Oui	4.5236	1.33416	55
	Total	4.5567	1.29305	60

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: avg_post_brand_attitude_STIM2_H3

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.741	3	56	.169

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH3_2 + CH_FR + GH3_2 * CH_FR

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	4.049	1	4.049	6.035	.018	.110
	Error	32.905	49.046	.671[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	1.524	1	1.524	1.940	.170	.038
	Error	38.497	49	.786[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	5.362	1	5.362	6.825	.012	.122
	Error	38.497	49	.786[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.340	1	.340	.432	.514	.009
	Error	38.497	49	.786[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	.217	1	.217	.276	.602	.006
	Error	38.497	49	.786[b]			

Power Distance	Hypothesis	.194	1	.194	.246	.622	.005
	Error	38.497	49	.786[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.007	1	.007	.009	.925	.000
	Error	38.497	49	.786[b]			
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	28.103	1	28.103	35.770	.000	.422
	Error	38.497	49	.786[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	.348	1	.	.	.	.
	Error	.	.[c]	.			
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	.002	1	.	.	.	.
	Error	.	.[c]	.			
Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	.010	1	.010	.013	.911	.000
	Error	38.497	49	.786[b]			

a. ,146 MS(CH_FR) + ,854 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. Cannot compute the error degrees of freedom using Satterthwaite's method

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins*

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

				95% Confidence Interval	
Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
High Quality Translation	No	4.659[a]	.534	3.229	6.089
	Yes	4.737[a]	.171	4.278	5.196
Low Quality Translation	No	4.402[a]	.709	2.502	6.301
	Yes	4.370[a]	.176	3.899	4.840

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,1611801, High-Low Context = ,0451195, Individualism = ,0492707, Long-term Orientation = -,0666957, Power Distance = ,0641570, Masculinity = -,0838480, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 4,9067.

Tables C15

ANCOVA for Effect of E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	28
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	31
	3.00	English as lingua franca	43
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	0	Non sélectionné	11
	1	Oui	91

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	No	5.0000	.70711	5
	Yes	4.5826	1.56311	23
	Total	4.6571	1.44618	28
Culturally Incongruent	No	4.2000	1.69706	2
	Yes	5.0483	.88100	29
	Total	4.9935	.93021	31
English as lingua franca	No	5.4500	.41231	4
	Yes	4.7436	1.46176	39
	Total	4.8093	1.41014	43
Total	No	5.0182	.86466	11
	Yes	4.8000	1.33200	91
	Total	4.8235	1.28827	102

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.036	5	96	.080

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH4_1 + CH_FR + GH4_1 * CH_FR

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	4.795	1	4.795	3.909	.057	.108
	Error	39.453	32.164	1.227[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	2.313	1	2.313	2.017	.159	.022
	Error	102.090	89	1.147[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	1.511	1	1.511	1.317	.254	.015
	Error	102.090	89	1.147[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.272	1	.272	.238	.627	.003

	Error	102.090	89	1.147[b]			
Long-Term	Hypothesis	7.171	1	7.171	6.251	.014	.066
Orientation	Error	102.090	89	1.147[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.634	1	.634	.553	.459	.006
	Error	102.090	89	1.147[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.064	1	.064	.056	.814	.001
	Error	102.090	89	1.147[b]			
Pre-Test Brand	Hypothesis	39.121	1	39.121	34.105	.000	.277
Attitude	Error	102.090	89	1.147[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	5.272	2	2.636	.719	.581	.417
	Error	7.373	2.011	3.667[c]			
French-Speaking	Hypothesis	2.004	1	2.004	.587	.519	.214
Swiss Origins	Error	7.352	2.152	3.416[d]			
Group Condition *	Hypothesis	7.377	2	3.689	3.216	.045	.067
French-Speaking	Error	102.090	89	1.147[b]			
Swiss Origins							

a. .093 MS(CH_FR) + .907 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. .992 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR) + .008 MS(Error)
d. .893 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR) + .107 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins*

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

	French-Speaking			95% Confidence Interval	
Group Condition	Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	No	4.748[a]	.485	3.785	5.712
	Yes	4.773[a]	.227	4.321	5.225
Culturally Incongruent	No	2.980[a]	.791	1.408	4.552
	Yes	4.971[a]	.205	4.564	5.378
English as lingua franca	No	5.301[a]	.547	4.214	6.388
	Yes	4.799[a]	.175	4.451	5.146

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = .0233782, High-Low Context = .0669734, Individualism = -.0029021, Long-term Orientation = .0242832, Power Distance = -.0055101, Masculinity = .0188250, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5.1549.

Tables C16

ANCOVA for Effect of E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM2

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	31
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	39
	3.00	English as lingua franca	31
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	0	Non sélectionné	15
	1	Oui	86

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	No	5.0667	.90185	3
	Yes	4.7643	1.28011	28
	Total	4.7935	1.23988	31
Culturally Incongruent	No	4.9750	1.24871	8
	Yes	4.5548	1.16471	31
	Total	4.6410	1.17803	39
English as lingua franca	No	4.8500	.86987	4
	Yes	4.5852	1.17791	27
	Total	4.6194	1.13414	31
Total	No	4.9600	1.03150	15
	Yes	4.6326	1.19680	86
	Total	4.6812	1.17479	101

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.801	5	95	.552

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH4_2 + CH_FR + GH4_2 * CH_FR

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	9.822	1	9.822	9.971	.002	.101
	Error	87.654	88.983	.985[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	.048	1	.048	.046	.831	.001
	Error	92.887	88	1.056[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	2.267	1	2.267	2.147	.146	.024
	Error	92.887	88	1.056[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.588	1	.588	.557	.458	.006
	Error	92.887	88	1.056[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	.057	1	.057	.054	.816	.001
	Error	92.887	88	1.056[b]			

Power Distance	Hypothesis	.278	1	.278	.264	.609	.003
	Error	92.887	88	1.056[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.000	1	.000	.000	.985	.000
	Error	92.887	88	1.056[b]			
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	32.022	1	32.022	30.337	.000	.256
	Error	92.887	88	1.056[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	1.407	2	.704	1.061	.482	.507
	Error	1.371	2.067	.663[c]			
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	.127	1	.127	.187	.702	.075
	Error	1.575	2.325	.678[d]			
Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	1.318	2	.659	.624	.538	.014
	Error	92.887	88	1.056[b]			

a. .076 MS(CH_FR) + .924 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. .990 MS(GH4_2 * CH_FR) + .010 MS(Error)
d. .953 MS(GH4_2 * CH_FR) + .047 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins*
Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	No	4.787[a]	.602	3.591	5.984
	Yes	4.917[a]	.200	4.520	5.315
Culturally Incongruent	No	5.100[a]	.369	4.368	5.833
	Yes	4.551[a]	.186	4.182	4.920
English as lingua franca	No	4.399[a]	.538	3.331	5.468
	Yes	4.491[a]	.200	4.093	4.889

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = .0095049, High-Low Context = .0245714, Individualism = .0340163, Long-term Orientation = .0628934, Power Distance = .0068838, Masculinity = -.0510748, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5.1327.

Tables C17

ANCOVA for Mediating Effect of Age on E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM1

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Education	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	No	Vocational Education	4.0000	.	1
		General Education	5.0000	.	1
		Higher Academic Education	5.3333	.57735	3
		Total	5.0000	.70711	5
	Yes	Vocational Education	3.9000	1.92146	6
		General Education	5.5000	.70711	2
		Higher Vocational Education	4.8400	.98387	5
		Higher Academic Education	4.8667	1.69115	9
		I prefer not to answer	3.0000	.	1
		Total	4.5826	1.56311	23
	Total	Vocational Education	3.9143	1.75445	7
		General Education	5.3333	.57735	3
		Higher Vocational Education	4.8400	.98387	5
		Higher Academic Education	4.9833	1.47823	12
		I prefer not to answer	3.0000	.	1
		Total	4.6571	1.44618	28
Culturally Incongruent	No	Higher Vocational Education	5.4000	.	1
		Higher Academic Education	3.0000	.	1
		Total	4.2000	1.69706	2
	Yes	Mandatory Education	4.6000	.	1
		Vocational Education	4.4000	1.03923	3
		General Education	5.1000	.62183	4
		Higher Vocational Education	5.1200	.43818	5
		Higher Academic Education	5.1625	1.03078	16
		Total	5.0483	.88100	29
	Total	Mandatory Education	4.6000	.	1
		Vocational Education	4.4000	1.03923	3
		General Education	5.1000	.62183	4
		Higher Vocational Education	5.1667	.40825	6

		Higher Academic Education	5.0353	1.12746	17
		Total	4.9935	.93021	31
English as lingua franca	No	Vocational Education	5.0000	.	1
		Higher Vocational Education	5.4000	.	1
		Higher Academic Education	5.7000	.42426	2
		Total	5.4500	.41231	4
	Yes	Mandatory Education	6.4000	.	1
		Vocational Education	5.2333	.40825	6
		General Education	4.9667	1.18940	6
		Higher Vocational Education	4.1750	1.64729	8
		Higher Academic Education	4.6667	1.66486	18
		Total	4.7436	1.46176	39
	Total	Mandatory Education	6.4000	.	1
		Vocational Education	5.2000	.38297	7
		General Education	4.9667	1.18940	6
		Higher Vocational Education	4.3111	1.59409	9
		Higher Academic Education	4.7700	1.60954	20
		Total	4.8093	1.41014	43
Total	No	Vocational Education	4.5000	.70711	2
		General Education	5.0000	.	1
		Higher Vocational Education	5.4000	.00000	2
		Higher Academic Education	5.0667	1.10755	6
		Total	5.0182	.86466	11
	Yes	Mandatory Education	5.5000	1.27279	2
		Vocational Education	4.5333	1.38495	15
		General Education	5.1000	.91254	12
		Higher Vocational Education	4.6222	1.25349	18
		Higher Academic Education	4.8930	1.44772	43
		I prefer not to answer	3.0000	.	1
		Total	4.8000	1.33200	91
	Total	Mandatory Education	5.5000	1.27279	2
		Vocational Education	4.5294	1.30756	17
		General Education	5.0923	.87413	13
		Higher Vocational Education	4.7000	1.20961	20
		Higher Academic Education	4.9143	1.40178	49
		I prefer not to answer	3.0000	.	1

Total	4.8235	1.28827	102

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.149	22	79	.318

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH4_1 + CH_FR + education + GH4_1 * CH_FR + GH4_1 * education + CH_FR * education + GH4_1 * CH_FR * education

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	1.890	1	1.890	1.503	.229	.045
	Error	40.568	32.268	1.257[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	3.277	1	3.277	2.816	.098	.038
	Error	83.761	72	1.163[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	2.644	1	2.644	2.273	.136	.031
	Error	83.761	72	1.163[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.184	1	.184	.158	.692	.002
	Error	83.761	72	1.163[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	3.925	1	3.925	3.374	.070	.045
	Error	83.761	72	1.163[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.929	1	.929	.799	.374	.011
	Error	83.761	72	1.163[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.686	1	.686	.590	.445	.008
	Error	83.761	72	1.163[b]			
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	36.173	1	36.173	31.094	.000	.302
	Error	83.761	72	1.163[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	7.310	2	3.655	.649	.595	.353
	Error	13.425	2.385	5.628[c]			
Origins	Hypothesis	1.640	1	1.640	.338	.608	.117
	Error	12.406	2.555	4.855[d]			
Education	Hypothesis	8.242	5	1.648	1.139	.449	.547

	Error	6.830	4.719	1.447[e]			
Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	8.865	2	4.432	11.320	.099	.928
	Error	.687	1.754	.392[f]			
Group Education * Education	Hypothesis	4.597	7	.	.	.	.
	Error	.	.[g]	.			
French-Speaking Swiss Origins * Education	Hypothesis	2.936	3	.979	1.864	.262	.550
	Error	2.405	4.580	.525[h]			
Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins * Education	Hypothesis	.818	2	.409	.351	.705	.010
	Error	83.761	72	1.163[b]			

a. ,101 MS(CH_FR) + ,075 MS(education) - ,000 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR) + ,001 MS(GH4_1 * education) - ,096 MS(CH_FR * education) + ,009 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR * education) + ,910 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. 1,156 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR) + ,562 MS(GH4_1 * education) - 1,288 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR * education) + ,571 MS(Error)
d. ,948 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR) + ,973 MS(CH_FR * education) - 1,022 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR * education) + ,101 MS(Error)
e. ,537 MS(GH4_1 * education) + 1,033 MS(CH_FR * education) - ,990 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR * education) + ,419 MS(Error)
f. 1,023 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR * education) - ,023 MS(Error)
g. Cannot compute the error degrees of freedom using Satterthwaite's method.
h. ,846 MS(GH4_1 * CH_FR * education) + ,154 MS(Error)

*1. Group Condition * Education*

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

				95% Confidence Interval	
Group Condition	Education	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	Mandatory Education	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	Vocational Education	4.023[a]	.615	2.797	5.250
	General Education	5.072[a]	.674	3.728	6.415
	Higher Vocational Education	4.920[a,c]	.494	3.936	5.904
	Higher Academic Education	5.039[a]	.365	4.311	5.767
	I prefer not to answer	2.353[a,c]	1.096	.169	4.537
Culturally Incongruent	Mandatory Education	4.067[a,c]	1.135	1.806	6.329
	Vocational Education	4.536[a,c]	.644	3.252	5.820
	General Education	4.905[a,c]	.560	3.789	6.021
	Higher Vocational Education	4.470[a]	.624	3.226	5.714
	Higher Academic Education	3.416[a]	.591	2.238	4.593
	I prefer not to answer	.[a,b]	.	.	.
English as lingua franca	Mandatory Education	5.126[a,c]	1.101	2.932	7.320
	Vocational Education	4.848[a]	.602	3.648	6.048
	General Education	4.758[a,c]	.447	3.867	5.650

Higher Vocational Education	4.866[a]	.586	3.697	6.035
Higher Academic Education	5.258[a]	.407	4.447	6.070
I prefer not to answer	.[a,b]	.	.	.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0233782, High-Low Context = ,0669734, Individualism = -,0029021, Long-term Orientation = ,0242832, Power Distance = -,0055101, Masculinity = ,0188250, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,1549.
b. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.
c. Based on modified population marginal mean.

Tables C18

ANCOVA for Mediating Effect of Education Excluding Origins on E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	28
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	31
	3.00	English as lingua franca	43
Education	1	Mandatory Education	2
	2	Vocational Education	17
	3	General Education	13
	4	Higher Vocational Education	20
	5	Higher Academic Education	49
	6	I prefer not to answer	1

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	Education	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	Vocational Education	3.9143	1.75445	7
	General Education	5.3333	.57735	3
	Higher Vocational Education	4.8400	.98387	5
	Higher Academic Education	4.9833	1.47823	12
	I prefer not to answer	3.0000	.	1
	Total	4.6571	1.44618	28
Culturally Incongruent	Mandatory Education	4.6000	.	1
	Vocational Education	4.4000	1.03923	3

	General Education	5.1000	.62183	4
	Higher Vocational Education	5.1667	.40825	6
	Higher Academic Education	5.0353	1.12746	17
	Total	4.9935	.93021	31
English as lingua franca	Mandatory Education	6.4000	.	1
	Vocational Education	5.2000	.38297	7
	General Education	4.9667	1.18940	6
	Higher Vocational Education	4.3111	1.59409	9
	Higher Academic Education	4.7700	1.60954	20
	Total	4.8093	1.41014	43
Total	Mandatory Education	5.5000	1.27279	2
	Vocational Education	4.5294	1.30756	17
	General Education	5.0923	.87413	13
	Higher Vocational Education	4.7000	1.20961	20
	Higher Academic Education	4.9143	1.40178	49
	I prefer not to answer	3.0000	.	1
	Total	4.8235	1.28827	102

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.969	14	87	.491

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH4_1 + education + GH4_1 * education

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	5.257	1	5.257	4.276	.042	.048
	Error	104.956	85.368	1.229[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	3.137	1	3.137	2.600	.111	.031

	Error	96.502	80	1.206[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	1.370	1	1.370	1.136	.290	.014
	Error	96.502	80	1.206[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.112	1	.112	.093	.761	.001
	Error	96.502	80	1.206[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	3.914	1	3.914	3.245	.075	.039
	Error	96.502	80	1.206[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	2.188	1	2.188	1.813	.182	.022
	Error	96.502	80	1.206[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.066	1	.066	.055	.815	.001
	Error	96.502	80	1.206[b]			
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	33.568	1	33.568	27.828	.000	.258
	Error	96.502	80	1.206[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	.388	2	.194	.268	.767	.022
	Error	17.220	23.828	.723[c]			
Education	Hypothesis	9.349	5	1.870	2.647	.051	.380
	Error	15.259	21.605	.706[d]			
Group Condition * Education	Hypothesis	3.706	7	.529	.439	.875	.037
	Error	96.502	80	1.206[b]			

a. ,040 MS(education) + ,005 MS(GH4_1 * education) + ,955 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. ,714 MS(GH4_1 * education) + ,286 MS(Error)
d. ,739 MS(GH4_1 * education) + ,261 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition *Eeducation*
Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

				95% Confidence Interval	
Group Attitude	Education	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	Mandatory Education	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	Vocational Education	4.156[a]	.438	3.285	5.026
	General Education	5.153[a]	.640	3.880	6.427
	Higher Vocational Education	4.979[a]	.501	3.982	5.976
	Higher Academic Education	5.081[a]	.325	4.434	5.728
	I prefer not to answer	2.402[a]	1.114	.185	4.619
Culturally Incongruent	Mandatory Education	4.206[a]	1.150	1.917	6.495
	Vocational Education	4.450[a]	.654	3.149	5.752
	General Education	4.903[a]	.569	3.771	6.035

	Higher Vocational Education	4.755[a]	.458	3.843	5.666
	Higher Academic Education	4.974[a]	.282	4.413	5.536
	I prefer not to answer	.[a,b]	.	.	.
English as lingua franca	Mandatory Education	5.305[a]	1.118	3.080	7.530
	Vocational Education	4.838[a]	.431	3.981	5.696
	General Education	4.742[a]	.455	3.837	5.648
	Higher Vocational Education	4.386[a]	.379	3.631	5.141
	Higher Academic Education	5.091[a]	.259	4.576	5.606
	I prefer not to answer	.[a,b]	.	.	.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0233782, High-Low Context = ,0669734, Individualism = -,0029021, Long-term Orientation = ,0242832, Power Distance = -,0055101, Masculinity = ,0188250, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,1549.
b. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * Age*

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

				95% Confidence Interval	
Group Condition	Age	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	Below 18 years old	5.008[a]	1.067	2.879	7.138
	18-24 years old	5.503[a]	.472	4.559	6.446
	25-29 years old	4.855[a]	.373	4.111	5.599
	30-34 years old	5.042[a]	1.042	2.962	7.123
	35-39 years old	5.004[a]	.603	3.799	6.208
	40-44 years old	3.555[a]	.615	2.328	4.783
	45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	4.502[a]	.751	3.003	6.001
	55-59 years old	5.338[a]	1.038	3.266	7.410
	60-64 years old	4.552[a]	.758	3.038	6.066
	65 years old or above	3.874[a]	.798	2.281	5.467
Culturally Incongruent	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	5.287[a]	.376	4.537	6.038
	25-29 years old	5.150[a]	.330	4.491	5.808
	30-34 years old	5.643[a]	1.127	3.393	7.893
	35-39 years old	4.154[a]	.601	2.954	5.354

	40-44 years old	4.753[a]	1.056	2.644	6.861
	45-49 years old	3.845[a]	.590	2.667	5.022
	50-54 years old	5.273[a]	1.029	3.218	7.327
	55-59 years old	5.503[a]	1.118	3.271	7.735
	60-64 years old	3.831[a]	.796	2.242	5.421
	65 years old or above	4.829[a]	1.036	2.760	6.898
English as lingua franca	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	4.858[a]	.285	4.288	5.427
	25-29 years old	5.183[a]	.326	4.532	5.834
	30-34 years old	6.793[a]	.745	5.305	8.280
	35-39 years old	5.942[a]	.758	4.429	7.456
	40-44 years old	4.162[a]	.733	2.699	5.626
	45-49 years old	4.626[a]	.485	3.658	5.594
	50-54 years old	3.120[a]	.626	1.870	4.369
	55-59 years old	3.319[a]	.588	2.145	4.494
	60-64 years old	5.432[a]	.771	3.893	6.971
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0233782, High-Low Context = ,0669734, Individualism = -,0029021, Long-term Orientation = ,0242832, Power Distance = -,0055101, Masculinity = ,0188250, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,1549.
b. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.

Tables C19

ANCOVA for Mediating Effect of Age on E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	28
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	31
	3.00	English as lingua franca	43
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	0	No	11
	1	Yes	91
Age	1	Below 18 years old	1
	2	18-24 years old	26
	3	25-29 years old	29
	4	30-34 years old	4
	5	35-39 years old	8
	6	40-44 years old	6
	7	45-49 years old	8
	8	50-54 years old	6
	9	55-59 years old	5
	10	60-64 years old	6
	11	65 years old or above	3

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	age	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	No	Below 18 years old	5.0000	.	1
		25-29 years old	4.0000	.	1
		30-34 years old	6.0000	.	1

		50-54 years old	5.0000	.	1
		55-59 years old	5.0000	.	1
		Total	5.0000	.70711	5
	Yes	18-24 years old	5.7600	.76681	5
		25-29 years old	4.6286	1.93021	7
		35-39 years old	4.5333	.75719	3
		40-44 years old	4.0667	.94516	3
		50-54 years old	4.8000	.	1
		60-64 years old	4.5000	2.12132	2
		65 years old or above	2.3000	1.83848	2
		Total	4.5826	1.56311	23
	Total	Below 18 years old	5.0000	.	1
		18-24 years old	5.7600	.76681	5
		25-29 years old	4.5500	1.80079	8
		30-34 years old	6.0000	.	1
		35-39 years old	4.5333	.75719	3
		40-44 years old	4.0667	.94516	3
		50-54 years old	4.9000	.14142	2
		55-59 years old	5.0000	.	1
		60-64 years old	4.5000	2.12132	2
		65 years old or above	2.3000	1.83848	2
		Total	4.6571	1.44618	28
Culturally Incongruent	Non	45-49 years old	3.0000	.	1
		60-64 years old	5.4000	.	1
		Total	4.2000	1.69706	2
	Yes	18-24 years old	5.1500	.73872	8
		25-29 years old	5.3200	1.09626	10
		30-34 years old	4.0000	.	1
		35-39 years old	4.0667	.75719	3
		40-44 years old	5.0000	.	1
		45-49 years old	5.0000	.00000	2
		50-54 years old	5.2000	.	1
		55-59 years old	6.0000	.	1
		60-64 years old	4.6000	.	1
		65 years old or above	5.0000	.	1
		Total	5.0483	.88100	29

	Total	18-24 years old	5.1500	.73872	8
		25-29 years old	5.3200	1.09626	10
		30-34 years old	4.0000	.	1
		35-39 years old	4.0667	.75719	3
		40-44 years old	5.0000	.	1
		45-49 years old	4.3333	1.15470	3
		50-54 years old	5.2000	.	1
		55-59 years old	6.0000	.	1
		60-64 years old	5.0000	.56569	2
		65 years old or above	5.0000	.	1
		Total	4.9935	.93021	31
English as lingua franca	No	30-34 years old	5.4000	.	1
		40-44 years old	6.0000	.	1
		45-49 years old	5.2000	.28284	2
		Total	5.4500	.41231	4
	Yes	18-24 years old	4.7538	1.42631	13
		25-29 years old	5.0182	1.17117	11
		30-34 years old	6.4000	.	1
		35-39 years old	6.3000	.98995	2
		40-44 years old	3.2000	.	1
		45-49 years old	4.3333	2.08167	3
		50-54 years old	3.5333	1.66533	3
		55-59 years old	3.4000	1.20000	3
		60-64 years old	6.0000	.84853	2
		Total	4.7436	1.46176	39
	Total	18-24 years old	4.7538	1.42631	13
		25-29 years old	5.0182	1.17117	11
		30-34 years old	5.9000	.70711	2
		35-39 years old	6.3000	.98995	2
		40-44 years old	4.6000	1.97990	2
		45-49 years old	4.6800	1.55306	5
		50-54 years old	3.5333	1.66533	3
		55-59 years old	3.4000	1.20000	3
		60-64 years old	6.0000	.84853	2
		Total	4.8093	1.41014	43
Total	No	Below 18 years old	5.0000	.	1

	25-29 years old	4.0000	.	1
	30-34 years old	5.7000	.42426	2
	40-44 years old	6.0000	.	1
	45-49 years old	4.4667	1.28582	3
	50-54 years old	5.0000	.	1
	55-59 years old	5.0000	.	1
	60-64 years old	5.4000	.	1
	Total	5.0182	.86466	11
Yes	18-24 years old	5.0692	1.17159	26
	25-29 years old	5.0286	1.34519	28
	30-34 years old	5.2000	1.69706	2
	35-39 years old	4.8000	1.17108	8
	40-44 years old	4.0800	.92304	5
	45-49 years old	4.6000	1.51658	5
	50-54 years old	4.1200	1.43248	5
	55-59 years old	4.0500	1.62788	4
	60-64 years old	5.1200	1.39714	5
	65 years old or above	3.2000	2.02978	3
	Total	4.8000	1.33200	91
Total	Below 18 years old	5.0000	.	1
	18-24 years old	5.0692	1.17159	26
	25-29 years old	4.9931	1.33468	29
	30-34 years old	5.4500	1.05040	4
	35-39 years old	4.8000	1.17108	8
	40-44 years old	4.4000	1.13842	6
	45-49 years old	4.5500	1.33844	8
	50-54 years old	4.2667	1.33066	6
	55-59 years old	4.2400	1.47241	5
	60-64 years old	5.1667	1.25486	6
	65 years old or above	3.2000	2.02978	3
	Total	4.8235	1.28827	102

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.

1.209	35	66	.250

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.
a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH4_1 + CH_FR + age + GH4_1 * CH_FR + GH4_1 * age + CH_FR * age + GH4_1 * CH_FR * age

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	.703	1	.	.	.	.
	Error	.	.	.[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	2.998	1	2.998	3.402	.070	.055
	Error	51.990	59	.881[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	.066	1	.066	.075	.785	.001
	Error	51.990	59	.881[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.879	1	.879	.998	.322	.017
	Error	51.990	59	.881[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	3.240	1	3.240	3.677	.060	.059
	Error	51.990	59	.881[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.009	1	.009	.010	.920	.000
	Error	51.990	59	.881[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	1.732	1	1.732	1.966	.166	.032
	Error	51.990	59	.881[b]			
Pre-Test Attitude	Hypothesis	40.071	1	40.071	45.474	.000	.435
	Error	51.990	59	.881[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	3.215	2	.	.	.	.
	Error	.	.	.[a]			
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	1.615	1	.	.	.	.
	Error	.	.	.[a]			
Age	Hypothesis	12.077	10	.	.	.	.
	Error	.	.	.[a]			
Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	5.834	1	.	.	.	.
	Error	.	.	.[a]			
Group Condition * Age	Hypothesis	18.903	14	.	.	.	.
	Error	.	.	.[a]			
French-Speaking Swiss Origins * Age	Hypothesis	9.979	4	.	.	.	.
	Error	.	.	.[a]			

Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins * Age	Hypothesis	.000	0	.	.	.
	Error	.	.	.[a]		

a. Cannot compute the appropriate error term using Satterthwaite's method.
b. MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * Age*

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

				95% Confidence Interval	
Group Condition	Age	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	Below 18 years old	4.750[a,b]	1.001	2.747	6.753
	18-24 years old	5.452[a,b]	.442	4.567	6.337
	25-29 years old	4.415[a]	.534	3.347	5.482
	30-34 years old	4.918[a,b]	.972	2.972	6.863
	35-39 years old	5.092[a,b]	.564	3.964	6.220
	40-44 years old	3.512[a,b]	.574	2.364	4.661
	45-49 years old	.[a,c]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	4.495[a]	.701	3.092	5.897
	55-59 years old	5.482[a,b]	.968	3.544	7.420
	60-64 years old	4.537[a,b]	.708	3.119	5.955
	65 years old or above	4.120[a,b]	.748	2.623	5.616
Culturally Incongruent	Below 18 years old	.[a,c]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	5.289[a,b]	.351	4.588	5.991
	25-29 years old	5.146[a,b]	.309	4.528	5.763
	30-34 years old	5.912[a,b]	1.055	3.802	8.022
	35-39 years old	4.226[a,b]	.562	3.102	5.350
	40-44 years old	4.724[a,b]	.986	2.750	6.697
	45-49 years old	3.241[a]	.593	2.054	4.427
	50-54 years old	5.208[a,b]	.960	3.286	7.129
	55-59 years old	5.616[a,b]	1.046	3.522	7.710
	60-64 years old	3.709[a]	.745	2.219	5.199
	65 years old or above	4.968[a,b]	.967	3.033	6.904
English as lingua franca	Below 18 years old	.[a,c]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	4.853[a,b]	.266	4.321	5.385
	25-29 years old	5.205[a,b]	.305	4.595	5.815
	30-34 years old	6.936[a]	.696	5.544	8.329
	35-39 years old	5.965[a,b]	.708	4.549	7.382

40-44 years old	4.158[a]	.684	2.789	5.527
45-49 years old	4.620[a]	.460	3.700	5.541
50-54 years old	3.114[a,b]	.585	1.943	4.285
55-59 years old	3.254[a,b]	.549	2.155	4.352
60-64 years old	5.367[a,b]	.724	3.918	6.817
65 years old or above	.[a,c]	.	.	.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0233782, High-Low Context = ,0669734, Individualism = -,0029021, Long-term Orientation = ,0242832, Power Distance = -,0055101, Masculinity = ,0188250, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,1549.
b. Based on modified population marginal mean.
c. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.

Tables C20

ANCOVA for Mediating Effect of Age Excluding Origins on E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	28
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	31
	3.00	English as lingua franca	43
Age	1	Below 18 years old	1
	2	18-24 years old	26
	3	25-29 years old	29
	4	30-34 years old	4
	5	35-39 years old	8
	6	40-44 years old	6
	7	45-49 years old	8
	8	50-54 years old	6
	9	55-59 years old	5
	10	60-64 years old	6
	11	65 years old or above	3

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	Age	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	Below 18 years old	5.0000	.	1
	18-24 years old	5.7600	.76681	5
	25-29 years old	4.5500	1.80079	8
	30-34 years old	6.0000	.	1
	35-39 years old	4.5333	.75719	3
	40-44 years old	4.0667	.94516	3

	50-54 years old	4.9000	.14142	2
	55-59 years old	5.0000	.	1
	60-64 years old	4.5000	2.12132	2
	65 years old or above	2.3000	1.83848	2
	Total	4.6571	1.44618	28
Culturally Incongruent	18-24 years old	5.1500	.73872	8
	25-29 years old	5.3200	1.09626	10
	30-34 years old	4.0000	.	1
	35-39 years old	4.0667	.75719	3
	40-44 years old	5.0000	.	1
	45-49 years old	4.3333	1.15470	3
	50-54 years old	5.2000	.	1
	55-59 years old	6.0000	.	1
	60-64 years old	5.0000	.56569	2
	65 years old or above	5.0000	.	1
	Total	4.9935	.93021	31
English as lingua franca	18-24 years old	4.7538	1.42631	13
	25-29 years old	5.0182	1.17117	11
	30-34 years old	5.9000	.70711	2
	35-39 years old	6.3000	.98995	2
	40-44 years old	4.6000	1.97990	2
	45-49 years old	4.6800	1.55306	5
	50-54 years old	3.5333	1.66533	3
	55-59 years old	3.4000	1.20000	3
	60-64 years old	6.0000	.84853	2
	Total	4.8093	1.41014	43
Total	Below 18 years old	5.0000	.	1
	18-24 years old	5.0692	1.17159	26
	25-29 years old	4.9931	1.33468	29
	30-34 years old	5.4500	1.05040	4
	35-39 years old	4.8000	1.17108	8
	40-44 years old	4.4000	1.13842	6
	45-49 years old	4.5500	1.33844	8
	50-54 years old	4.2667	1.33066	6
	55-59 years old	4.2400	1.47241	5
	60-64 years old	5.1667	1.25486	6

	65 years old or above	3.2000	2.02978	3
	Total	4.8235	1.28827	102

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.696	28	73	.038

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH4_1 + age + GH4_1 * age

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	3.443	1	3.443	3.344	.072	.044
	Error	74.140	72.007	1.030[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	1.917	1	1.917	1.890	.174	.028
	Error	66.973	66	1.015[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	.000	1	.000	.000	.982	.000
	Error	66.973	66	1.015[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	1.338	1	1.338	1.318	.255	.020
	Error	66.973	66	1.015[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	3.800	1	3.800	3.745	.057	.054
	Error	66.973	66	1.015[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.033	1	.033	.032	.858	.000
	Error	66.973	66	1.015[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.681	1	.681	.671	.416	.010
	Error	66.973	66	1.015[b]			
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	35.226	1	35.226	34.714	.000	.345
	Error	66.973	66	1.015[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	.346	2	.173	.140	.870	.009
	Error	37.697	30.436	1.239[c]			
Age	Hypothesis	14.238	10	1.424	1.086	.416	.350
	Error	26.434	20.163	1.311[d]			
Group Condition * Age	Hypothesis	21.770	16	1.361	1.341	.200	.245

	Error	66.973	66	1.015[b]

a. ,035 MS(age) + ,002 MS(GH4_1 * age) + ,963 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. ,647 MS(GH4_1 * age) + ,353 MS(Error)
d. ,857 MS(GH4_1 * age) + ,143 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * Age*

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

				95% Confidence Interval	
Group Condition	Age	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	Below 18 years old	5.008[a]	1.067	2.879	7.138
	18-24 years old	5.503[a]	.472	4.559	6.446
	25-29 years old	4.855[a]	.373	4.111	5.599
	30-34 years old	5.042[a]	1.042	2.962	7.123
	35-39 years old	5.004[a]	.603	3.799	6.208
	40-44 years old	3.555[a]	.615	2.328	4.783
	45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	4.502[a]	.751	3.003	6.001
	55-59 years old	5.338[a]	1.038	3.266	7.410
	60-64 years old	4.552[a]	.758	3.038	6.066
	65 years old or above	3.874[a]	.798	2.281	5.467
Culturally Incongruent	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	5.287[a]	.376	4.537	6.038
	25-29 years old	5.150[a]	.330	4.491	5.808
	30-34 years old	5.643[a]	1.127	3.393	7.893
	35-39 years old	4.154[a]	.601	2.954	5.354
	40-44 years old	4.753[a]	1.056	2.644	6.861
	45-49 years old	3.845[a]	.590	2.667	5.022
	50-54 years old	5.273[a]	1.029	3.218	7.327
	55-59 years old	5.503[a]	1.118	3.271	7.735
	60-64 years old	3.831[a]	.796	2.242	5.421
	65 years old or above	4.829[a]	1.036	2.760	6.898
English as lingua franca	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	4.858[a]	.285	4.288	5.427

25-29 years old	5.183[a]	.326	4.532	5.834
30-34 years old	6.793[a]	.745	5.305	8.280
35-39 years old	5.942[a]	.758	4.429	7.456
40-44 years old	4.162[a]	.733	2.699	5.626
45-49 years old	4.626[a]	.485	3.658	5.594
50-54 years old	3.120[a]	.626	1.870	4.369
55-59 years old	3.319[a]	.588	2.145	4.494
60-64 years old	5.432[a]	.771	3.893	6.971
65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0233782, High-Low Context = ,0669734, Individualism = -,0029021, Long-term Orientation = ,0242832, Power Distance = -,0055101, Masculinity = ,0188250, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,1549.
b. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.

Tables C21

ANCOVA for Mediating Effect of Education and Age on E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM1

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	28
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	31
	3.00	English as lingua franca	43
Education	1	Mandatory Education	2
	2	Vocational Education	17
	3	General Education	13
	4	Higher Vocational Education	20
	5	Higher Academic Education	49
	6	I prefer not to answer	1
Age	1	Below 18 years old	1
	2	18-24 years old	26
	3	25-29 years old	29
	4	30-34 years old	4
	5	35-39 years old	8
	6	40-44 years old	6
	7	45-49 years old	8
	8	50-54 years old	6
	9	55-59 years old	5
	10	60-64 years old	6
	11	65 years old or above	3

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	Education	Age	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	Vocational Education	18-24 years old	6.8000	.	1
		25-29 years old	2.9333	1.67730	3
		35-39 years old	4.0000	.	1
		50-54 years old	4.8000	.	1
		60-64 years old	3.0000	.	1
		Total	3.9143	1.75445	7
	General Education	Below 18 years old	5.0000	.	1
		18-24 years old	5.5000	.70711	2
		Total	5.3333	.57735	3
	Higher Vocational Education	18-24 years old	6.0000	.	1
		25-29 years old	5.6000	.	1
		35-39 years old	4.2000	.	1
		40-44 years old	4.8000	.	1
		65 years old or above	3.6000	.	1
		Total	4.8400	.98387	5
	Higher Academic Education	18-24 years old	5.0000	.	1
		25-29 years old	5.5000	1.22746	4
		30-34 years old	6.0000	.	1
		35-39 years old	5.4000	.	1
		40-44 years old	4.4000	.	1
		50-54 years old	5.0000	.	1
		55-59 years old	5.0000	.	1
		60-64 years old	6.0000	.	1
		65 years old or above	1.0000	.	1
		Total	4.9833	1.47823	12
	I prefer not to answer	40-44 years old	3.0000	.	1
		Total	3.0000	.	1
	Total	Below 18 years old	5.0000	.	1
		18-24 years old	5.7600	.76681	5
		25-29 years old	4.5500	1.80079	8
		30-34 years old	6.0000	.	1
		35-39 years old	4.5333	.75719	3

		40-44 years old	4.0667	.94516	3
		50-54 years old	4.9000	.14142	2
		55-59 years old	5.0000	.	1
		60-64 years old	4.5000	2.12132	2
		65 years old or above	2.3000	1.83848	2
		Total	4.6571	1.44618	28
Culturally Incongruent	Mandatory Education	60-64 years old	4.6000	.	1
		Total	4.6000	.	1
	Vocational Education	18-24 years old	5.0000	.	1
		35-39 years old	3.2000	.	1
		45-49 years old	5.0000	.	1
		Total	4.4000	1.03923	3
	General Education	18-24 years old	4.9000	.14142	2
		25-29 years old	5.3000	.98995	2
		Total	5.1000	.62183	4
	Higher Vocational Education	25-29 years old	5.8000	.	1
		35-39 years old	4.6000	.	1
		40-44 years old	5.0000	.	1
		45-49 years old	5.0000	.	1
		50-54 years old	5.2000	.	1
		60-64 years old	5.4000	.	1
		Total	5.1667	.40825	6
	Higher Academic Education	18-24 years old	5.2800	.94446	5
		25-29 years old	5.2571	1.26340	7
		30-34 years old	4.0000	.	1
		35-39 years old	4.4000	.	1
		45-49 years old	3.0000	.	1
		55-59 years old	6.0000	.	1
		65 years old or above	5.0000	.	1
		Total	5.0353	1.12746	17
	Total	18-24 years old	5.1500	.73872	8
		25-29 years old	5.3200	1.09626	10
		30-34 years old	4.0000	.	1
		35-39 years old	4.0667	.75719	3
		40-44 years old	5.0000	.	1
		45-49 years old	4.3333	1.15470	3

		50-54 years old	5.2000	.	1
		55-59 years old	6.0000	.	1
		60-64 years old	5.0000	.56569	2
		65 years old or above	5.0000	.	1
		Total	4.9935	.93021	31
English as lingua franca	Mandatory Education	18-24 years old	6.4000	.	1
		Total	6.4000	.	1
	Vocational Education	18-24 years old	5.4667	.30551	3
		45-49 years old	5.0000	.00000	2
		50-54 years old	5.4000	.	1
		55-59 years old	4.6000	.	1
		Total	5.2000	.38297	7
	General Education	18-24 years old	6.2000	.	1
		25-29 years old	4.9333	1.00664	3
		35-39 years old	5.6000	.	1
		40-44 years old	3.2000	.	1
		Total	4.9667	1.18940	6
	Higher Vocational Education	18-24 years old	4.2000	1.24900	3
		25-29 years old	3.0000	.	1
		30-34 years old	5.4000	.	1
		45-49 years old	6.0000	.	1
		50-54 years old	2.6000	.56569	2
		60-64 years old	6.6000	.	1
		Total	4.3111	1.59409	9
	Higher Academic Education	18-24 years old	4.0400	1.68167	5
		25-29 years old	5.3429	1.06904	7
		30-34 years old	6.4000	.	1
		35-39 years old	7.0000	.	1
		40-44 years old	6.0000	.	1
		45-49 years old	3.7000	2.40416	2
		55-59 years old	2.8000	.84853	2
		60-64 years old	5.4000	.	1
		Total	4.7700	1.60954	20
	Total	18-24 years old	4.7538	1.42631	13
		25-29 years old	5.0182	1.17117	11
		30-34 years old	5.9000	.70711	2

		35-39 years old	6.3000	.98995	2
		40-44 years old	4.6000	1.97990	2
		45-49 years old	4.6800	1.55306	5
		50-54 years old	3.5333	1.66533	3
		55-59 years old	3.4000	1.20000	3
		60-64 years old	6.0000	.84853	2
		Total	4.8093	1.41014	43
Total	Mandatory Education	18-24 years old	6.4000	.	1
		60-64 years old	4.6000	.	1
		Total	5.5000	1.27279	2
	Vocational Education	18-24 years old	5.6400	.71274	5
		25-29 years old	2.9333	1.67730	3
		35-39 years old	3.6000	.56569	2
		45-49 years old	5.0000	.00000	3
		50-54 years old	5.1000	.42426	2
		55-59 years old	4.6000	.	1
		60-64 years old	3.0000	.	1
		Total	4.5294	1.30756	17
	General Education	Below 18 years old	5.0000	.	1
		18-24 years old	5.4000	.64807	5
		25-29 years old	5.0800	.88994	5
		35-39 years old	5.6000	.	1
		40-44 years old	3.2000	.	1
		Total	5.0923	.87413	13
	Higher Vocational Education	18-24 years old	4.6500	1.36015	4
		25-29 years old	4.8000	1.56205	3
		30-34 years old	5.4000	.	1
		35-39 years old	4.4000	.28284	2
		40-44 years old	4.9000	.14142	2
		45-49 years old	5.5000	.70711	2
		50-54 years old	3.4667	1.55349	3
		60-64 years old	6.0000	.84853	2
		65 years old or above	3.6000	.	1
		Total	4.7000	1.20961	20
	Higher Academic Education	18-24 years old	4.6909	1.37219	11
		25-29 years old	5.3444	1.11420	18

	30-34 years old	5.4667	1.28582	3
	35-39 years old	5.6000	1.31149	3
	40-44 years old	5.2000	1.13137	2
	45-49 years old	3.4667	1.74738	3
	50-54 years old	5.0000	.	1
	55-59 years old	4.1500	1.68424	4
	60-64 years old	5.7000	.42426	2
	65 years old or above	3.0000	2.82843	2
	Total	4.9143	1.40178	49
I prefer not to answer	40-44 years old	3.0000	.	1
	Total	3.0000	.	1
Total	Below 18 years old	5.0000	.	1
	18-24 years old	5.0692	1.17159	26
	25-29 years old	4.9931	1.33468	29
	30-34 years old	5.4500	1.05040	4
	35-39 years old	4.8000	1.17108	8
	40-44 years old	4.4000	1.13842	6
	45-49 years old	4.5500	1.33844	8
	50-54 years old	4.2667	1.33066	6
	55-59 years old	4.2400	1.47241	5
	60-64 years old	5.1667	1.25486	6
	65 years old or above	3.2000	2.02978	3
	Total	4.8235	1.28827	102

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.037	63	38	.459

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg pre brand attitude + GH4_1 + education + age + GH4_1 * education + GH4_1 * age + education * age + GH4_1 * education * age

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	1.980	1	1.980	2.733	.108	.081
	Error	22.559	31.148	.724[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	3.232	1	3.232	4.287	.047	.121
	Error	23.370	31	.754[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	.080	1	.080	.106	.747	.003
	Error	23.370	31	.754[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.026	1	.026	.034	.855	.001
	Error	23.370	31	.754[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	1.145	1	1.145	1.519	.227	.047
	Error	23.370	31	.754[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.240	1	.240	.319	.577	.010
	Error	23.370	31	.754[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.332	1	.332	.441	.512	.014
	Error	23.370	31	.754[b]			
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	23.898	1	23.898	31.701	.000	.506
	Error	23.370	31	.754[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	.055	2	.028	.028	.972	.017
	Error	3.166	3.217	.984[c]			
Education	Hypothesis	2.922	5	.584	.623	.695	.435
	Error	3.801	4.052	.938[d]			
Age	Hypothesis	8.236	10	.824	.370	.934	.265
	Error	22.809	10.246	2.226[e]			
Group Condition * Education	Hypothesis	2.929	6	.488	.515	.781	.309
	Error	6.551	6.912	.948[f]			
Group Condition * Age	Hypothesis	25.970	16	1.623	1.762	.200	.764
	Error	8.009	8.692	.921[g]			
Education * Age	Hypothesis	25.151	17	1.479	1.590	.257	.772
	Error	7.433	7.986	.931[h]			
Group Condition * Education * Age	Hypothesis	5.797	6	.966	1.282	.294	.199
	Error	23.370	31	.754[b]			

a. ,049 MS(education) + ,034 MS(age) + 6,52E-005 MS(GH4_1 * education) + ,001 MS(GH4_1 * age) - ,036 MS(education * age) + ,004 MS(GH4_1 * education * age) + ,947 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. 1,094 MS(GH4_1 * education) + ,831 MS(GH4_1 * age) - ,948 MS(GH4_1 * education * age) + ,023 MS(Error)
d. ,932 MS(GH4_1 * education) + ,824 MS(education * age) - ,782 MS(GH4_1 * education * age) + ,026 MS(Error)
e. 1,102 MS(GH4_1 * age) + 1,000 MS(education * age) - ,997 MS(GH4_1 * education * age) - ,106 MS(Error)
f. ,914 MS(GH4_1 * education * age) + ,086 MS(Error)
g. ,789 MS(GH4_1 * education * age) + ,211 MS(Error)

h. ,833 MS(GH4_1 * education * age) + ,167 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition *Eeducation * Age*
Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	Education	Age	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	Mandatory Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		18-24 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		25-29 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		35-39 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	Vocational Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		18-24 years old	6.453[a]	1.014	4.385	8.520
		25-29 years old	3.423[a]	.558	2.285	4.562
		30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		35-39 years old	4.438[a]	.946	2.509	6.367
		40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		50-54 years old	5.005[a]	.942	3.084	6.926
		55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		60-64 years old	3.413[a]	.972	1.431	5.395
		65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	General Education	Below 18 years old	5.120[a]	.984	3.112	7.127
		18-24 years old	5.127[a]	.658	3.786	6.468
		25-29 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		35-39 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.

	40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
Higher Vocational Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	5.725[a]	.948	3.792	7.657
	25-29 years old	5.358[a]	.922	3.477	7.238
	30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	35-39 years old	5.181[a]	.928	3.289	7.073
	40-44 years old	3.783[a]	.985	1.774	5.791
	45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	65 years old or above	5.383[a]	1.096	3.148	7.617
Higher Academic Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	4.859[a]	.884	3.056	6.663
	25-29 years old	5.531[a]	.453	4.608	6.454
	30-34 years old	4.932[a]	.922	3.052	6.812
	35-39 years old	5.466[a]	.898	3.635	7.297
	40-44 years old	4.745[a]	.896	2.918	6.572
	45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	4.369[a]	.932	2.468	6.270
	55-59 years old	5.506[a]	.910	3.651	7.361
	60-64 years old	5.661[a]	.991	3.639	7.683
	65 years old or above	2.486[a]	1.151	.139	4.833
I prefer not to answer	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	25-29 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	35-39 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	40-44 years old	2.448[a]	.899	.615	4.280
	45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.

		55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
Culturally Incongruent	Mandatory Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		18-24 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		25-29 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		35-39 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		60-64 years old	3.962[a]	.984	1.955	5.968
		65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	Vocational Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		18-24 years old	4.673[a]	.934	2.769	6.577
		25-29 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		35-39 years old	3.911[a]	.953	1.968	5.854
		40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		45-49 years old	5.035[a]	.896	3.207	6.862
		50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	General Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		18-24 years old	4.737[a]	.633	3.445	6.029
		25-29 years old	5.152[a]	.645	3.837	6.467
		30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		35-39 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.

Higher Vocational Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	25-29 years old	5.353[a]	.944	3.428	7.278
	30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	35-39 years old	4.351[a]	.907	2.502	6.201
	40-44 years old	4.759[a]	.948	2.827	6.692
	45-49 years old	4.515[a]	.928	2.622	6.408
	50-54 years old	5.441[a]	.923	3.560	7.323
	55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	60-64 years old	3.862[a]	1.015	1.792	5.931
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
Higher Academic Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	5.520[a]	.424	4.656	6.385
	25-29 years old	5.199[a]	.350	4.484	5.913
	30-34 years old	5.790[a]	1.034	3.681	7.899
	35-39 years old	3.692[a]	.955	1.745	5.638
	40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	45-49 years old	2.175[a]	.980	.177	4.173
	50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	55-59 years old	6.048[a]	1.035	3.937	8.160
	60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	65 years old or above	4.948[a]	.923	3.065	6.830
I prefer not to answer	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	25-29 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	35-39 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
English as lingua franca	Mandatory Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
		18-24 years old	5.239[a]	.910	3.384	7.095
		25-29 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.

	30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	35-39 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
Vocational Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	5.184[a]	.536	4.091	6.276
	25-29 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	35-39 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	45-49 years old	4.648[a]	.738	3.142	6.154
	50-54 years old	5.068[a]	.996	3.036	7.099
	55-59 years old	3.550[a]	.931	1.652	5.448
	60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
General Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	5.794[a]	.921	3.916	7.672
	25-29 years old	4.700[a]	.571	3.534	5.865
	30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	35-39 years old	5.715[a]	.925	3.827	7.602
	40-44 years old	2.842[a]	.886	1.035	4.649
	45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
Higher Vocational Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	4.390[a]	.538	3.292	5.487
	25-29 years old	3.839[a]	.911	1.981	5.697
	30-34 years old	5.224[a]	.931	3.324	7.123
	35-39 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.

	45-49 years old	5.386[a]	.952	3.444	7.329
	50-54 years old	2.298[a]	.696	.879	3.717
	55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	60-64 years old	5.893[a]	1.011	3.830	7.956
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
Higher Academic Education	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	4.674[a]	.458	3.740	5.609
	25-29 years old	5.487[a]	.373	4.725	6.248
	30-34 years old	7.933[a]	.932	6.032	9.833
	35-39 years old	6.726[a]	.960	4.768	8.684
	40-44 years old	5.671[a]	.905	3.825	7.518
	45-49 years old	4.134[a]	.645	2.819	5.448
	50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	55-59 years old	3.266[a]	.646	1.948	4.585
	60-64 years old	4.569[a]	1.140	2.244	6.895
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
I prefer not to answer	Below 18 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	18-24 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	25-29 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	30-34 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	35-39 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	40-44 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	45-49 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	50-54 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	55-59 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	60-64 years old	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0233782, High-Low Context = ,0669734, Individualism = -,0029021, Long-term Orientation = ,0242832, Power Distance = -,0055101, Masculinity = ,0188250, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,1549.

b. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.

Tables C22

ANCOVA for Mediating Effect of Education on E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM2

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	31
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	39
	3.00	English as lingua franca	31
Education	1	Mandatory Education	2
	2	Vocational Education	13
	3	General Education	13
	4	Higher Vocational Education	19
	5	Higher Academic Education	53
	6	I prefer not to answer	1
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	0	Non sélectionné	15
	1	Oui	86

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	Education	French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	Vocational Education	Yes	5.4667	1.17189	3
		Total	5.4667	1.17189	3
	General Education	Yes	4.4000	.69282	5
		Total	4.4000	.69282	5
	Higher Vocational Education	Yes	4.9143	1.17676	7
		Total	4.9143	1.17676	7

	Higher Academic Education	No	5.0667	.90185	3
		Yes	4.6615	1.55002	13
		Total	4.7375	1.43428	16
	Total	No	5.0667	.90185	3
		Yes	4.7643	1.28011	28
		Total	4.7935	1.23988	31
Culturally Incongruent	Mandatory Education	Yes	4.0000	.	1
		Total	4.0000	.	1
	Vocational Education	No	6.0000	.	1
		Yes	4.4333	1.76371	6
		Total	4.6571	1.71548	7
	General Education	Yes	4.9333	1.10151	3
		Total	4.9333	1.10151	3
	Higher Vocational Education	No	5.3000	.70711	2
		Yes	4.0333	1.14833	6
		Total	4.3500	1.16496	8
	Higher Academic Education	No	4.6400	1.46561	5
		Yes	4.7733	.96174	15
		Total	4.7400	1.06643	20
	Total	No	4.9750	1.24871	8
		Yes	4.5548	1.16471	31
		Total	4.6410	1.17803	39
English as lingua franca	Mandatory Education	Yes	5.0000	.	1
		Total	5.0000	.	1
	Vocational Education	No	4.0000	.	1
		Yes	5.4000	.56569	2
		Total	4.9333	.90185	3
	General Education	Yes	4.7200	1.17132	5
		Total	4.7200	1.17132	5
	Higher Vocational Education	Yes	3.4000	1.35647	4
		Total	3.4000	1.35647	4
	Higher Academic Education	No	5.1333	.80829	3
		Yes	4.8429	1.04124	14
		Total	4.8941	.98772	17
	I prefer not to answer	Yes	3.0000	.	1
		Total	3.0000	.	1

	Total	No	4.8500	.86987	4
		Yes	4.5852	1.17791	27
		Total	4.6194	1.13414	31
Total	Mandatory Education	Yes	4.5000	.70711	2
		Total	4.5000	.70711	2
	Vocational Education	No	5.0000	1.41421	2
		Yes	4.8909	1.46250	11
		Total	4.9077	1.39670	13
	General Education	Yes	4.6462	.93150	13
		Total	4.6462	.93150	13
	Higher Vocational Education	No	5.3000	.70711	2
		Yes	4.2471	1.29137	17
		Total	4.3579	1.27293	19
	Higher Academic Education	No	4.8909	1.10041	11
		Yes	4.7619	1.16973	42
		Total	4.7887	1.14651	53
	I prefer not to answer	Yes	3.0000	.	1
		Total	3.0000	.	1
	Total	No	4.9600	1.03150	15
		Yes	4.6326	1.19680	86
		Total	4.6812	1.17479	101

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.465	20	80	.118

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH4_2 + education + CH_FR + GH4_2 * education + GH4_2 * CH_FR + education * CH_FR + GH4_2 * education * CH_FR

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	.609	1	.609	.610	.437	.008
	Error	74.846	75.010	.998[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	.245	1	.245	.267	.607	.004
	Error	67.166	73	.920[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	.990	1	.990	1.076	.303	.015
	Error	67.166	73	.920[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.081	1	.081	.088	.768	.001
	Error	67.166	73	.920[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	.036	1	.036	.039	.844	.001
	Error	67.166	73	.920[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.584	1	.584	.635	.428	.009
	Error	67.166	73	.920[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.038	1	.038	.042	.839	.001
	Error	67.166	73	.920[b]			
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	36.045	1	36.045	39.175	.000	.349
	Error	67.166	73	.920[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	1.793	2	.897	.283	.771	.158
	Error	9.543	3.017	3.164[c]			
Education	Hypothesis	10.939	5	2.188	2.621	.449	.933
	Error	.786	.941	.835[d]			
French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	.176	1	.176	.146	.769	.131
	Error	1.169	.971	1.205[e]			
Group Condition * Education	Hypothesis	10.857	7	1.551	25.006	.977	1.000
	Error	.000	.005	.062[f]			
Group Condition * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	2.984	2	1.492	8.344	.848	.997
	Error	.010	.058	.179[g]			
Education * French-Speaking Swiss Condition	Hypothesis	.094	2	.047	.120	.905	.299
	Error	.221	.562	.393[h]			
Group Condition * Education * French-Speaking Swiss Origins	Hypothesis	.459	1	.459	.499	.482	.007
	Error	67.166	73	.920[b]			

a. ,054 MS(education) + ,088 MS(CH_FR) + ,002 MS(GH4_2 * education) - ,002 MS(GH4_2 * CH_FR) - ,107 MS(education * CH_FR) + ,040 MS(GH4_2 * education * CH_FR) + ,925 MS(Error)
b. MS(Error)
c. ,665 MS(GH4_2 * education) + 1,364 MS(GH4_2 * CH_FR) - 2,262 MS(GH4_2 * education * CH_FR) + 1,233 MS(Error)
d. ,587 MS(GH4_2 * education) + 1,425 MS(education * CH_FR) - 1,708 MS(GH4_2 * education * CH_FR) + ,695 MS(Error)
e. ,890 MS(GH4_2 * CH_FR) + 1,155 MS(education * CH_FR) - 1,701 MS(GH4_2 * education * CH_FR) + ,656 MS(Error)
f. 1,860 MS(GH4_2 * education * CH_FR) - ,860 MS(Error)
g. 1,607 MS(GH4_2 * education * CH_FR) - ,607 MS(Error)

h. 1,143 MS(GH4_2 * education * CH_FR) - ,143 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

Group Condition Education*
Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Education	Education	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	Mandatory Education	.[a,b]	.	.	.
	Vocational Education	4.944[a,c]	.592	3.763	6.125
	General Education	4.302[a,c]	.434	3.438	5.166
	Higher Vocational Education	5.014[a,c]	.398	4.221	5.807
	Higher Academic Education	4.981[a]	.316	4.350	5.611
	I prefer not to answer	.[a,b]	.	.	.
Culturally Incongruent	Mandatory Education	2.704[a,c]	.983	.745	4.662
	Vocational Education	5.080[a]	.529	4.025	6.134
	General Education	4.630[a,c]	.587	3.460	5.800
	Higher Vocational Education	4.328[a]	.415	3.502	5.155
	Higher Academic Education	5.022[a]	.260	4.504	5.539
	I prefer not to answer	.[a,b]	.	.	.
English as lingua franca	Mandatory Education	4.525[a,c]	1.015	2.502	6.548
	Vocational Education	3.972[a]	.632	2.712	5.232
	General Education	4.556[a,c]	.442	3.676	5.436
	Higher Vocational Education	2.946[a,c]	.515	1.921	3.972
	Higher Academic Education	4.778[a]	.319	4.143	5.414
	I prefer not to answer	2.436[a,c]	.977	.488	4.383

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0095049, High-Low Context = ,0245714, Individualism = ,0340163, Long-term Orientation = ,0628934, Power Distance = ,0068838, Masculinity = -,0510748, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,1327.
b. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.
c. Based on modified population marginal mean.

Tables C23

Levene's Test for ANCOVA for Mediating Effect of Age on E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM2

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: avg_post_brand_attitude_STIM2_H4

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.802	37	63	.020

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH4_2 + CH_FR + age + GH4_2 * CH_FR + GH4_2 * age + CH_FR * age + GH4_2 * CH_FR * age

Tables C24

ANCOVA for Mediating Effect of Age Excluding Origins on E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM2

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group Condition	1.00	Culturally Congruent	31
	2.00	Culturally Incongruent	39
	3.00	English as lingua franca	31
Age	2	18-24 years old	21
	3	25-29 years old	33
	4	30-34 years old	5
	5	35-39 years old	5
	6	40-44 years old	8
	7	45-49 years old	7
	8	50-54 years old	9
	9	55-59 years old	5
	10	60-64 years old	5
	11	65 years old or above	3

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Group Condition	Age	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culturally Congruent	18-24 years old	4.7778	1.63231	9
	25-29 years old	4.3500	.98416	8
	30-34 years old	5.8000	.28284	2
	35-39 years old	4.6000	.	1
	40-44 years old	5.0000	.	1
	45-49 years old	6.0000	.00000	2
	50-54 years old	3.7333	.64291	3
	55-59 years old	6.0000	1.41421	2
	60-64 years old	4.0000	.	1

	65 years old or above	5.2000	1.13137	2
	Total	4.7935	1.23988	31
Culturally Incongruent	18-24 years old	4.6222	.77746	9
	25-29 years old	4.2400	1.52353	15
	30-34 years old	3.9000	1.27279	2
	35-39 years old	4.4000	.28284	2
	40-44 years old	5.2000	.72111	3
	45-49 years old	6.0000	.	1
	50-54 years old	5.2667	.80829	3
	55-59 years old	6.0000	.	1
	60-64 years old	5.2667	.61101	3
	Total	4.6410	1.17803	39
English as lingua franca	18-24 years old	4.8667	.11547	3
	25-29 years old	4.8600	1.18902	10
	30-34 years old	6.0000	.	1
	35-39 years old	5.2000	1.13137	2
	40-44 years old	4.6000	1.08321	4
	45-49 years old	4.1000	1.35154	4
	50-54 years old	3.2667	1.55349	3
	55-59 years old	4.5000	.70711	2
	60-64 years old	5.0000	.	1
	65 years old or above	5.0000	.	1
	Total	4.6194	1.13414	31
Total	18-24 years old	4.7238	1.14800	21
	25-29 years old	4.4545	1.30410	33
	30-34 years old	5.0800	1.26174	5
	35-39 years old	4.7600	.71274	5
	40-44 years old	4.8750	.86148	8
	45-49 years old	4.9143	1.39455	7
	50-54 years old	4.0889	1.30043	9
	55-59 years old	5.4000	1.14018	5
	60-64 years old	4.9600	.69857	5
	65 years old or above	5.1333	.80829	3
	Total	4.6812	1.17479	101

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.795	28	72	.025

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH4_2 + age + GH4_2 * age

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Hypothesis	4.889	1	4.889	5.368	.023	.070
	Error	64.576	70.899	.911[a]			
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hypothesis	.892	1	.892	.995	.322	.015
	Error	58.275	65	.897[b]			
High-Low Context	Hypothesis	1.170	1	1.170	1.305	.257	.020
	Error	58.275	65	.897[b]			
Individualism	Hypothesis	.784	1	.784	.874	.353	.013
	Error	58.275	65	.897[b]			
Long-Term Orientation	Hypothesis	1.246	1	1.246	1.390	.243	.021
	Error	58.275	65	.897[b]			
Power Distance	Hypothesis	.167	1	.167	.187	.667	.003
	Error	58.275	65	.897[b]			
Masculinity	Hypothesis	.190	1	.190	.212	.647	.003
	Error	58.275	65	.897[b]			
Pre-Test Brand Attitude	Hypothesis	32.792	1	32.792	36.577	.000	.360
	Error	58.275	65	.897[b]			
Group Condition	Hypothesis	5.178	2	2.589	2.147	.134	.124
	Error	36.630	30.374	1.206[c]			
Age	Hypothesis	11.486	9	1.276	.973	.489	.298
	Error	27.039	20.625	1.311[d]			
Group Condition * Age	Hypothesis	23.400	17	1.376	1.535	.110	.287
	Error	58.275	65	.897[b]			

a. ,037 MS(age) + ,001 MS(GH4_2 * age) + ,963 MS(Error)

b. MS(Error)

c. ,645 MS(GH4_2 * age) + ,355 MS(Error)
d. ,863 MS(GH4_2 * age) + ,137 MS(Error)

Estimated Marginal Means

*Group Condition * Age*

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

				95% Confidence Interval	
Group Condition	Age	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Culturally Congruent	18-24 years old	4.780[a]	.331	4.119	5.441
	25-29 years old	4.728[a]	.348	4.034	5.422
	30-34 years old	7.176[a]	.723	5.732	8.620
	35-39 years old	4.599[a]	.982	2.638	6.560
	40-44 years old	5.399[a]	1.001	3.401	7.397
	45-49 years old	5.771[a]	.691	4.391	7.152
	50-54 years old	3.605[a]	.564	2.479	4.731
	55-59 years old	5.495[a]	.713	4.070	6.920
	60-64 years old	3.716[a]	1.047	1.626	5.806
	65 years old or above	6.028[a]	.760	4.510	7.546
Culturally Incongruent	18-24 years old	4.597[a]	.319	3.960	5.233
	25-29 years old	4.258[a]	.262	3.734	4.781
	30-34 years old	4.842[a]	.729	3.386	6.298
	35-39 years old	4.392[a]	.674	3.045	5.739
	40-44 years old	4.823[a]	.579	3.667	5.980
	45-49 years old	5.562[a]	.979	3.607	7.516
	50-54 years old	5.546[a]	.605	4.338	6.755
	55-59 years old	5.851[a]	1.043	3.767	7.934
	60-64 years old	5.094[a]	.588	3.921	6.268
	65 years old or above	.[a,b]	.	.	.
English as lingua franca	18-24 years old	4.794[a]	.583	3.629	5.959
	25-29 years old	4.921[a]	.301	4.320	5.521
	30-34 years old	5.116[a]	.966	3.186	7.046
	35-39 years old	4.883[a]	.692	3.502	6.265
	40-44 years old	4.176[a]	.484	3.208	5.143
	45-49 years old	3.922[a]	.502	2.919	4.925
	50-54 years old	2.897[a]	.562	1.775	4.019

55-59 years old	3.838[a]	.714	2.411	5.265
60-64 years old	4.739[a]	1.014	2.714	6.764
65 years old or above	5.008[a]	.978	3.054	6.962

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Uncertainty Avoidance = ,0095049, High-Low Context = ,0245714, Individualism = ,0340163, Long-term Orientation = ,0628934, Power Distance = ,0068838, Masculinity = -,0510748, avg_pre_brand_attitude = 5,1327.
b. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.

Tables C25

Levene's Test for ANCOVA for Mediating Effect of Education and Age on E(M)LF on Brand Attitude – STIM2

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Brand Attitude

F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.393	59	41	.002

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + UVA + HLC + IND + LTO + PDI + MAS + avg_pre_brand_attitude + GH4_2 + age + education + GH4_2 * age + GH4_2 * education + age * education + GH4_2 * age * education

10. Declaration on Honor

UNIVERSITÉ DE FRIBOURG
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D E C L A R A T I O N

I hereby declare that I wrote this thesis on my own and followed the principles of scientific integrity.

I acknowledge that otherwise the department has, according to a decision of the Faculty Council of November 11th, 2004, the right to withdraw the title that I was conferred based on this thesis.

I confirm that this work or parts thereof have not been submitted in this form elsewhere for an examination, according to a decision of the Faculty Council of November 18th, 2013.

Le Landeron (NE), the 02.08. 2024