Санкт-Петербургский государственный университет

**БОЛЕЛЛИ Каролина**

**Выпускная квалификационная работа**

**Роль языка в деловой коммуникации и маркетинге**

Уровень образования: магистратура
Направление 45.04.02 «*Лингвистика*»
Основная образовательная программа ВМ.5763. «*Иностранные языки
и межкультурная коммуникация в сфере бизнеса и менеджмента*»

Научный руководитель:
доцент, Кафедра иностранных языков
в сфере экономики и права,
Петрова Екатерина Евгеньевна

Рецензент: доцент, ФГБОУВО
Санкт-Петербургский государственный
экономический университет,
Курсанина Елена Евгеньевна

Санкт-Петербург
2021

# Содержание

**Introduction**

IMPORTANT OF THE RESEARCH: In today's hectic globalized market, communication is an ever challenging activity, to which experts should put much more attention than in the past. The main goal of multinational companies is to appeal to a continuously wider audience and to convey a meaning that is not only clear and understandable, but that also has deep-rooted, emotional and culturally-driven features. The success of business communication depends on the company's ability to relate to various cultures and languages, and to apply the right strategies to do so. The study is not only useful for business people who need to apply these methods on a daily basis on the workplace, but also for people who are sensitive to this topic and wish to further their understanding of it. It is also suitable for students who wish to work for multinational companies in the future.

RESEARCH GOAL: The aim of this paper is to evaluate the importance of a culturally and linguistically driven approach to business and to the marketing communication strategy a company should implement. It is stated that a business that lacks social sensitivity and whose marketing operations are mostly centralized will eventually risk failing in the long term.

To achieve this aim the following research objectives are set:

- ✓ to perform a theoretical analysis of intercultural communication in business and in marketing, and to analyze the marketing language;
- ✓ to explore the topic of the globalization of the market as well as the features that characterize it;
- ✓ to analyze the strategies of entering a foreign market with reference to culture;
- ✓ To analyze the three main features of brand identity - brand names, logos and slogans;
- ✓ To analyze the adaptation and standardization marketing strategies of IKEA;
- ✓ To study the linguistic features that characterize Unilever.

METHODOLOGY: When analyzing the impact of language and culture in business communication, several articles have been used in support of the research objective. Different classifications are applied both in the theoretical and practical part of this thesis, including the four P classification, used to compare the marketing strategies of IKEA in Sweden, the UK and China. The papers analysed build on both primary and secondary data, such as interviews with senior managers at IKEA and studies on business and retailing in the three countries. A six-dimension (graphemic/phonemic, morphological/syntactical, semantic, lexical) linguistic analysis is performed for the company Unilever. Examples of slogans, brand names, logos etc., are taken from various articles, websites and newspapers.

WORKING STRUCTURE: The thesis is divided into two parts. The first part discusses the role and impact of culture and language on business and marketing communication. The considerations made and the strategies outlined are followed by numerous examples of real companies and their chosen approach. The second part analyzes two case studies, that is to say IKEA and Unilever. More specifically, the first one is analysed with reference to its standardization and adaptation approach to foreign countries, whereas for the last one mostly linguistic considerations are made. The linguistic features of both companies' brand identity (brand names, logos and slogans) are also analysed.

**Chapter 1 Basic theoretical provisions**

**1.1 Language, culture and ethics in business communication**

In order to understand which role language, together with culture and ethics, play in business communication, it is necessary to begin with a brief overview of to-day's globalized world. As a matter of fact, the process towards the globalization of business began with such events as deregulation, including the abolition of trade barriers, the acceleration of communication processes and the progress of computer technologies, which all together set up a global market operated by transnational marketers. Today's international market is much more connected, thanks to new technologies which make it much more difficult to erect national boundary fences, and more uniform: for instance, in almost every corner of the globe it is possible to find McDonald's stores or Coca Cola billboards. Nowadays, global marketing is heading towards homogeneous buying patterns worldwide: Nike lovers share more interests among themselves than with their families. In the meantime, the European Union counterpoises the USA for economic supremacy, while Latin America and Russia develop buoyant economies, and the economies of Hong Kong, Singapore, Taiwan, South Korea, together with India, Indonesia and China keep on speeding up the economic growth. It also must be mentioned that we deal with a world of deep imbalances: for instance, the annual sales of companies such as General Motors and Exxon outdid the GDPs of the countries like Indonesia, Saudi Arabia, Norway, Ni-geria, Pakistan and Egypt in 1992. Money and information are within a stone's throw, while foreign cultures, lifestyles and consumer buying patterns are constantly surveyed by corporations who buy, sell and invest in products and services on a global level (Verey 2002: 113).

Firms choose different kinds of marketing approaches in their business activi-ties. Bartlett and Ghoshal (1999, as cited in Verey 2002: 113) classify the levels of cross-cultural business corporations can work in. They distinguish between: "do-

mestic marketing", as a domain placed under the company's own cultural, national and geographic borders; "export marketing" which deals with the trade of products/services with foreign consumers; "international marketing", concentrating on domestic customers and proposing a standardized marketing mix abroad; "multinational marketing" which is made up of several independent contributors and marketing mixes; "global marketing" which offers a single marketing mix to conform to; and "transnational marketing", as a series of amenable overseas actions operating in a composite system of coordinated cooperative management (Verey 2002: 113).

A lot of attention will be put in this paper not only on language, but also on the two factors that are mostly linked to it, namely culture and ethics. All these three factors affect the way businesses operate internationally and determine the successfulness of the business strategy. Firms which dedicate time and commitment to make the necessary adaptations to the countries they are going to do business with, will have more chances not to run into abrupt surprises caused by unawareness of the three and will be able to predict strategic moves in response to their competitors'. A real "code of conduct" of a specific region must be learned, by keeping in mind that single cultures are constantly subject to changes. In fact, errors that are made when embarking in international business can be potentially fatal: this is the case of Columbia pictures, which in 1983 shot a movie set in Egypt that was unfortunately perceived as extremely offensive because of inaccuracies, such as the accent (Pakistani), the clothing (Moroccan) and the exhibited behavior of the characters (American). For instance, the late Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser was depicted kissing his wife in public, which is an unacceptable behavior in Egypt (Ricks: 1993, as cited in Ba Banutu-Gomez, 2014: 237). As a result, Columbia pictures was banned before long in Egypt. The moral of the story is that if Columbia pictures had made research into what is considered acceptable and what is a taboo in Egyptian culture, it probably would not have completely failed its business venture into the country (Ba Banutu-Gomez, 2014: 237).

The understanding of culture is not easy and requires a good deal of consideration. According to Edward T. Hall (1961), as cited in (Wang 2012: 115), a step towards the understanding of culture could be the individuation of ten areas of human activities, the so called "primary message systems" that combine to produce culture. These are: interaction, whose most elaborated form is speech; temporality, as the way time is built and used; association, as the hierarchy, formal organizations and roles that people play in a society; learning, which brings up the conventions on learning and teaching; subsistence, as how society gratifies the basic necessities of everyday life (food, drink, work); play, or what is regarded as a form of entertainment; bisexuality, which is the way the sexes are differentiated and what kind of sexual behaviors are allowed; defense, which refers to the protective activities needed by the community against nature and human beings; territoriality, concerned with the division and allocation of space; and exploitation, which focuses on how to increase and exploit resources. Hall also advocates that every message system acts at three different levels. A formal one that takes the form of rules and admonitions, which children learn at a young age; an informal behavior pattern that, by means of a subconscious imitation, is taught usually out of the awareness of both learner and mentor; and, last but not least, a technical one, which occurs at a high level of consciousness. In his theory of change, Hall suggests that the change moves from the formal to the informal level, and afterwards to the technical level, that is to say from unconsciousness to consciousness.

Broadly speaking, business communication and marketing are affected by culture in the three following aspects: silent language, values and attitudes, manners and customs (Wang 2012: 119). Silent language highlights how communication involves much more than verbal tools: it denotes behaviors and habits of people such as the posture, the use of gestures when communicating with others, the relationship of a culture with time, space, material possessions and friendship patterns. For example, the concept of space refers to such matters as proximity, that is to say the space left between two interlocutors while having a conversation. For instance,

Middle Eastern countries are known for the close distance men keep during conversations, often a distance that is too close for the western society. As concerns material belongings, they are certainly an evident feature to signal one's status, especially in cultures with distinct social hierarchies. As to friendship patterns, it has to be mentioned that cultures strongly differ, especially in business communication, regarding who can be considered and treated as a friend, who can be trusted and given responsibility. An American businessman would not be surprised to see as a prospective partner someone who is considered by a third person as a friend. On the contrary, a Japanese businessman would likely say that he cannot speak for a certain person because s/he is a close acquaintance. Agreements across cultures are also conceived in diverse ways: while western entrepreneurs depend on plain, written contracts and keep the letter of the law, eastern cultures use general agreements between the parties involved (Wang 2012: 119). Furthermore, perceptions of time vary substantially between even relatively close cultures, which often causes a variety of problems connected to it. For instance, east Asians believe being on time even 30 minutes earlier, while Latin Americans would probably materialize themselves 30 minutes later. The perception of "small talk" is not appreciated by North Americans, but is essential for Latin Americans before the beginning of a business meeting (Herbig 1998: 21).

Values and attitudes are another feature having an impact on business communication and on their choices of products and services. Values represent common principles or group norms that are deep-rooted in individuals. Attitudes are assessments of options based on the values adopted. For example, attitudes relating to change are often positively perceived in developed countries, though in more conservative cultures, change is observed with profound mistrust, all the more when it derives from external factors, such as a foreign culture. By way of illustration, before launching Colac laxative in Japan, the board members conducted studies on the psychological dimensions of dealing with this topic in a country like Japan. It emerged that the reticent Japanese were willing to discuss such a delicate topic only under certain conditions, such as once they realize they are not the only ones dealing

with the problem and not in the presence of western partners. Further research proved that the Japanese were not willing to buy herbal medicines and at the same time were worried that a Western laxative may be overly powerful. This is not only the reason why Colac carefully built its image on the slogan "There are things to consider for stubborn constipation: salad, beauty exercise, and Colac before bedtime" but also the fact that from the outside Colac looks like two little pink pills associated with natural qualities (Wang 2012: 119-120).

The third and last feature is manners and customs, which constitute the proper lifestyle of people. Offensiveness could even take the form of the adoption of product packages that may be perceived as inappropriate or simply inconvenient. This is once again the case of Coca Cola. In countries like Mexico, China and Thailand, beverages are put in large cans and bottles suitable for up to five people, according to the number of individuals which make up full-sized families. Whereas in many Western countries, where families are smaller and customers are already used to ready-to-serve drinks, bottles and cans are designed accordingly. On the same line, foreign restaurants have to adapt their food to the local tastes, at the expense of the "real" taste dishes may have in the country of origin. For example, the traditional spicy and hot dishes of China cannot be offered in the same way in western countries which would find them too spicy. Moreover, there are also differences in the means of consumption of products and their position in the market: General Food's Tang in the United States is usually consumed in the morning and therefore classified as a breakfast drink, while in France, where orange juice is not consumed at breakfast, it is a refreshment (Wang 2012: 120).

The second factor that has an impact on business communication is ethics. The main issue to mention in this sense is the divergence between actions and behaviors judged as unethical, though not officially illegal or against the law in a specific country. According to Peng (2010, as cited in Ba Banutu Gomez, 2014: 239) companies usually decide to pick one of the following two alternatives when going global: the first view, known as "ethical relativism", consists in meeting all the re-

quirements or limitations of the country a company is doing business with. For instance, as regards employees, if the country does not agree to include female employees in a certain working place, the foreign company will not let women accordingly. The second one is known as "ethical imperialism" which consists in recognizing only one set of ethics, that is to say one's own. An ethical dilemma could appear, for instance, when a firm realizes that throwing trash illegally into adjacent water sources and likely being involved in a lawsuit would be more convenient than the correct disposal of waste. However, what might sound beneficial in the near future, will in the long term have side effects, such as tarnished reputation and decrease in sales and profits. Coca-Cola's reputation has suffered due to its ethical negligence as concerns the plants located in India: the company faced a fierce and losing battle to redeem its lost brand reputation in this country, since it was accused of straining water resources and causing drinking water scarcity and environmental problems from 2003 (Ba Banutu-Gomez 2014: 235-236).

As concerns language and verbal communication, their role in communicating meaning should be recognized as one of the most powerful tools human beings have. Sutiu (2014: 99) states that all people have beliefs and the wish to persuade and, in order to achieve this goal, they appeal to words. We accept that "Not only do nonverbal cues help us interpret verbal messages, but they are also responsible in their own right for the majority of the messages that make up human communication, such as means posture, hand gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, proxemics and touching" (Ferraro 2002: 8, as cited in Ba Banutu-Gomez, 2014: 232). Language is the foundation of communication across multiple countries and at the same time a huge barrier for entry into a foreign country. Besides, a remarkable fact to examine is how executives of various companies perceive the importance of knowing the language of their customers (Swift 1991: 36). Surprisingly enough, research done on English managers resulted in the fact that they believe that learning new languages is of no great relevance and that their overseas operations are in any case quite successful. When the parties speak different languages, firms usually rely

on intermediaries such as agents, sales subsidiaries and other representatives to compensate for the comprehension gap. As said before, this is especially true for marketing and sales executives in the UK, which rarely engage in the study of languages, also due to the growing interest abroad in learning English for business purposes. However, with the beginning of the Single European Market in 1993, academic articles stating the importance of language learning for business operations increased dramatically. They state that British managers will be at a disadvantage, compared to their competitors, if they do not retain an interest for foreign languages. Yet is it true? As Swift states, the main question to ask ourselves is not if languages are important, but why and how they are important (Swift 1991: 36).

Poor verbal or written communication can be a major problem within the process of communication and the understanding of a certain culture. In fact, Holden (1989, as cited in Swift 1991: 37) advocates that the failure to understand the formal linguistic system is as significant as the lack of comprehension of the social and cognitive dimensions of language. To make matters worse, even supposing both actors share a common language, there may be anyways a lack of similar socializing experiences, differences in value systems, personality and so on, which could eventually interfere with effective communication. Therefore, language barriers can be seen as interfering not only with mutual communication but also with the ability to read the market culture. In other words, as Glees (1986, as cited in Swift 1991: 38) states, knowledge of the market language allows greater accuracy of communication, sensitivity to customs, tastes and patterns of consumption. Researchers introduce the notion of "closeness" as the psychological proximity to one's market, which Holden (1989, as cited in Swift 1991: 38) outlines as "a metaphorical channel of communication and a form of actual and potential knowledge". "Closeness" abates and eventually calls off psychological distance between interlocutors, and instead enables marketers to go under the market's skin, examine the market in a much greater detail and create a sense of community. Moreover, another obstacle to "closeness" is the use of the language intermediaries mentioned above (Swift 1991: 37-38).

The considerations of Turnbull (1981, as cited in Swift 1991: 39) should also be taken into account. The author states that foreign language skills result in six marketing advantages. These are the improvement of the communication flow to and from the market; the enhancement of the understanding of the ethos and business practices of the market; the improvement of the ability to negotiate and adjust products and services to the desires of the customer; a better psychological advantage in the process of selling; a more solid relationship of trust and, in due course, the creation of smoother social contacts, given by a proved interest in the customer's country and culture (as the old saying goes, "If you want interest, show interest") (Swift 1991: 39-40). Moreover, the concept of trust is of paramount importance. The existence of a bond between trust and change of attitude, influenced by the perceptions of both parties suggest that only after the establishment of a certain degree of trust the parties involved carry out a change of attitude. When seeking to establish this degree of trust and create a close social relationship essential for any business negotiation, language is a key element to smooth the process. Consequently, the marketer should deduce the strategic role of language in the route towards the construction of trust (Swift 1991: 40).

## 1.2 The influence of culture in international marketing

First of all, we should ask ourselves what marketing is about. Marketing is essentially a social exchange process based on communication. The latter can be defined as an element that "determines the time and timing of interpersonal events, the places where it is appropriate to discuss particular topics, the physical distance separating one speaker from another, the tone of voice that is appropriate to the subject-matter… Culture includes the relationship of what is said to what is meant" (Hall and Whyte: 1963) and is in turn influenced by the cultural background, which is an important element to take into consideration when doing business abroad. Ironically, marketers running international firms are every so often unconscious of the cultural

roots of the concepts, slogans or brand names they are fashioning. Besides, marketing is not always seen as sound and rational, but rather an illogical art (Verey 2002: 114). When attempting to define marketing communication, different features can be emphasized, for example, the fact that marketing communication's goal is to persuade or influence the audience by means of conveying clear and brief messages. One may also emphasize the role of the context in marketing communication and the symbolic value that is given to it in order to create meaning. However, the main duty of a good communicator remains to consider the surrounding context, when building a message that must be fully understood by the addressees. All in all, academics agree on viewing marketing communication as a form of persuasion work which consists in giving symbolic value to consumer goods: in order to succeed, the marketer identifies texts which have the power to persuade potential customers and create a strong response. According to Heath et al. (2006: 410-419), it is particularly important to focus not only on the rational message of the product or service in question, but also the emotional appeal that its sponsorship will have on the consumer. To trigger an emotional appeal in the consumer is to build a much closer relationship with him/her, to establish a direct bond to what the company is selling and establish a positive emotional state after the use or purchase of a specific product. It would therefore be better to refer to an "emotional" marketing communication as a more effective and persuasive form of marketing communication, whereby subtle patterns of the mind are put in connection with the product.

Now that we have tried to define marketing and marketing communication, we should take a step forward in this analysis by taking into account that everyone is a prisoner of their own culture and that the latter influences people's minds in ways that are not easy to understand and be aware of. Yet it is of paramount importance to recognize this defect in order to have an effective approach not only to business practices, but also to international marketing (Samo: 2014).

First of all, the terms 'intercultural marketing' and 'international marketing' should not be confused. The difference is in the fact that international marketing's

focal point is to target countries and explore possibilities to apply standardized operative marketing strategies at the national and international level, while overlooking cultural related factors. On the contrary, the focus of intercultural marketing is exactly on those differences and, with culture in mind, its aim is to try to conciliate them at the international level and, insofar as possible, to exploit possible similarities (Samo: 2014). In other words, intercultural marketing is defined as the analysis, planning, coordination and control of all companies' activities in international markets in harmony with their respective culture. It is the strategic process of marketing among consumers which belong to countries that are not culturally connected to the marketer's one in at minimum one of the essential cultural traits of social norms and values, language, education, religion and living style (Herbig: 1998). Therefore, to create a specific marketing mix that fulfills the consumer's need and meets his/her values is the main task of a successful marketer. Besides, it is necessary to differentiate intercultural marketing from similar activities, namely ethno-marketing and global marketing. Ethno-marketing focuses primarily on cultural differences within a country. On the other hand, global marketing deals with the coordination, the development and the integration of marketing activities for the international market. In this sense marketing programs are designed to meet global market demands and activities are made concurrently in several international markets (Samo: 2014).

Although the advent of global markets has reduced the inequalities among certain countries, inexperienced marketers are constantly under the threat of culture shocks. Just to mention an example, when Pepsi Cola arrived in Japan a few years back, the committee designated to select an executive responsible for the new market chose a young and impetuous manager, whose reckless character was the key to success in the U.S. marketplace. Nevertheless, his temperament was not at all appreciated in Japan. Pepsi's initial mistake paved the way for Coca Cola, which gained market leadership with the help of Japanese leaders who were on the same wavelength. This is to highlight how cultural incompetence can definitely endanger

a million dollars in fruitless negotiations, futile purchases, sales, contracts and piti-ful customer relations.

The great power of culture upon international marketing programs and inter-national marketing managers takes many forms, and not only the one described above. For instance, diverse consumption behaviors and people's customs are driven by the influence of culture. The role it plays should not be undervalued: cultural var-iances are present in every field of marketing, such as the designing of products, ad-vertising and promotion of the aforementioned. It is therefore advisable to thorough-ly elaborate a cultural analysis and gather a considerable amount of data before en-tering foreign markets, in order to respond to cultural differences effectively. How-ever, it can be quite tough to find the proper approaches to solve these problems, as well as to find the perfect balance between traditional out-of-date exaggerations of traditional marketing and new strategies that comply with the cultural expectations of a nation. Cultural traits such as rooted values, attitudes and behavior patterns are to be taken into consideration when designing product, pricing, distribution and communication policies. Thus, a successful international marketer must be fully aware of the cultural components (Samo: 2014).

## 1.3    Standardization and adaptation

When planning a marketing communication program, it should be noted that there are two main strategies to follow, both presenting a number of advantages and disadvantages. These are standardization and adaptation/accommodation studied by both anthropologists and marketers, who examine the question from a social, cultur-al and strategic perspective. The issue of whether or not to adapt communication ac-tivities, such as advertising, can be solved by asking ourselves about the possible consequences of adapting or not adapting our choice of imagery, language, vocabu-lary, and other aspects of our communication arrays. In order to explore the topic,

let us take into consideration the definition of the terms "standardization" and "adaptation or accommodation" (Kragh 2000: 2).

The premise for both strategies is the market conditions. The basic differences between the two approaches are that the adherents of local adaptation focus on the market, with consumer acceptance as the primary objective, while the supporters of the standardization strategy are primarily concerned with the production costs, with economies of scale as the primary objective.

Generally speaking, adaptation can be defined as the conscious accommodation by one or more persons of their style, ideas and ways of communication to that wished and referred to by the others. In order to define a strategy to put into action, it is possible to sketch some guidelines. First of all, a company should opt for standardization when clients have similar features. In this way brands refer to a collective image. Secondly, when communication activity programs are short of resources, a competitive advantage can be represented by skills, know-how and cooperation. It is also advisable to choose adaptation to develop a strong brand image in the international arena. When the central management group necessitates control over the creative input, planning and implementation process, it is advisable to allow local managers to run the program. Moreover, not every culture has the same level of receptiveness to advertising messages. In these terms some differences between Western and Eastern cultures could be noted. Advertising in Western cultures stresses individualism and competition whereas Western cultures react to logical, rational, information-based appeals. On the other hand, Eastern cultures highlight emotions, status, indirect expression and the avoidance of comparisons (Verey 2002: 119). In addition to this, they are more receptive to emotional and dramatic appeals. Adaptation should take into account, for instance, the basic distinction just mentioned. Accommodation theory advocates for the creation of a constructive communication based on recognition of similarity between individuals. To put it simply, people are instinctively more apt to appreciate those who are similar to themselves. The theory implies that in marketing terms the message that a brand wants to convey should be

translated, adapted or specifically designed for each culture. This is particularly relevant for communication with minority groups inside a specific culture (Verey 2002: 114).

The adaptation-difference perspective claims that there are powerful barriers (such as industry regulations and consumer behavior) to global standardization that make it impossible for companies to only follow a standardization strategy. The literature on the topic teems with examples of marketing gaffes due to the absence of adaptations to local markets' rules. An instance of the issue could be simply the perception of the design of a product in different countries: in fact, the US-market rejected the Italian designed typewriter Olivetti as the design and symbolic attributes of the machine were considered too elegant for American puritanical norms in working places. Another case is the one of cereals: barriers to standardization are the different levels of purchasing power, amount consumed by head and literacy rate. This calls for an adaptation of prices and quantity of cereals in the packages, and eventually of the printed information on the packages (Kragh 2000: 7).

As concerns the standardization-convergence perspective, it is necessary to make an introductory statement concerning the two basic lines of reasoning of standardization (Kragh 2000: 2-3). The first line implies that international markets are either homogeneous or on the point of becoming so: in this sense, companies should reply by standardizing their market to obtain economies of scale, efficiency in organization, lower prices and enhanced quality worldwide. While the second line of reasoning suggests that economies of scale are accomplished through standardized production and secondly lead companies to lower prices and get the better of market shares (Levitt 1983: 92-102, as cited in (Kragh 2000: 7). In other words, while the first one enhances already existing standardization, and seeks to be in keeping with the market conditions the company meets (market based outside-in strategy), the other one favors standardization and entails that the firm can and should change the market conditions (resource based inside-out strategy). It is interesting to reflect on Levitt's idea, which implies that consumers, limited by subjec-

tive perceptions, old customs and habits, to put it simply, their culture, are guided in their consumption behavior by the company, which instead claims to know what consumers really desire:

"Different cultural preferences, national tastes and standards and business institutions are vestiges of the past (…). Many of today's differences among nations as to products and their features actually reflect the respectful accommodations of multinational corporations to what they believe are fixed local preferences. They believe preferences are fixed, not because they are, but because of rigid habits of thinking about what actually is. Most executives in multinational corporations are thoughtlessly accommodating. They falsely presume that marketing means giving the consumers what they say they want rather than trying to understand exactly what they would like. So they persist with high-cost, customized multinational products and practices instead of pressing hard and pressing properly for global standardization" (Levitt 1983: 92-102, as cited in Kragh 2000: 4).

One of the possible applications of standardization, as an approach to intercultural marketing, is the culture-centered or ethnocentric approach. According to this theory, the country of origin's culture deeply influences international activities of companies and foreign markets and sometimes overwhelms the culture of the foreign target country. Little adaptation is made while transferring domestic marketing activities in the foreign market relying on the country-of-origin-effect. This refers to the idea that companies can take the liberty to rely on the reputation of the origin or nationality of the brand (usually associated with high quality or reliability) to sell the product to foreign customers. In most cases, ignoring cultural differences is a strategy that is likely to be unsuccessful (Samo: 2014).

Furthermore, standardization is particularly attractive in terms of costs: this option could in reality improve cost-effectiveness and ease the process towards the accomplishment of economies of scale (e.g. in media buying and packaging). On the other hand, adaptation should be preferred when consumer and buyer's needs contrast and when educational levels (e.g. literacy) differ; when economic, political and

social concerns, reflected by local regulations, vary. Besides, when there is a scarceness of local managers' sense of ownership which may put the project at stake, adaptation could encourage managers, since they feel they are supporting locally established plans (Verey 2002: 121).

In reality, the dichotomy "standardization" vs "adaptation" is too restricted. We should consider instead several combinations of standardization and adaptation, since another important dichotomy, that is to say the context-free and context-bound product, should be considered (Kragh 2000: 11).

The key point to consider is that both standardization and adaptation implicitly assume that the product is what it seems to be for both the producer and the consumer, notwithstanding the socio-cultural aspects of the consumer and that an alteration of product qualities or activity by the producer will be perceived and interpreted in the same way by the two. As a matter of fact, it has been argued that the theories, as they are, have limited value, since they do not consider the context. In fact, there is a discrepancy between the product as it exists for the consumers in a precise market and the product as it exists irrespectively of the market context.

This is why the creolization perspective has to be introduced in the discussion. The concept is particularly useful to highlight the role of the cultural character of marketing and underlines the fact that customers actually define what products are and what they are used for, instead of being just passive receivers of goods. Upon them consumers build their culture and localize the previously standardized product. Some consumers may consider a product as cheap and with insufficient features, while consumers in another market may consider the same product as expensive and rich in defining features: it is therefore no longer conceivable to refer to the product and the marketing variables in unidimensional terms. For instance, the concept of creolization can be witnessed in the case of a standardized Coca Cola's products. Some of the countries in question are Russia, in which it has been observed that Coca Cola has allegedly been recognized the ability to smooth wrinkles; Haiti, where Coca Cola is apparently able to bring people back to life; Barbados,

where it can turn copper into silver. To sum up, it is stated that it is inevitable for goods entering a foreign market to transform in line with the values of the receiving culture and that they will probably not retain and communicate the same values of the country of origin (Kragh 2000: 11-18).

By taking as an example MD Foods, a Danish producer of Dairy products, it is possible to notice the cultural differences products are subjected to during commercialization. Although there is not a difference between the Havarti cheese sold in Denmark and exported in Spain, there is a substantial difference in the way it will be eaten and judged: the cheese will be eaten on black bread together with milk in Denmark, whereas in Spain it will be eaten on white bread while drinking wine. At this stage the product is a creolized mixture of traditional and new elements (Kragh 2000: 22).

From this moment on, if markets are similar, it is enough to standardize the context bound products, since the context free product will appear identical in the local markets. It is also possible to change the context free product in such a way that the perceptions of the product are almost the same across the different markets, in order to establish an identical positioning of the product in different markets.

If markets differ, the standardization of the context free product cannot result in identically perceived goods because contextual differences will eventually split up the product in as many contextual variants as there are different contexts. The only thing to do is to create a planned portfolio of different products for every different market the company is operating in, and thus accomplish an identical positioning. McDonalds, for example, follows a strategy whereby it puts its products at the lower end of the price scale in all markets by differentiating the cost of its products in accordance with the market (Kragh 2000: 22).

## 1.4       Marketing as a linguistic business

The marketing discourse is a relatively new field of research. Linguists, theorists and translators started their research on this topic only in the early 21st century. From that moment on, this field has shown an increasing growth, in consonance with the development of the global socio-economic context. Marketing is seen as a social and managerial process, an art and a philosophy. It plays a strategic role in the success of a business and of society alike. Thus, it gradually established itself as a fully-fledged discipline, evolving from a product/production orientation towards a selling one, which is more oriented to the customer. Together with it, the marketing discourse appeared as a sub discipline of the economic discourse. Having been recently established as a specialized discourse, it has been studied by a rather small number of linguists.

In order to understand what it means to refer to marketing language, it would be useful to retrace the research studies on business language. According to Hundt (1995, as cited in Konovalova and Ruiz Yepes 2016: 6), business language studies are divided into two separate phases: research until the 1950s and research after World War II. Over recent years, different characteristics of business communications with a particular focus on intercultural issues have been analyzed, although a business language typology has not been settled. This is because the term economy is too varied and therefore problematic to catalogue or structure in a business language model. Hundt (1995), for instance, proposes his own classification of business language, and divides it into three sectors, the first one dealing with business communication from an institutional point of view with the use of the three sector model; the second one deals with the Languages for Special Purposes of macroeconomics and business administration; while the third section analyses further specialized languages of economics (e.g. business mathematics or business informatics) (Konovalova and Ruiz Yepes 2016: 6). As a result, marketing language, with its specific terminology and linguistic features, denotes a sub-discipline of business

administration. This is because the core philosophy behind marketing is the planning, coordination and control of all company activities oriented on both the current and the potential markets, while constantly satisfying the customers' needs. In other words, marketing can be defined as a multifaceted system of product sales and production organization which aims at satisfying the needs of the customer. This is done by market forecast and research, which contribute, lead and respond to the development of a global strategy. It should also be mentioned that marketing language does not only share characteristics of business language, but also of business psychology (Hundt: 1998, as cited in Konovalova and Ruiz Yepes 2016: 7), since it has to do with psychological processes which influence the consumer decision in favor of the goods or services presented.

Another interesting study on the marketing discourse that can be mentioned is Sknarev's. The study focuses on the need to introduce specific terms for the study of the language of marketing and advertising. The author proposes the introduction in the scientific sphere of terms such as "linguistic marketing", containing the field "reclamemics" (2016: 51). These are respectively the scientific study of marketing communication texts and of the advertising language. It is necessary to consider reclamemics as a field within linguistic marketing, which in turn relates to media linguistics, advertising science and then to a broader marketing science, as illustrated in this figure.
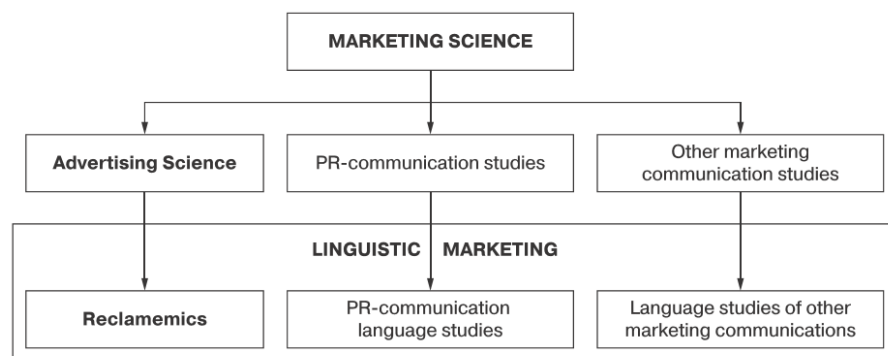
Fig. The place of linguistic marketing and reclamemics in the studies of marketing communications

Fig.1

The goal of Sknarev's study (2016: 51-57) is to observe the specifics of reclamemics and linguistic marketing as new fields of knowledge. The author believes that these areas of expertise deserve individual names and not only general references in advertising science, which also includes the study of advertising in terms of sociology, philosophy and so on. Thus, "reclamemics" is the study of the results, that is to say the consumer's reaction to the communication efforts carried out to generate a positive impression about the advertised object. It takes into consideration some features of advertising texts such as the type of information given about the products, its design, the target customer, the imagery, the kind of approach adopted… etc. Moreover, reclamemics contains specific verbal units, the so called "reclamemas", a term introduced by M.V. Jagodkina (2009: 31). These are made up of linguistic means and text units. Common linguistic means in the advertising context are, for instance, tropes, terms, idioms, neologisms and neophrazeologisms. As concerns text units, they usually involve the brand name, title, slogan, information unit, coda and echo-phrase, which all together create the marketing strategy. According to Jagodkina (2009: 31), a reclamema is a symbolic unit, or a unique entity of interrelated constituents, presenting both verbal and non-verbal features (the latter could also be related to visual and auditory elements) which constitute the image of the product.

### 1.4.1 Trends of the development of marketing language

As marketing involves "creating, communicating, delivering and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients and society at large" (Grundlach and Wilkie 2009: 260), it should be considered as an essentially linguistic business. According to Kelly-Holmes, marketing is a key site for anyone who wants to understand language work in contemporary society. To examine it, the author states that

the linguistic business of marketing is evolving into three main trends, as follows: the fetishization of language and the rise of visuality; individualization and customization; and the democratization of language made by working consumers (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 36).

First of all, the creation of value is possible thanks to two crucial processes, that is to say segmentation and differentiation. The first one consists in dividing up the market into sub-markets which are easier to target and manage, while the latter involves the creation of a unique and distinct niche market for a product or service. Language is the actor which the two processes rely on (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 36).

The main segmentation strategy in global marketing is based on geography and language, and the idea that each geographical position is linked to a certain idiom. Thus, segmentation results in glocalising the market and dividing it up into speakers of different languages, which allows creating personalized marketing and advertising materials. Language as "the great segregator" (Blommaert 2015: 83-90, as cited in Kelly-Holmes 2019: 37) underpins language ideologies and linguistic regimes and hierarchies. As a result, marketing communication highlights the division of the world into ordered groups of people who share the same language, eventually erasing multilingualism. In fact, the world's multilingualism, when acknowledged and accommodated, tends to be ordered in marketing communication in terms of an impeccably balanced bilingualism. For instance, online gateway sites of companies which operate in bilingual or multilingual countries divide consumers by a segregating strategy based on their language: consumers choose a language and are placed in their language group, sealed from the others. On a larger level of analysis, marketing choices could be responsible for rubbing out local language practices: this happens with languages which are widely spoken in a given country but lack an official status. These sort of decisions contribute to the establishment of strict and complex language hierarchies in the world (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 37).

The case of English on Air India's website is emblematic in this sense. As a matter of fact, Air India's services are provided on its website first of all in English

(as the default language) and secondly in Hindi. The commonsense logic behind this is that in order to afford to travel with the airline and to be a worthwhile consumer, English must be known. This happens despite the fact that more than 1000 languages are spoken in India, including hindi, bengali, telugu, marathi, tamil e urdu as the most widely spread. Nevertheless, English eventually emerges as the common sense choice by the advertisers of the airline Air India and of many other brands and companies in the country (Irvine and Gal 2000: 35-83, as cited in Kelly-Holmes 2019: 37).

The choice of language for communication may be linked not only to a segmentation strategy, but also to a differentiation one, driven by the need to communicate to a specific group of customers in specific locations. This is especially true if the speakers of a particular language are economically relevant and have language rights protected by language policies. Language can be used to appeal to a certain identity and at the same time isolate another. As concerns differentiation, Emirates airline's promotional video could be cited as an example. The video is set in a range of locations and shows employees preparing to board their flight. They are seen leaving an apartment in Italy, jogging in a global city, eating breakfast in Hong Kong or Singapore and boarding the flight. The first characteristic that can be noted is the scenario, which can be undeniably classified as an intercultural one. The second characteristic is an auditory one: employees say a few words of greeting in different languages such as Italian, Chinese and French, with English providing the frame. Last but not least, the slogan of the airline, which is also the title of the promotional video, appears: "A smile in 120 languages". At this point, some remarks can be made.

The approach is at first glance much more different from Air India's: the encounter with language is powerful and is at the heart of the Emirates marketing strategy. In this case, English as a neutral and cosmopolitan language is not seen as a reasonable choice. On the contrary, the airline promises to provide a service "in your language", which as a result reinforces territoriality. Another remarkable as-

pect is the absence of Arabic, although the airline is based in the Gulf States. We could speculate about the reasons for the erasure (Irvine and Gal 2000: 35-83 as cited in Kelly-Holmes 2019: 38) of Arabic from the aural exhibition of multilingualism, although one of the answers might be that the Arabic language is simply not something that is seen as well-matched for the particular audience being targeted by this particular video (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 38).

It is now time to examine the three main trends in the linguistic marketing theory, beginning with the fetishization of language. The fetishization of language involves the use of language primarily for its visual and aural qualities and not for its informational content. In other words, "In linguistic fetish, the symbolic or visual value of a language takes precedence over its communicative value, and this symbolic value is the product of existing linguistic hierarchies and regimes" (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 39). Emirates' promotional video serves as an example in this sense, since it uses languages to boost the semiotic landscape of the commercial rather than presenting facts or information about the airline. This happens together with the increase in "visuality" of today's consumer culture. Another good example mentioned by the author is the Giorgio Armani perfume "Sì". The commercial features the international star Cate Blanchett who promotes the perfume in a number of different displays. Although it may appear obvious that an Italian company uses an Italian name for its products, this could be also considered as a linguistic fetish. If the informational message of the word "Sì" was relevant, we should have expected several translations or the use of a more widely understood "Yes" in English. However, this is not the case. "Sì" is to be considered as a short word, not too puzzling and easy to pronounce. It is probable that many people can predict its meaning, especially hispanophones. The word "Sì" is therefore used as something visual and not textual. As briefly mentioned above, the choice of a certain word is driven by how the word looks, the associations it can create with the target audience and how these are triggered by the presence of a foreign word. On the contrary, the meaning of the word is moved to the background (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 39).

Haarmann (1989, as cited in Kelly-Holmes 2019: 39) coined the term "impersonal bilingualism" as the use of foreign languages in Japanese advertising to exploit symbolic associations the words used would have on the Japanese public. On the same level of analysis are the studies of Jaworski et al. (2003: 5-29, as cited in Kelly-Holmes 2019: 39), who coin the term "linguascaping" as "the sounds and visual representations of special or unique language codes and varieties (accents, dialects) often used for symbolic purposes". As a result, fetishization in language highlights the difference between the communicative and the symbolic, as well as the textual and the visual in communication. It recognizes as well not only the connection between the four elements, but also the superiority of the symbolic and visual value over the use and textual value (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 39).

Another growing trend in marketing communication is the customization of language, which is to be considered as an extreme form of segmentation. There are two types of customization. The first one consist in the personalization of services for the consumer based on information known about them. One of the most frequently cited examples is that of online book and media retailer Amazon. Personalisation works by using "recommendation algorithms to personalize the online store for each customer. The store radically changes based on customer interests, showing programming titles to a software engineer and baby toys to a new mother" (Linden et al. 2003, as cited in Kelly-Holmes 2019: 41). Ecommerce websites gather information about the consumers and use it to personalize webpages and to identify the best targets for a specific advertising (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 40-41).

The other type of customization is bottom-up and driven by the consumer: in this case, the marketer enables the user to customize their product and shape it according to their own needs. Accordingly, every web page is to some extent different for every individual. Thus, marketing and advertising messages have been transformed from "seller- centric" to "buyer-centric" (Wind and Rangaswamy 2001: 14). As concerns language, this illustrates the central role of language in the co-creation

of value, either on the part of the producer or the consumer. The following example clarifies what is just been said (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 41).

Hairbaby.com is an online business producing t-shirts, mugs, shopping bags and other products which celebrate the Irish language and Irish-English. Such products are part of long tail markets, which until now were not serviced profitably, since, unlike mass markets, they could not exploit economies of scale. Long tail markets are in fact made up of small niche markets that could contribute to profitable business only in recent times, with the development of new technology. The point is that the mass marketing of previous years ironically persuaded Irish people to wear t-shirts with the logos of American universities they had never visited before. When wondering how come there were not any cool Irish t-shirts, marketers came to the conclusion that the delivery of localized products and services was influenced by production costs, which would be lower if economies of scale favored large central and super central languages. A solution to this was the development and spread of the Internet and new technologies, which made it possible to service long tail markets cost-effectively and to successfully personalize products and services. Hairbaby's products can be seen as examples of commodified language, accompanied by a great deal of metapragmatic work. This involves talking about the meaning of language and how to use it in particular contexts. Reflecting this, Hairbaby promotes a T-shirt which features a lawnmower and the phrase "How's she cutting?" The popular question is used up and down the country usually to enquire as to how a person is and in Irish-English it means "How're things, how's it going?" In such a context, Irish people can use the Irish language or Irish-English as a resource for distinguishing and authenticating themselves (Pietikäinen et al. 2016 as cited in Kelly-Holmes 2019: 42) and at the same time co-produce value and meaning for the product together with the marketer. Having to be Irish to fully get the message involves a dialogue between producer and consumer, which leads to the creation of unique and personalized products (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 41-42).

Last but not least is the process of democratizing language. To explain this, we should review the concept of value from something created in advance and sold to the consumer to something that continually evolves and is shaped by both consumer and producer. This is defined as the "working consumer", whose work is often a skilled linguistic one, notwithstanding that theirs is an unremunerated and unacknowledged work, as exemplified in the hairbaby.com case (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 43).

Once again, it is fundamental to reflect upon the fact that the digital and social media era has heralded the end of monologic marketing communication and an inevitable loss of control on the part of marketers, who are today less trusted than individuals who already had an experience of the service offered. The consumer searches the internet not only to look for a service, but also to read reviews of other consumers. S/he trusts sites such as TripAdvisor to discover how a service is really like and at the same time it is often asked to leave a review and rate the service or product purchased. Nowadays everyone's opinion is valuable and much more visible to a wide audience. The linguistic implications of this issue are surprising: marketing texts are today out there and available for remediation, forwarding, sharing, liking, unliking, commenting, subverting, subtitling etc. in free circulation. Their trajectory is uncertain and the company issuing them has little control over it. It seems therefore as the company surrenders to the power of a "better informed, wired and wealthier" (Constantinides 2002: 59) generation of consumers. In other words, the narration of purchases and experiences in every phase or consumption has come to be as imperative for consumers and for marketers as the product or experience itself, if not more so. This added value is largely the result of linguistic work (Kelly-Holmes 2019: 43-44).

### 1.4.2 Brand linguistics

Brand linguistics is to be considered as a sub-discipline of consumer behavior, which is a sub-discipline in marketing studies, and observes the influence of language in the way consumers' psychology interact with brands, that is to say in the formation of the consumer-brand relationship (Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 572-573). In fact, a brand communicates meaning and makes itself visible to consumers though the language of its advertising or written information on packaging, social media communication or word-of-mouth, and even trademarks themselves. The consumer response heavily depends on this issue.

In order to study the impact of language in branding, Schmitt's model of the Consumer Psychology of Brands (2012: 7-17, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 573) will be used, since it is particularly prone to the incorporation of language in the development of the argumentation. Five main processes are discussed in the model: "identifying brands"; "experiencing brands"; "integrating brand information" into an inclusive concept; "signifying the brand" as a symbol and distinctive sign, and "connecting with the brand". Carnevale, Luna and Lerman's research represents therefore the first effort to present a theoretical structure of language effects on the consumer psychology of brands. Every aspect of the above mentioned processes will be cited in the description of the process, although only the most relevant aspects will be examined, in accordance with the purposes of the present paper.

Together with this, references to areas of linguistic inquiry such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and semiotics will be made. They respectively inform about how language is processed by consumers, how it is employed as a communication tool and what kind of manipulations it is subject to (Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 572-573). As an illustration, in order to decide which language fits best Moroccan immigrants in Tarragona, which is a Spanish province in the Mediterranean coast, the marketer should be aware of the level of proficiency potential customers have in the two languages (Spanish or Catalan) but also the attitudes to-

wards the respective cultures. In this sense, language proficiency would be the domain of psycholinguistics, whereas sociolinguistics would study the attitudes toward the language choices and, last but not least, semiotics would analyze the meaning creation conveyed by the choice of the language.

The first sphere of linguistic inquiry is psycholinguistics. This is the study of the individuals' mind during the act of processing language. In other words, it is the "study of the acquisition, storage, comprehension and production of language" (Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 573-574). As concerns branding, psycholinguistics is applicable to a variety of topics, such as the development of new brand names, or the composition of ads and web sites. For instance, the spelling of a brand in trademark naming has a deep impact on its memorability: equivocal spellings are often remembered more if the brand provides hints to consumers on how the brand is really spelled (Luna et al. 2013: 36-48, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 573). Klink (2000: 5-20), Lowrey and Shrum (2007: 406-414) and Luna et al. (2013: 36-48) did research into "sound symbolism", namely the kind of meanings that are conveyed through "phonemes", which are the smallest units of sound, and the impact sound has on brand memorability. "Verbal framing" is another area of research within psycholinguistics. Studies in this area have examined how consumer behavior is influenced by verbal framing in, for instance, redeeming promotions (Cheema and Patrick 2008: 462–472, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 574), avoiding unhealthy foods (Patrick and Hagtvedt 2012: 371–381, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 574), and choosing to comply with the messages presented (Kronrod et al. 2012: 95-102, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 574). By the same token, there are research projects on how altering the name of a food item (e.g. "pasta" vs. "salad") affects consumers' perception of the food's healthfulness and taste, as well as actual consumption (Irmak, Vallen and Robinson 2011: 390-405, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 574).

Sociolinguistics is the study of the influence of language in shaping societal dynamics and interpersonal relationships. By and large, it is the study of language on the outside of the mind, whereas psycholinguistics explores the inside part. For

example, it could study how attitude toward a dominant language influence a minority's purchase of a brand with labeling in that language instead of another brand which is labelled in the minority language. Another topic that can be studied is the style of language used, or the impact on bilingual-bicultural individuals when switching languages, which is equivalent to a switch in social identities (individualism and assertiveness in one language and a more group-oriented attitude in another language) (Benet-Martinez Leu, Lee and Morris 2002: 492–516; Luna, Ringberg and Peracchio: 2008: 279-293, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 574).

Semiotics investigates the structures of verbal and non-verbal meaning-producing events. It is the study of how language can be manipulated to communicate meanings and how the signs of language (words, sentences, images) are interpreted by individuals. As regards semiotics of brand linguistics, it is necessary to mention Peirce's model (Peirce: 1931-1958, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 574). This model is made up of a "sign" or "signal," which could be a word, an "interpretant,", such as the response or interpretation of the observer, and the "object" the sign refers to. Peirce advocates that signs are means of conveying meaning to the interpretant via something "outside" the mind (i.e. the "object"). The author also identifies three main branches of semiotics: namely, syntactics, semantics and pragmatics.

Syntactics is the study of sign-sign relations and has as the main focus structural and text interpretative analyses of meaning, which could be ads and product packaging (Hoshino 1987: 41-56; Mick, Burroughs, Hetzel and Brannen: 2004, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 574). On the contrary, semantics is the study of sign-object relations and it refers, for instance, to the effects of meanings of particular words or syllables, such as description of a product category or of wished qualities of the product with the aid of the investigation on brand name recall and product preferences.

Pragmatics is the study of sign-interpretant relations. For example, the meaning of the word "table" in perceived differently by everyone: some people may think of a kitchen table and another of a charmingly set restaurant. This is why a word like

"table" is deceptively simple and evokes multiple meanings in different consumers. Therefore, the task of the marketer is to find out how to make consumers picture the right "table" in their minds.

The essential processes for the analysis of the consumer psychology of brands will now be examined, with the aid of the brand linguistic factors of psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic and semiotics. As mentioned before, the processes involved are "identifying", "experiencing", "integrating", "signifying" and "connecting" a brand (Carnevale, Luna, Lerman 2017: 576-585).

The first process, namely "identifying", encompasses the act of identifying the brand itself, which is influenced by brand linguistic features (language based categorizations and, for bilinguals, degree of acculturation) and its category; secondly, the formation of brand associations, influenced by phonetic symbolism, spelling characteristics of brand elements, the greater context in which these associations are formed; and, thirdly, the comparison between brands, influenced by the attitude of individuals toward the language of origin and by script complexity (Schmitt 2012: 7-17 as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 576).

Identifying a brand is done by creating an association between the brand name or logo and categories of products. In this sense a psycholinguistic-based research provides instances of how the categorization of products is influenced by structural properties of the language. For instance, the presence of classifiers in Chinese is relevant in terms of categorization of objects: different objects which share the same classifier are much more likely to be perceived as similar, but the same is not true for languages which do not use classifiers, such as English. The consequences on retail layout strategies and brand positioning are massive. If scarves and underskirts share the same linguistic classifier, then they will probably have to be grouped together in department stores, but also online retailers. Moreover, the way in which we acquire language at a young age is another aspect linked to categorization. While American children learn the names of animals according to their taxonomic category (e.g. a set of animals contains dogs, cats, rabbits, etc.) and group objects accordingly (e.g. monkey-giraffe because they are both animals), Chinese children learn them

via thematic associations and, again, group them accordingly (e.g. monkey-banana because monkeys eat bananas) (Nisbett: 2004, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 576). For a brand seeking to expand its market, this difference should be considered, as the consumer might identify the brand, its category and products differently (for instance, cereals not just as a breakfast item but also a snack). In other words, this is to say how language affects the formation of "cognitive structures" or mental frames, which in turn further develop interpretations of the self and others.

The second process, called "experiencing", refers to the multi-sensory and emotional connections which stem from the consumers' interactions with the brand (Schmitt 2012: 7-17, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 577).

The verbal or visual presentation of brands, the interaction among senses, and the activated mental frames are factors that contribute to the creation of multi-sensory perceptions, whereas emotional connections to brands are influenced by the linguistic identity of a brand and by auditory cues. Furthermore, "consumers' actions and interactions with brands are influenced by the linguistic identity of a brand, by the degree of language simplification, by the type of verbal framing used within the interactions, and by the linguistic factors determined by the medium in which the interactions occur" (Carnevale, Luna, Lerman 2017: 577).

As regards the multi-sensory experiencing of brands, one should take into account that a brand is not experienced only in one modality (e.g., scent, touch or auditory cues), but as a whole: in fact, both the sound of a trademark and the scent of its products interact to affect brand choice and memory. Let us take candles as an example, since in this case a sensory cue (the scent) is of primary importance. In this case the meaning conveyed by the sound of the brand name should be consistent with the characteristics of the candle and its scent, in such a way that the consumer appreciates more the scent itself and perceives brand communication more successfully. Whereas, to mention other kind of products with an inherently pungent scent like nail polish and blue cheese, an effective strategy for marketers may be to counterbalance this sensory perception with the use of contrasting brand names, which would weaken unpleasant olfactory signals on consumer reactions.

Concerning the emotional connection with brands, the work of Puntoni, de Langhe, and Van Osselaer (2009: 1012-1025, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 578) is to be mentioned. In fact, the authors proved that marketing messages written in consumers' native language were perceived with more emotional intensity than messages in another language. Thus, at a phonetical level, the introduction of manipulated sounds according to different accents could considerably influence the consumer's emotional connections with the brand. A brand may in fact create a deeper emotional connection if it overlooks certain sounds, such as "h" from the beginning of words as per an Italian accent in English, or if it stresses other sounds, such as "f" instead of "v" as per the German accent in English. Another topic to examine could be the style of language used (colloquial or formal) and what kind of emotional connection with the brand it creates.

Actions and interactions with brands is another thought-provoking topic. Can brands lead consumers to action through language? For example, research in verbal framing has discovered that assertive messages (e.g., Greenpeace's "Stop the catastrophe") instead of more moderate sentences (e.g., "Please be considerate. Recycle") motivate consumers toward compliance, as the issue at hand is perceived as much more important (Kronrod et al. 2012: 95-102, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 578). Similarly, Patrick and Hagtvedt (2012, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 578) studies on empowering expressions ("I don't") and non-empowering expressions ("I can't") actively influence the consumer's product choices.

Interactions with brands should be studied in the light of the multiple changes in the ways people communicate, that is to say via new technologies. Artificial intelligence of text-based online communications and voice-based systems (such as Apple's Siri) might have changed or simplified the way customers use the language. In addition to that, one might wonder if simplification of the language results in simplification of product expectations or satisfaction criteria. For example, a less nuanced and more superficial language entails a focus of the consumer on more superficial attributes of the brand. What is evident today is that platforms of interaction with the

brand have changed radically: for example, consumers have now replaced desktop computers with mobile devices for online searching. Should a change in platform imply a change in language by the brand? Is it possible to create a "new" language (such as "emoticons") that suits perfectly the new devices and better describes consumers' experiences?

Furthermore, the third process, "integrating" brand information, consists in the establishment of a brand personality and brand relationship through the combination of all the information about a brand into a whole concept (Schmitt: 2012). More precisely, brand personality is affected by the linguistic identity of a brand and its effectiveness is influenced by the language's structural properties, by the linguistic identity of rival brands, and by the way the brand makes itself visible to the consumers. On the other hand, brand relationships are determined by the linguistic identity of a brand and by its linguistically marked gender.

Brand personality is shaped by the choice of language made: a solid and trustworthy brand will most probably make different language choices if compared to a young, irreverent and trendy one. This includes the length of sentences and type of vocabulary, use of contractions, a formal versus informal tone, type of punctuation, emoticons and use of literary devices. In the same way, global brands are likely to use English in their communications (for example, in their tagline, like "Life is Good" or "Connecting People"). Thus, brand personality is shaped by the linguistic identity of a brand, which includes its choice of language and vocabulary, the tone of voice, the type of literary devices used, as well as the punctuation. Brand personality is also influenced by the use of two genders (masculine and feminine) for nouns and adjectives, as a distinguishing feature of Romance languages. In fact, gender system has an effect upon brand recall. Research shows that brand names are more likely to be remembered if the gender of the names is in agreement with the perceived gender of their product: in the case of Spanish or Italian, the classification is grammatical (nouns ending "a" mark feminine gender, nouns ending "o" mark masculine gender), while in English the classification is semantic (a "ship" is traditionally linked to a female gender, thus is given a feminine name). These traits char-

acterize brand personalities and significantly influence consumers' perceptions and evaluations of a brand. Things are even more complicated if one considers that speakers of Romance languages may be more receptive to gender personality traits if compared to English speakers.

Brand relationships that brands create with their consumers can be evaluated by consumers with respect to whether the actions break or conform to the norms of their relationship with that brand (Aggarwal: 2004, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 581). Sociolinguistics contributes to the understanding of this framework, since the linguistic identity of the brand may counterbalance the effects of a possible violation of relationship norms. For example, Chinese trademarks might carry relevant cultural meanings: "Mercedes Benz" whose Chinese equivalent name is "Ben Chi," is translated as "dashing speed", a term embodying a conception of masculinity in a Chinese native speaker. On the other hand, "Ford Mustang" is "Bao Ma", which means "treasure horse". Such a meaning is usually associated to femininity.

The fourth process is called "signifying" a brand. It consists in the ability of brands, which become symbols and identity signals, to transfer a certain connotation or meaning. To be more precise, the linguistic identity of a brand and of its elements, the structural properties of the language, the consumer's cultural background, tone of voice and writing style are all features which inform symbolism of a brand; whereas identity signals are affected by the identity cued by the language, including its smallest units.

Semiotics is particularly relevant in the process of signifying a brand, since it helps classifying the symbolic nature of brands. A brand has been defined as a system of signs and symbols that fulfills, even if in a symbolic way, consumers' emotional, relational and/or sense of belonging needs (Oswald: 1996, as cited in Carnevale, Luna and Lerman 2017: 581). If the semiotic dimension is to be considered as an instrument to build awareness, positive associations and long-term loyalty, then a psycholinguistic lookout on the issue would put forward that the associations activated by the brand's language (or, in semiotic terms, the "signified elements") will

be culturally-specific. For instance, McDonalds' golden arches' color, namely yellow, has different meanings according to different cultures: it represents royalty in China, courage in Japan and sadness in Greece.

Another interesting consideration is the one made on rhetorical figures. It is suggested that consumers' memory may be influenced by rhetorical figures (rhymes, antithesis, puns, metaphors), and that advertisements containing them are remembered more easily. Instances in this sense may be "a child needs room to grow" or "today Slim at very slim price". Put differently, it is revealed that consumers react positively to the "unexpected" use of language, thus it is plausible that this arises in other situations linked, for example, to the structure of language. This could be the direction of the script in which a language is written (left-to-right or vice versa). Marketing communication may benefit from the "surprise effect" and capture more the attention of an Arabic customer when items are placed on the left-hand side, whereas the same would not be true for English speakers, as an item put on the left would be perceived as more "predictable" or "ordinary".

Brands may also represent identity signals. Research in psycholinguistics advocates that even apparently meaningfulness elements of language, such as letters, can hint at identity features. In particular, research by Brendl, Chattopadhyay, Pelham, Carvallo and Jones (2005: 405-415, as cited in Carnevale, et al. 2017: 582) has unveiled a subconscious propensity to prefer things that resemble oneself, including brand names that contain one's own name letters: this is why "Dimitri" unconsciously chooses "Dawn" dishwashing liquid and "Dove" chocolates rather than similar items beginning with letters other than "D". Equally noteworthy is Damak's research (1996, as cited in Carnevale et al. 2017: 582), which proved that perfume preferences are dominated by consumers' perceptions and satisfaction of their own bodies: individuals satisfied with their body shape tend to choose perfume bottles which physically reflect their own or ideal body shape.

Identity signals are invisibly present in trademarks such as iPhone, MySpace, YouTube (pronoun brand nomenclature). As a matter of fact, pronouns are quite powerful elements as concerns consumers' perceptions of brands (Wiebenga and

Fennis 2012: 733, as cited in Carnevale et al. 2017: 582). Research suggested that narrative self-referencing features, like the presence of "I" in brand names, spawns favorable consumer response, especially in the root word is a verb, e.g. iRead. The same is true when "my" is followed by a noun (e.g. myReader).

The fifth and last process is "connecting" to brands. In this regard the concepts of "brand attitude and attachment" and "brand community" are presented as factors whereby consumers relate to brands (Schmitt 2012: 7-17, as cited in Carnevale et al. 2017: 583). On the one hand, structural properties of the language, the mental frames activated and levels of accommodation, acculturation and attitude toward the language are especially relevant for brand attitude and attachment. On the other hand, brand community formation and reinforcement are influenced by the elements that make up the linguistic identity of a brand, by the linguistic identity of its community members, and by their levels of acculturation, accommodation, and attitude toward the language used.

Particularly relevant in the considerations around brand attitude is how the writing system of a language affects the perception of trademarks. More specifically, translation appears as having a key role in this process, since it actively shapes brand names and marketing communications. The matter is way more interesting when translation to and from a phonographic-based writing system, such as English, to and from a logographic-based one, such as Chinese, is taken into consideration. This happens in three main ways: using a phonetic-based strategy (by sound), a semantic one (by meaning), or a phonosemantic (by sound and meaning). One example of the first type is the Chinese term for Rolls-Royce, which sounds pretty close to its English counterpart, while, as regards the first type, the meaning is translated: General Electric was translated into Chinese as "Tong-yong-dian-qi", that is to say the exact translation of its original name. Examples of the third type are "Subway", translated into "sai-bai-wei", which also means "better than 100 tastes"; or "LinkedIn", which becomes "ling-ying" ("the leading elites"), and "Coca-Cola" as "Kekoukele" - "good to drink and to make you happy" (Zhang et al.: 2003, as cited in Carnevale, et al. 2017: 583).

Perceived accommodation is another aspect to dwell on, since is it quite probable that the belief by bilingual consumers that the advertiser is making an effort to communicate in their language and the perception of genuineness in this process has positive effects, for instance as regards the use of Spanish for U.S. Hispanics. It might be particularly interesting to examine the emphasis put by consumers in online comments in multilingual communication platforms, such as online consumer hotel reviews, based on the language in which the review is written. Such effect would probably depend on acculturation, accommodation attempts, or attitude toward that particular language.

As regards brand community, consumer-brand interactions within social media and crowd-sourced review websites are more and more important. The topic of language in these contexts has still not been studied thoroughly, while much could be done in terms of, for instance, the language Hilton hotels should use (Italian or English) to answer to Italian consumers' reviews when the consumer posted a heavily "accented" review on review websites. This probably depends on consumers' expectations on the type of language used by the brand or whether the brand is a multinational or not.

**Chapter 1 Conclusions**

Having analysed the main theoretical provisions, we can put forward the idea that business choices must be made with an eye for language and cultural differences. The goal of this chapter was to do a theoretical analysis of intercultural communication in business and marketing, and consequently to analyse some characteristics of the use of language in this field. More specifically, the topic of the globalization of the market has been explored, together with the features that characterize it. Such features are mostly determined by the characters that make up the market and their language, culture and ethical values. A reference to this should always be at the center of the planning strategy for entering international business. The company should avail itself of the help of native speakers and network with people living in the country it is trying to do business with, if it wishes to get exhaustive knowledge of the foreign countries' culture and to penetrate it. Reference to Hall's primary message systems and the three different levels at which they communicate has been made. Furthermore, it has been mentioned that cultural impacts on business communication typically appear in such areas silent language, values and attitudes, manners and customs. Some advantages and disadvantages of foreign culture and language ability have been provided and accompanied by pertaining examples. Just as importantly, the concepts of "closeness" and the implications of the establishment of a relationship of trust has also been taken into account. Moreover, the author analyzed the definition of marketing and its role in communicating values for potential customers. Besides, the three dimensions of interpersonal communication has been discussed and applied to the topic of marketing communication. A definition of intercultural marketing has been given, together with a digression on the differences between intercultural and international marketing (but also ethno-marketing and global marketing), which led to a subsequent reflection upon the influence of culture in marketing. Furthermore, the strategies of entering a foreign market with reference to culture have been analyzed. These are standardization and adaptation, which may eventually result in creolization. The introduction of the con-

cept of creolization is meant to make the marketer reflect on the fact that consumers are not just passively receiving standardized products but instead actively interpret, alter and judge the products in accordance with their own cultural background. To only stand for standardization or to adaptation as the international marketing strategy is an oversimplification, and the three concepts have been illustrated with the aid of several examples. Subsequently, an overview of the marketing discourse as a field of research has been given and references have been made to its evolution as a sub discipline of the economic discourse into what it is today. The author highlighted the need to introduce specific terms for the study of marketing language such as "linguistic marketing" and "reclamemics" in the scientific sphere. In addition to that, the author illustrated the trends of the development of marketing language, namely the fetishization of language and the rise of visuality; individualization and customization (and their two types); as well as the democratization of language made by consumers. The terms "impersonal bilingualism" and "linguascaping" have been defined. Plus, a few remarks on how it is possible to create value, that is to say through the two processes of segmentation and differentiation, have also been made. In conclusion, the last part of the study was devoted to the topic of brand identity, which was explored with the aid of Schmitt's model (2012: 7-17) and delineates the five main processes of "identifying brands", "experiencing brands"; "integrating brand information", "signifying the brand" and "connecting with the brand". Together with this, references to areas of linguistic inquiry such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and semiotics were made.

**Chapter 2 Practice**

**2.1 Linguistic features of the marketing discourse**

This chapter illustrates some of the features that characterize the marketing discourse. It must be said that the list is not meant to be exhaustive, but is rather a selection of some of the distinguishing features that may be interesting to consider when analyzing this topic.

Firstly, the prerequisite for the analysis is to assume that more and more attention today is paid to the issue of LSPs in multinational companies. As a result, translators' work in the business field is becoming an ongoing challenge. The studies on business language focus on specific features of the use of the language, which are now going to be briefly discussed. First of all, the presence of "false friends" is one of the aspects more often analyzed. This has to do with the influence of the English language in business and the fact that most business transactions are conducted in this language. In what concerns terminology, it is noteworthy to mention the study conducted by Pérez Berenguel (2003: 619, as cited in Konovalova and Ruiz Yepes 2016: 3) on the Spanish press and the correspondences in the use of English and Spanish. The author states that English words in the press are not substituted with Spanish counterparts. Instead, they are "morphologically related words" and "false friends" prevail ("subida dramática de los tipos de interés" instead of "subida importante/spectacular de los tipos de interés" for dramatic rises of interest rates). Although it should be noted that this phenomenon has nothing to do with Latin terms which were utilized at first in English in business contexts and secondly were quickly accepted in the Spanish business language (such as "futuros" for "futures" or "opciones" for "options"). There are also unnecessary anglicisms, that is to say English words which actually have equivalents in other languages but, for reasons of language economy, are widely accepted today ("leasing" instead of "alquiler con

opción a compra" or "marketing" instead of "comercialización") (Konovalova and Ruiz Yepes 2016: 3).

Broadly speaking, there are three main categories of marketing terminology which appear in economic texts and these are economic basic terminology, the terminology of statistics and mathematics and specific terms and compounds from the field of marketing. These are usually terms that can be classified thematically and are attached to the concepts of customer, consumer, buyer, products, services, brand, quality, price and loyalty. Linguists analyzed not only terminology, but also the theme-rheme structure and the occurrence of hypotaxes and parataxis in it, or the translation of metaphors and figures of speech. As discussed by Serón Ordóñez (2005: 205-249, as cited in Konovalova and Ruiz Yepes 2016: 4) in his study on the language combination English-Spanish using a parallel corpus, translators left over 70% percent of the English metaphors unchanged in the Spanish translations. The only cases in which the metaphor was paraphrased were for those relating to the field of navigation and shipping (20% of the cases) and animal and sports (the remaining 10%) (Konovalova and Ruiz Yepes 2016: 4).

The most noticeable features of marketing discourse are related to the terminological system it employs, but also its semantic and pragmatic characteristics. From a semantic perspective, specialized discourses, such as the marketing discourse, are characterized by monosemy and monoreferentiality, impersonality, conciseness and semantic precision. However, recent research proves that there are also several examples of synonymy and polysemy, which are traditionally avoided by specialized texts to dodge ambiguity and misunderstanding. By way of example, the legal terminology contains a number of synonyms - words used to refer fundamentally to one and the same concept, viz. "exemption", "exoneration", "discharge", "absolution" and "allowance" (Burcea 2014: 607).

Mention must be made of the few cases of what may be called perfect synonymy in the marketing discourse. As it is shown, synonymy in this case is not at the level of the isolated term, but at the syntagmatic level. For instance: affiliate market-

ing – associate marketing; family branding – umbrella branding; green marketing – environmental marketing – ecological marketing – eco marketing; house-to-house selling – door-to-door selling; industrial advertising – business-to-business advertising; institutional advertising – corporate advertising; mass marketing – undifferentiated marketing; permission marketing – pot-in marketing; person-to-person sales – personal selling; personalized marketing – one-to-one marketing – customized marketing – individual marketing; segmented marketing – differentiated marketing – multisegment marketing (Burcea 2014: 610).

The marketing discourse also contains a number of pseudo-synonyms, such as concentrated marketing, niche marketing and differentiated marketing. In fact, concentrated marketing refers to a market segmentation and market coverage strategy whereby a product is developed for a specific segment of the consumer population, whereas niche marketing is a marketing strategy that uses a small segment of a market instead of the whole market. Differentiated marketing is a market coverage strategy that consists in appealing to two or more clearly defined market segments with a specific product and unique market strategy tailored to each separate segment (Burcea 2014: 611-612).

One may also be confused by the apparent synonyms "viral marketing" and "word-of-mouth marketing". The first one is referred to as a technique used by companies to spread the news about a product through people's contacts. First of all, the company would send emails with a marketing message to a few known people, which would transform into a viral email campaign by encouraging people to forward the email to others. On the other side, word-of-mouth marketing is conceptually linked to viral marketing, although it is not constrained by the use of the internet (Burcea 2014: 611).

## 2.2 The three components of brand identity: brand names, logos and slogans

After having set the theoretical basis of brand linguistics in the first chapter of this study, the practical linguistic tools will now be analyzed. As a matter of fact, the aim of this chapter is to give a more practical understanding of the effects of language on certain features of brand identity. The three components of brand identity that are interesting to examine from a linguistic perspective are brand names, logos and slogans. Brand names are the fundamental component of brand identity: they contain verbal symbols like words, letters and numbers. The visual element of brand identity is the logo which consists of word marks and graphic symbols. The third element, the slogan, is a short sentence designed to define brand identity, but also to increase memorability for the brand (Miller, Darryl and Marshall Toman 2016: 475). The first part of this chapter will be devoted to brand names. As regards the second main feature of brand identity, logos, the author decided to restrict the analysis to the logo of one of the two companies chosen as a case study, namely Unilever, hence a brief analysis will be presented in the chapter devoted to the company. As for the third feature, slogans, several practical examples will be reported and analyzed. The analysis will also be applied to the most popular slogans of the second company chosen as a case study, namely IKEA, in its respective chapter.

First of all, let us examine brand names. Brand linguistics uses terms having meanings (denotative and connotative) that can create tangible effects on potential consumers of goods. Such effects depend on many factors, such as the denotative and connotative meaning of the chosen terms, but also on the phonosemantic characteristics. In this sense, the analysis will be restricted to the lexical items used in trademark naming, in accordance with specific marketing strategies. According to Perry and Wisnom's classification, brand names can be linguistically classified into: "eponymous names", "descriptive names", "acronyms", "figurative and evocative names", "real-world names", "portmanteaus" and "coined words" (Inchaurralde

2017: 382). Eponymous names are full names or family names (often of the owner or founder of the firm) such as, for instance, "John Deere", "Gucci", "Giorgio Armani". "Descriptive names", as the word says, describe a feature of the company and are sometimes in a language that may be not familiar to every customer, namely "General Electric" or "Telefonica". Moreover, "acronyms" are contractions of descriptive names e.g. "AT&T" or "IBM". "Real-world names" are terms having a meaning in a specific language, therefore the understanding of the language is an advantage, although not strictly necessary (e.g. "Apple"). Furthermore, they are short and phonetically simple terms that can be used in foreign markets with other languages. "Figurative and evocative names" are also linked to the comprehension of the language, they symbolize something in a certain language, but in this situation have a metaphorical meaning, for example: "Dove", "Sunlight" and "Dash". "Emotional names" are terms or expressions which attempt to trigger an emotion or a sense of involvement in the customer ("Excite" or "My Yahoo!"). "Portmanteaus" are artificial terms having more than one meaning, as "Microsoft". "Coined names" are new words, or words similar from a phonetical point of view to terms in a particular language: they can be meaningless ("Kodak"), descriptive ("ContentGuard", "Real Simple Magazine"), figurative ("Oxygen Television"), irreverent ("Pete's Wicked Ale"), emotional ("Excite"), personal ("My Yahoo!"). Sometimes they can evoke something else, like "Häagen-Dazs", which looks Scandinavian to American eyes, even though it is not (Inchaurralde 2017: 384-385).

As we can see, there are several factors and strategies at play when trying to convey a meaning. Trademarks can make use of emotions and evocative images (emotional, evocative and figurative names), sounds (meaningless names), but also verbal information (eponymous names, concrete and real-world names, descriptive and acronym names).

When a company decides to go global, the brand name is not a detail to underestimate. As a matter of fact, the brand name should be well-suited to brand naming strategies of other cultural and linguistic areas, or anyway do not denote inac-

ceptable images. However, the toughest task remains the one of conveying the same upshot in all markets.

An example from the automobile industry is "Renault Megane". In fact, the term "Megane" in Japanese means "glasses", and therefore is not exactly the most appropriate image to convey to a Japanese soon-to-be consumer. Another example is the "Nissan Pajero", which in the Spanish market would have an even worse outcome, since "Pajero" is a taboo word linked to sexual acts. This is why it has been renamed "Nissan Montero". As regards "Nissan Nova", the term would appear particularly fun to a Spanish speaking audience, since in Spanish "no va" means "it does not go/ it does not work" (Inchaurralde 2017: 384).

Another tricky aspect to consider is the phonetic suitability of certain terms in foreign languages. An example is "Schwarzkopf", a term that any Romance language speaker would undoubtedly find quite hard to pronounce. This is especially true for languages with limited phonetic systems, like Japanese, which allow only the C + V consonant combination and the final consonant in a syllable to be "n". Generally speaking, words with an elementary syllabic structure and with open vowels are perceived as phonosemantically easier (e.g. "Lada", "Nova", "Vega") (Inchaurralde 2017: 384).

As regards "eponymous names", the hook may be, as one may already guess, in the meanings words have in other languages or even in one's mother tongue. If one's surname is "Calvo" ("bald" in Spanish") it is advisable not to use it to sell hair care products. By the same token, words with the same meaning have different sounds in different languages and evoke dissimilar thoughts and imagines: for instance, the two surnames "Zapatero", Spain's former President of Government, and "Schumacher", famous F1 driver, both mean in English "shoemaker", although the connotations of these words as surnames are different in Spanish and German: while a Spanish speaker would probably not get the similarity, a German one certainly would. On the contrary, "descriptive names" such as "General Electric" lose their meaningfulness in other languages, that is also their distinguishing feature, if the

name of the trademark is not comprehensible. "Acronyms" may be equivalent to dictionary words in some languages and give birth to unexpected connotations. When this is not the case, connotation-free acronyms are more desirable to their full descriptive expression, which may be too long, e.g. "IBM", rather than "International Business Machines". In the same way, figurative and evocative names can be defined in this way only if they are intelligible. "Coined words" are usually artificial expressions that may not have a significance in the language of origin, but very often have a denotative or connotative implication. In addition to this, many coined words use Latin-based affixes or word structure to be more appealing internationally (e.g. Philip Morris's choice of the name "Altria") (Inchaurralde 2017: 385).

An interesting example to mention is the one of Telefonica, which is suitable to examine the evolution of a brand entering the international market. Telefonica is a Spanish telecommunications corporation, initially state-owned and privatized when Spain entered the EU, which underwent a number of changes of its trademark. The first modification to its original name, "Compañía Telefónica de España", was caused by its expansion in foreign markets, which led to the choice of the term "Telefónica". The latter is in fact much simpler and appeals to an international audience. Moreover, the word "telefónica" ("telephonic") is a word existing in Spanish. However, as an international trademark name, it looked like a coined name with a Latinized form. Afterwards, another change was made to the graphical stress mark, which disappeared in favor of "Telefonica", as we know is today, for the same reasons stated above (Inchaurralde 2017: 385).

A classification that could be mentioned as regards branding strategies in international business is the one of Botton, Ferrari and Cegarra (2002). They outline four main strategies that could be used, which are: standardization (the term remains unvaried in different cultures), transposition or translation (the term is translated), adaptation (depending on the target culture, a concept is expressed in different ways) and differentiation (the brand changes its name depending on the target culture). Examples of the four types will be discussed in one of the following chapters

of this paper, devoted to the analysis of the linguistic strategies of the brand Unilever.

Advertising slogans are another feature that helps building awareness of a company and persuade the consumer to buy a certain product. The aim of the slogans is to attract the attention of the target audience to the products advertised, to create emotional images and to help memorizing the company's message. Short, creative and memorable slogans are made with the use of several phonetic, syntactical, lexicosemantic devices (Malyuga, Radyuk and Tsagolova 2018: 270)

Phonetic devices, such as alliteration, anaphora, epistrophe, rhyme and assonance help the consumer better remember the slogan. Examples of alliteration are: "Beautiful and Beneficial" (Neutrogena), "Experience the sinister side of Bourbon" (Jim's Beam), "Trust only in true values. T-collection" (Tissot Watches). Examples of anaphora are: "Real health. Real beauty" (Glow, Australian Beauty and Health magazine), "It's naughty. It's diet Nestea" (Nestea). Examples of epistrophe are: "There is no V in wodka, authentic vodka from Poland is called wodka" (Wodka Wyborowa). Or rhymes, such as: "Don't get vexed. Ask teletext" (Teletext), "High and Dry for those who sky" (Wigwam mills), "Love the skin you are in" (Olay). Last but not least, assonance: "The art of craft. The craft of art" (IWC), "Cannon – You can" (Cannon).

Ellipses, parallelisms, inversions and parcellation are syntactical features that can be seen in slogans. The first one allows the slogan to be short while highlighting only its most relevant elements. In other terms, omitting a term suggests the implicit comprehension of the consumer, who may also be induced to buy the product, e.g. "For a close comfortable shave" (Grunding Groomer), "Keeps you informed" (Grundic). To give rhythm to the slogan, parallelisms or parallel constructions are used, often in combination with phonetic devices, e.g. "So soft. So warm. So light" (Australian cotton), "Maybe she's born with it. Maybe it's Maybelline" (Maybelline NY) (Malyuga, Radyuk and Tsagolova 2018: 271). Inversions, like "Impossible is nothing" (Adidas), violate the established and logical order of words in a sentence,

thus giving an emotional touch to the slogan. "Parcelation" is a device particularly used in motivational slogans. It intentionally does not take into consideration the logic behind punctuation, such as "Minds. Wide open" (Goldman watch).

Lexicosemantic devices include the use of idioms "May the Forks be with you" (Oregano's pizza bistro), colloquialisms "An app for browsing someone's emotions" (Patron Tequila), epithets "Life has never been so colorful" (SONY camera), metaphors "Live unbuttoned" (Levi's jeans), similes "Nothing can do it like McDonald's" (McDonalds), metonymy "Open happiness" (Coca-cola), allusions "The lord of the drinks" (Tuborg beer) and "Someone's been on Shakesbeer" (Church End Brewery), hyperbola "I'd rather die of thirst than drink from the cup of mediocrity" (Stella Artois) and "We don't just outperform the competition, we outsmart them" (Subaru car), neologisms "Catisfaction" (Kitkat), "Chexellent, or what?" (Frosted Chex) (Malyuga, Radyuk and Tsagolova 2018: 272-273).

## 2.3 Case studies

As thoroughly highlighted in the first chapter of this analysis, devoted to the basic theoretical provisions, the impact that culture and language have on business can not only be huge, but it can also determine the complete failure or success of an entire company. What would happen, then, if a company underestimated the relevance of culture and what would happen, on the contrary, if a company implemented the right strategies to appeal to cultures which are completely different from one another? In other words, what impact do standardization and adaptation have on business and what impact does the use of language have in general?

Examples of companies operating outside their country of origin and having to opt for either standardization, adaptation or a mixture of the two strategies are countless. Apart from the examples already provided in the theoretical part, the next chapter will deal with two companies, Ikea and Unilever. The first one is taken as an

example to discuss the topic of standardization and adaptation, that is to say, of the two different business, marketing and communication strategies that companies can embrace in their foreign operations.

Once again, as highlighted in the theoretical provisions, the linguistic strategies implemented to differentiate brands and products of companies may also play an important role in the success of a business. In particular, we will ask ourselves the following questions: does marketing and translation choices have an influence on consumers? Are diverse communication strategies used for diverse product types? In order to explore the first topic, the analysis will mostly take inspiration from Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc's (2011) paper and from Lewis's book (2004) on the Swedish retail company IKEA; whereas the second one will make use of Nacchia and Massaro's paper (2017) performed on the Anglo-Dutch multinational goods company Unilever, to prove the necessity of brands to be cultural and linguistic mediators in a global, interconnected market.

### 2.3.1 Case study: IKEA

In the following study, the example of IKEA, a global retailer commonly recognized as having a standardized approach in foreign markets, has been chosen in order to assess the degree of adaptation or standardization of its four main retail marketing activities (merchandise, location and store format, the selling and service environment and market communication) in three different countries, namely Sweden, the UK and China. The analysis of Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc's (2011) is quite relevant for this paper, since it puts forward the idea that standardization should be intended as replicating the core concept a company builds its image on and not its activities. The data of the analysis at issue was collected with the aid of interviews with senior managers over 2005 and 2008, in-country consumer research, consultancy reports, third party observations, company documentation, newspapers

and magazine articles. To the purpose of the present paper, only the gist of the analysis is reported, as follows: first comes a definition of the main retail marketing activities of IKEA (in other words, its marketing mix), which will be followed by an assessment of its corporate vision, which in turn will be followed by the analysis of its strategy in the three countries.

To begin with, a brief definition of the four elements making up the marketing mix will be outlined:

- The *merchandise* involves creating an appealing assortment of products in the store, selecting retailer brands and setting a pricing strategy;
- The *location and store formats* denote where outlets and stores are situated or their dimension;
- The *selling and service environment* outlines the general layout, quality of service and atmosphere of the outlets and stores;
- The *market communication* comprises advertising and promotional tools, including catalogues and other PR activities (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 7).

Founded in 1943, the IKEA Group now employs more than 131,000 co-workers in about 41 countries, with more than €24.7 billion in revenues. The brand name is, according to the classification of brand names (Inchaurralde 2017: 386) an "acronym" which stands for the initials of the founder, Ingvar Kamprad, the farm on which he grew up, Elmtaryd and the nearby village, Agunnaryd.

Another relevant feature of IKEA's brand identity, apart from its brand name, are the many slogans used. Therefore, a brief linguistic analysis of IKEA's slogans will be made, in order to provide not only the analysis of the cultural features of the company, but also a linguistic analysis of one of its main communication tools, that is to say slogans.

In order to do this, several slogans that make up IKEA's communication have been collected and classified on the basis of their linguistic features. The phonetic

devices discovered in IKEA's slogans are alliteration ("The softer side of life", "Storage solutions"), anaphora "We do not care about furniture, we care about homes", "Decorate for comfort, decorate for style", rhyme "They'll look good on your wood", "Spend time cooking - not looking". Some syntactical devices have been found, especially ellipses "No overcharges", "Time for an upgrade", "Makes Royalty simple" and parallelisms "We do not care about furniture, we care about homes", "New lower prices same great quality", "Absolutely familiar - entirely free", "Decorate for comfort - decorate for style", "Democratic designs for everyday solutions". Examples of lexicosemantic devices are: colloquialisms, such as "Hoorah for the everyday", "Come check out our stool samples", "Hey kids go play inside", "Need space?", "Time for an upgrade", "Get organized"; hyperbola "Your comfort means the world to us", "If you got your furniture for a lesser price we'll tell the police"; use of idioms "We give a hand to make you shop better", "New wonders come out of the blue"; metaphors "Make room for life", "Ring in more sales", "Redecorate your life", "Where the everyday begins", "Where life happens"; puns/paronomasia: "Time to get your sheets together", "Go from couch potato to couch avocado".

To move to another topic, IKEA's unique approach to business is clearly visible when reading its corporate vision, as reported:

"Our vision is to create a better everyday life for the many people – for customers, but also for our co-workers and the people who work at our suppliers." […] "to offer a wide range of well-designed, functional home furnishing products at prices so low, that as many people as possible will be able to afford them." […] "That means we need to create products that have a beautiful design, good function, are sustainable, of good quality and are available at a low price. We call it "Democratic Design", because we believe good home furnishing is for everyone."

From this statement stems the idea of IKEA's standardized approach: that is to say to provide everyone with the same perception of the company. This can be done, first of all, by setting a merchandise strategy, which allows the company to

have a low position in terms of price, in comparison to their competitors, in diverse markets. As regards the location and store format, IKEA makes use of large stores on the cities' periphery and has an assortment of 7,500/10,000 products. The same shopping experience is can be offered by providing the same layout and design, number of departments etc. Service levels are intended to be the same around the world with similar staffing levels everywhere. The catalogue is an important feature of the company's communication and is done in such a way as to make only minor adjustments for different countries.

It all points to the conclusion that IKEA has a greatly standardized business approach. However, the "rhetoric" of the company is far from what happens "on the ground". Before starting the analysis, just out of curiosity, some of the challenges that IKEA faced in other countries, like Japan and Russia, will be mentioned, as this may give a general idea of what it meant for IKEA to go global. In Japan, for instance, the highly competitive market, which would have copied the IKEA concept to "make it even better" (as in the Japanese style) represented a great burden; as well as quality-oriented customers, giving high importance to something that has never been IKEA's priority, namely the packaging; or the small and crowded Japanese homes, which do not have any space left for new furniture (Jonsson 2008: 29). Whereas in Russia, IKEA dealt with issues such as high import duties, the relationship with bureaucratic authorities and the need to develop a retail culture in Russia (Jonsson 2008: 28).

The aim of the next steps is to highlight the ways in which the four main retail marketing activities are adjusted in Sweden, the UK, and China (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 10). This is done keeping in mind that, although the Swedish retailer is global, it creates its marketing with the aid of small, autonomous local agencies, having a first-hand knowledge of local customs and humor (Lewis 2004: 120).

## 2.3.2 IKEA in Sweden, the UK and China

In the Swedish market, IKEA's penetration is quite palpable. On the one hand, it means that the company's vision to make its products for "the many people" has proved successful, on the other hand, too many people are already well acquainted with the brand, with the risk that it may result in a "boring" furnishing style. Furthermore, the "on the ground" target on the Swedish market is not "the many people", but rather women, mostly with children, aged between 20-49 years old, or childless people over 55 years old and financially stable.

The core aspects of merchandise in Sweden are low prices which are kept low in comparison to the competition by cutting prices as the key marketing strategy. Furthermore, the stores are relatively small and offer only 6 to 7,000 items (out of the 10,000 types of the assortment's products), although it is possible to make local adjustments.

The stores are mostly located on the outskirts and put at the clientele's disposal a large parking lot on the outside: clients, in fact, are thought to use their cars to get to the stores. Even if it is fairly easy to find lots to build IKEA stores in the country, competition with other retailers is the norm.

The stores are the place where the customers can experience the "IKEA concept", thus the importance of the selling and service environment. Still, only the biggest stores, such as the "Kungens Kurva" store in Stockholm, offer an access to the full assortment. As regards the store's layout, the blueprint is often the standard starting point. The "Do it yourself" (or DIY) concept is quite successful in Sweden: most customers collect their items and assemble them at home, in return for a lower price. However, home delivery and assembly services are available for a fee. The customer satisfaction survey is still widely used in order to identify the main issues customers may have experienced.

As regards the market communication, the most relevant promotional tool in Sweden is the catalogue and large PR events are organized to support the launch of a new catalogue, as the furnishing of the waiting hall of the Stockholm's terminal in 2008. Together with the catalogue, the web is also a useful tool for the customers, since it serves as an information tool to increase knowledge of the IKEA concept and for planning the visit. The overall approach to the Swedish market highlights values such as genuineness and humanity, the tone of voice is fun and youthful. It must be acknowledged that the great familiarity that customers have with the brand makes a "re-launch" of the brand's image more than necessary, for the purpose of appearing new and exciting, surprising and different. Not by chance, the advertising strap-lines "Decorate your home as you want to live" and "Long live diversity" are examples of the approach adopted in 2008. Other examples to understand the approach IKEA has towards Swedish customers is the advertising campaign that reads "Better divorce for everybody", aiming at addressing the target of divorced parents, or the "Not for the rich but for the wise", which features customers belonging to different ethnic groups and reflects the current trend in Sweden's population (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 14).

Having analysed the position of IKEA in the Swedish market, the study will now focus on the British one, which represents one of the company's major markets.

In fact, IKEA has about 18 stores in the UK and a history that is thus far longer than thirty-four years, since it entered this market in 1987. Since then, its main target has been middle class women with children. The analysis will once again focus on the strategies adopted for every element of the marketing mix, which are, truth be told, quite similar to the Swedish ones. With respect to the merchandise, the idea of low prices and good quality is the most recurrent one, being the main focus of the company in the British market too. As concerns the location and store format, most stores are located on the outskirts, adjusted for car use and usually on two floors. The analysis of the selling and service environment spotted some dissatisfaction among British consumers, for example a difficult access to the stores and lim-

ited availability of products, which may be often out of stock. This is due to the fact that only 18 stores are present in the country to serve 60 million people (compared to the 17 stores per 9 million people in Sweden). As regards the price, the CSI results suggest that low prices and good quality standards are respected. The "Do it yourself" concept is widely spread too, although assembly and delivery services are provided upon request of the population (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 14-16).

The main tool of the market communication is the catalogue which is responsible for the 70% budget expenditure. Although the high cost of this tool, used to reach a much wider audience (the UK population), arouses doubts on its effectiveness. The web is therefore another fundamental tool to get information about the availability of products. As regards the company's advertising, what is quite surprising is its bold approach which aims at challenging some deep-rooted British habits. In the case of the UK, this meant just one thing: the chintz. As a matter of fact, the modern, cold Scandinavian furniture was not thought to be successful in the land of floral chintzy patterns and warm-colored furniture. However, since IKEA's philosophy is to change the people rather than the product (Lewis 2004: 123-124), as to penetrate in every country with the same "standardized" idea, the solution to this arrived with a series of campaigns aimed at making consumers value and take more care of their houses, thanks to the good quality products the company offers and to the "being different" ideal. For example, the campaign "Chuck out your Chintz", or the "Stop being so English" make fun of British habits in terms of furniture and design, and, eventually, successfully persuaded people to review their tastes in terms of home design. The "Chuck out your Chintz" ad became so popular, that even politicians and newspapers started satirizing on Tony Blair's policy "Tough on crime, tough on the causes of crime" with the sentence: "Tony Blair –tough on chintz, tough on the causes of chintz" (Lewis 2004: 126). Another example of IKEA's style is the way it jokes with the reputation of "hard" men typical of men from Glasgow: the "Discover your softer side" campaign, which was used during the launching of a

store in Glasgow, shows two Glasgow "hard men" becoming "softer" when buying IKEA's pink pillows (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 17).
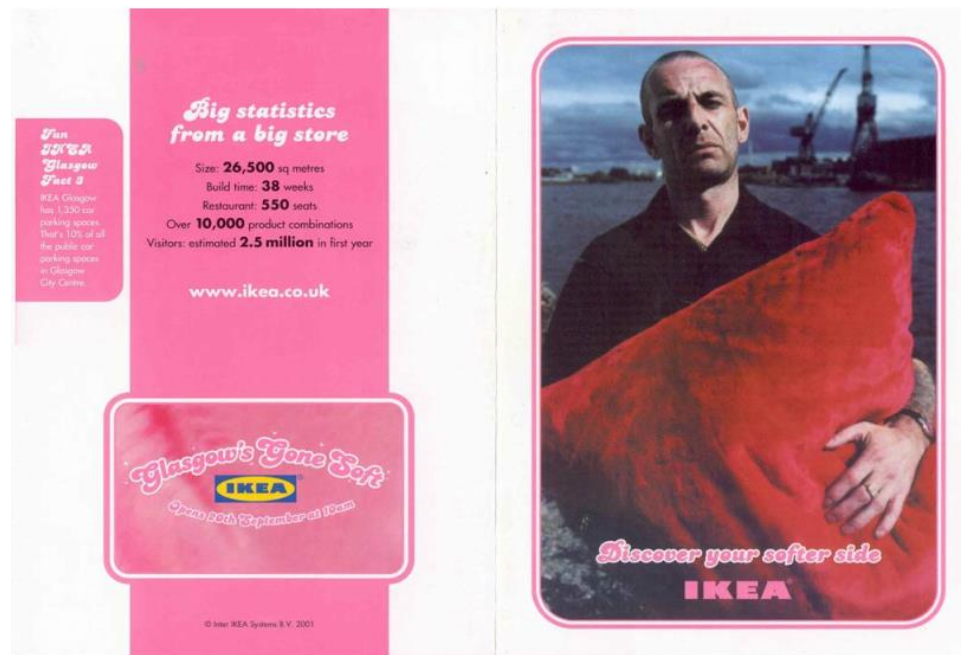


Fig. 1 [1]

However, the approach that IKEA used in Europe could not work in China. As a matter of fact, some differences can be appreciated even in the allegedly "standardized" IKEA approach. The first to acknowledge the difficulties of entering this market is Ingvar Kamprad himself, who, as reported by Lewis (2004: 32), writes on a letter dated 5th of April 2004:

"The money we make, we need. We need it to continue to develop, to serve as a financial buffer for rainy days, and to be able to work with long-term intentions in markets which make losses to start with, but which we know can produce good results over a longer perspective. Russia and China are two good examples of this." (Lewis 2004: 32).

---

[1] IKEA print brochure in the UK (Scotland)
https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0969698910000998 (31.03.2021)

Nevertheless, the potential of the nascent Chinese market is immense and plunging into it proved to be an excellent idea. IKEA opened its first store in Shanghai in 1998 and a second one in Beijing one year later. In 2003, the new redesigned Shanghai store (33,000m², four times larger than the previous version) attracted around 80,000 shoppers only on its first day (Lewis 2004: 167). IKEA is perceived by the Chinese as an innovative company (square tables, instead of round ones, or the use of colors are just examples). "IKEA", pronounced "Yi Jia", evokes positive connotations in the mind of the consumer and its translation gives "desirable for home living/comfortable home". The brand enjoys considerable awareness, especially among people aged 15-55 (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 20).

The merchandise is definitely an element that puts at risk IKEA's core values in China. As already stated, the low prices are a key feature of the company's image, although keeping the brand perception in line with this element is not easy in a country where prices are among the lowest in the world. This is why IKEA is rather perceived as a middle-high class, exclusive western retailer. In order to address this issue and not to lose the whole IKEA principle, the company can only try to cut prices even more. This was done by abandoning the centralized sourcing approach, which implied sourcing from European countries (also subject to import taxes), in favor of locally sourced, made in China products. An example in this sense is the price of the "Klippan" sofa, which was imported and sold at a price of 7000 RMB when the company entered China, and reached a 999 RMB when produced in China (Jonsson 2008: 28). As for 2006, about half of the products in the Chinese stores were produced locally and this made prices fall by an outstanding 30% since 2003, and sometimes even by 90% (The Wall Street Journal, March 3, 2006).

Another big deal are the well-established counterfeit practices characterizing the country. People scribbling down descriptions and taking pictures of the merchandise are scenes that are easy to be seen in many stores. Sadly, counterfeiters are helped in doing this, since the catalogue and the brochures are useful instruments making it even easier for the competitors to copy the products. IKEA, however, has

cleverly faced the problem with shifting the attention of its market communication not into the products themselves, but into the unique home design and style that only IKEA can devise. In fact, the decorating ideas are less easy to copy and require a set of technical skills: this allows IKEA to position itself in the market as a company delivering exclusive interior design competences. Functionality is another key feature of its brand position, as opposed to the "traditional" approach of other Chinese furniture manufacturers.

The assortment does not substantially differ from other countries, however three products were introduced in 1998 only for the Chinese market, namely a cleaver, a wok with a lid and chopsticks. The same products are now available in every store around the globe. The dimensions of the beds a slightly different (190cm instead of 200cm). Finally, since the balcony occupies an essential role in Chinese culture, the company chose to pay special attention to this, by building a balcony section in its stores, which is usually not present in the European stores (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 18-20).


Location and store formats also present some differences. First of all, stores are unusually located closer to the city center and close to public transportation, which ensures that more customers will be able to get to the stores. For instance, the store in Shanghai is very close to public transportation and counts more than 700 parking lots under the store, which probably means that shopping patterns are going to change in the future. This is also due to the fact that the Chinese clientele often uses delivery and home assembly services, which are offered by both IKEA and local entrepreneurs outside the stores. Last but not least, the largest stores are to be found in this country, given that they generally have three times the volume of visitors than the stores in any other country (the store in Beijing usually welcomes 20,000 customers per day, which equals 6 million people a year, compared to the usual 2 million people a year in a normal store) (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 21-22).

The first things that may be noticed about the selling and service environment is that, whereas product range is quite similar internationally, the stores appear way more different. Why is that? The main reason is that room settings, in order to be appealing, must also be relevant to the medium consumer: sizes of the rooms must be realistic, culturally relevant rooms, such as the balconies, must be integrated and so on. The shopping experience is quite dissimilar too: the stores are also widely used for socialization or to experience the "being at home" sensation, rather than shopping: the relaxed atmosphere makes customers feel free to have a nap on the sofa, read a book, or fall asleep on the beds. This caused quite a lot of problems for the company, which allegedly introduced a ban to sleep on its beds.



Fig.2[2]

Moreover, the customer satisfaction index in China is lower than average. This is due to the fact that the enormous quantity of people visiting the stores makes it rather difficult to score high on criteria, for example, such as helpfulness of the staff and waiting times.

Whereas the "Do it yourself" strategy was a key to success in Sweden and in other European countries, this concept seems to be alien in China: many people do not have the tools at home to assemble the furniture and are not willing to go to the

[2] "IKEA: a rebellion in flat-pack": https://www.ft.com/content/ae774248-05bf-11e8-9e12-af73e8db3c71 (18.02.2021)

warehouse to find the products. Instead, they usually employ someone to do this for them, since labor is quite cheap and make use of the extra services provided by the company. As a result, the core concept of IKEA creates quite a lot of confusion in the mind of the Chinese customers, since they are asked to buy an expensive product (compared to the competitors) and to assemble it alone (unlike from the offer of the competitors). This is why IKEA employ hostesses to walk around the store with customers and to explain the company's DIY business idea to them. The last problem that affects IKEA in China is the long lead time of products' shipping from Europe: this led to the need to sell only what is physically present in the store and not in the catalogue, and afterwards to the need to increase domestic production by building warehouses in the country (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 21-23).

Concerning the market communication, the crucial feature distinguishing the approach used in Europe and the Chinese one is the catalogue. Since the latter is highly difficult and costly to distribute in China, communication activities mostly rely on flyers being distributed a number of times during the year and which equally aim at illustrating the IKEA "feeling". The "out of the box" thinking distinguishing the company from its competitors is plain in China too: some PR activities involved asking Chinese journalists to go to Sweden in order to be taught about the company's ideology, or filming TV-shows which would give home design lessons to their viewers. However, the advertising campaigns in China do not stand out so much, but are rather "softer", in the sense that they are not made to shock the consumer, but rather focus primarily on displaying home furnishing and educating the consumer. A typical advertisement is the following:

Fig. 3[3]

As we can see, on a classic cement-and-tile balcony with laundry and news-papers a man is sitting on a modern, red and upholstered chair. The text of the ad-vert, "Small changes, a refreshing new life" is emblematic of the IKEA strategy in this country, and is aimed at suggesting that life can be made better step-by-step, in simple and cheap ways. This is also in contrast with the typical "all or nothing" ap-proach that the Chinese tend to have when planning on refurbishing their houses, according to Charles Sampson, CEO of the advertising firm that creates content for IKEA China (Miller 2004: 38). As well as in other countries, the website is another important tool for helping the consumer to get acquainted with the company.

Having examined how cultural features influenced the business choices of IKEA, before moving to the analysis of another well-known brand, Unilever, a lin-guistic analysis of IKEA's slogans will be made, since they represent another fea-ture of IKEA's brand identity, apart from its brand name.

In order to do this, several slogans that make up IKEA's communication have been collected and classified on the basis of their linguistic features. The phonetic devices discovered in IKEA's slogans are alliteration ("The softer side of life",

---

"Storage solutions"), anaphora "We do not care about furniture, we care about homes", "Decorate for comfort, decorate for style", rhyme "They'll look good on your wood", "Spend time cooking - not looking". Some syntactical devices have been found, especially ellipses "No overcharges", "Time for an upgrade", "Makes Royalty simple" and parallelisms "We do not care about furniture, we care about homes", "New lower prices same great quality", "Absolutely familiar - entirely free", "Decorate for comfort - decorate for style", "Democratic designs for everyday solutions". Examples of lexicosemantic devices are: colloquialisms, such as "Hoo-rah for the everyday", "Come check out our stool samples", "Hey kids go play in-side", "Need space?", "Time for an upgrade", "Get organized"; hyperbola "Your comfort means the world to us", "If you got your furniture for a lesser price we'll tell the police"; use of idioms "We give a hand to make you shop better", "New wonders come out of the blue"; metaphors "Make room for life", "Ring in more sales", "Redecorate your life", "Where the everyday begins", "Where life happens"; puns/paronomasia: "Time to get your sheets together", "Go from couch potato to couch avocado".

As regards the conclusions that can be drawn from the analysis of IKEA's business strategies, many comments can be made. First of all, compared to other re-tailers, IKEA seems to be more attached to its original business model and to accept only partial alterations to the perfect mix of low price, DIY, centralized sourcing, unique and innovative design. However, it seems that, to be true to one's business concept, adaptation is the strategy mostly needed. In fact, the initial self-reference criteria and European ethnocentric approach will have made life quite unbearable for IKEA in such culturally distant markets as the Chinese one. This is not only true for the "visible" aspects of the business, like the marketing and communication as-pects, but also for the "invisible" ones, like the sourcing and the supply chain. In fact, if IKEA did not review its centralized sourcing in China, it would have not been able to keep prices lower than its competitors. Doing business in distant coun-tries is an extreme challenge that will give positive results only if the geographically

and culturally distant customer is listened to. A substantial difference can be noticed between how IKEA portrays itself and how its strategy is executed "on the ground": the standardized retail concept has to be adapted to the local market conditions, the merchandise assortment is chosen from the overall product assortment and varies locally. To mention but an example, the catalogue may not be so essential in every market as it may seem. The catalogue itself should present deviations from the core template: in "newer" markets there should be more information about IKEA as a whole, its concept, and how to shop at IKEA, for instance (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 24-25). The room-setting displays, the layout of the store and the presentation of the goods need to be adapted to reflect local housing and living conditions, rather than following a centralized formula. This might, for example, mean smaller rooms in some countries and more cultural cues in others. To conclude, replicating the concept and not the activities appears to be the best choice for success (Burta, Johansson and Thelanderc 2011: 28-29). Last but not least, the analysis of IKEA's slogans has shown the presence of several linguistic devices at a phonetic, syntactical and lexicosemantic level, which, as stated in the theoretical chapter, are a useful tool to implement in order to reach the company's goals (for instance, memorability and awareness).

### 2.3.3 Case Study: Unilever

In this chapter, the features of brand communication and the linguistic tools companies use to influence the consumer's choices will be described. The considerations are mostly made from a linguistic and a marketing perspective. The analysis is performed on the Anglo-Dutch multinational goods company Unilever and it firstly focuses on a brief description of the company and of its brand identity and core values. Secondly, an English-Italian contrastive analysis is performed with the aid of a corpus of 132 Italian terms, collected from the company's online shop in January 2017. The terms related to the products' names are analysed for the English-Italian

language pair from a graphemic/phonetic, morphological/syntactical, semantic and lexical dimension (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 169).

Unilever is the result of the merger of Lever Brothers, a British manufacturing company, and Margarine Unie (in English: Margarine Union), a Dutch company which produced margarine. Nowadays, Unilever expanded to become a world-famous multinational, it includes 400 brands and is present in more than 190 countries. The company's sphere of activity encompasses all products related to food, home and personal care goods. Moreover, the core values of Unilever are mostly ethical and moral ones: most of them are connected to sustainability, improving health and well-being, nutrition, enhancing inclusivity and fairness in the workplace. The company's corporate vision is "to make sustainable living commonplace". The following paragraph, taken by the company's website, is a powerful summary of Unilever's vision of today's world, and of the problems it is prone to overcome:

"We want to do more good for our planet and our society – not just less harm. We want to act on the social and environmental issues facing the world and we want to enhance people's lives with our products"

First of all, it must be said that Unilever's ethical approach is also visible in the choice of the language. As a matter of fact, in order to address the issue of the tone of skin that Asian women are taught to try to emulate by their society, that is to say that of an even-toned, light skin, Unilever decided to start from the words it uses on its labels. The brand is now moving to "more inclusive language on labels" (Conti 2020: 6) and plans to retool its language, by removing words such as "white" or "whitening" from skin-care products, evoking skin-bleaching properties, but also to change the name of the product "Fair & Lovely" sold in Asia. The aim of this approach is to promote a more inclusive vision of beauty, a beauty that does not imply looking more "Western" and having a light skin. This will also mean including in the advertising women with different skin tones and promoting women empowerment. In other words, this is the proof that ethical decisions also go through language choices.

Fig.4 [4]

The communication tools of the company (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 173) are wide and varied. The first one that will be analysed is its logo, followed by an example of its communication on YouTube, its partnerships and Unilever's bodies and institutions.

Unilevers' logo consist of a U (the first letter of the brand name) made up of 26 symbols related to the categories of sustainability, environmental awareness, health, future, communication and transparency. To mention just some of them, the logo is made up of a hand (representing care and sensitivity), a dove (indicating freedom and confidence), particles (for innovation and research), a bee (indicating hard work and nature), etc. In support of the idea that "when you choose Unilever, you help create a bright future", the video "So long old world" was released, featuring a young girl talking about a new, inspiring world, where inequalities and low self-esteem no longer exist.

---

[4] Unilever by Hotli Simanjuntak/EPA-EFE/Shutterstock

http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=144295336&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site  (01.03.2021)

Global partnerships are considered by the company a relevant tool to reach its mission. Well-known partners of Unilever are, for instance, WWF, Global Food Banking Network, Vaseline and UN Women. Another element of its communication is the establishment of bodies and institutions for promoting research, which are another key strategy of Unilever's communication. Some examples are: the "Unilever Health Institute", the "Unilever Nutrition Centre" and the "Unilever Nutrition and Health Academy". Last but not least, the online platform "Unilever Bright Future" aims at engaging people as a means to perform an "act of sunlight", or a contribution to the creation of a healthier and nondiscriminatory planet (e.g. making donations, sharing ideas…) (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 174).

In order to perform a linguistic analysis of Unilever's linguistic strategies, Nacchia and Massaro's study examined brands sold both in Italy and in the UK, that is to say: Axe, Cif, Comfort, Dove and Knorr. Brands and products available on Unilever's Italian and English online shops are compared on the basis of their graphemic/phonetic, morphological/syntactical, lexical and semantic features. At the end of this analysis, it will be possible to draw conclusions on which linguistic dimensions are mostly exploited to reach customers, if there is a relevant difference in branding strategies in the two countries and if branding strategies change from product to product.

The graphemic and phonetic analysis gave some interesting results that differentiate the strategy adopted in the English and in the Italian markets. The first example is the one of the fabric softeners of the brand "Comfort", which offers multi-pack refill pouches (or saver packs), aiming at reducing their environmental impact. This is a good example of the use of marketing and linguistic tools to promote brand strategy. Whereas in the English packages the product simply reads the terms mentioned above, there is a shift of focus in the Italian version. As a matter of fact, another goal of the multi-packs, which in the Italian version also read the word "€co-pack" on their packages, is to try to create associations between the word "pack", containing the product, and the word "eco". In Italian, the strategy has a double ef-

fect: it may refer to "ecosostenibile" (eco-friendly, sustainable) and to "economico" (cheap). Put differently, €co shortens two words and does it playing with the ambiguous form of the euro currency, by substituting "e" with "€" (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 176). This is not only possible given the form of the currency used in most European countries, but also given the fact that the Italian consumer can more immediately associate the term with the commonly used "economico" than an English-speaking consumer. On the contrary, the latter would rather associate it with "economic"[5] which does not refer to convenience, or to the term "economical"[6], which is less commonly used than the words "cheap", "convenient", "low-cost" and "inexpensive" in daily conversations, but also in marketing. The sentence "formato risparmio" ("convenience pack") clarifies the benefits of the product once more. Nevertheless, a similar form of word play is the "saver pack", which hints at saving both money and the environment.



Fig.5[7]



Fig.6[8]

---

[5] According to the Online Oxford Learner's Dictionary: "connected with the trade, industry and development of wealth of a country, an area or a society" (21.02.2021)
https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/economic?q=economic (21.02.2021)
[6] According to the Online Oxford Learner's Dictionary: "providing good service or value in relation to the amount of time or money spent"
https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/economical?q=economical
(21.02.2021)
[7] Comfort, saver pack https://www.amazon.in/Comfort-After-Fabric-Conditioner-Pouch/dp/B07M7KGJZL (02.04.2021)

Another example of the use of graphemic devices is the one of Dove's "in-DermaSpa Goodness" which, with the use of commas, highlights the three benefits that the product gives to the consumer: "Luminous. Even. Velvety soft. Triply glorious skin." In the mind of the consumer, the product should seem as giving not only one, but even three benefits, enabling to fulfill three needs at once. In the Italian version, however, the commas are not used: "Luminosa, uniforme e vellutata. Una pelle tre volte bellissima." (translated literally, it sounds as follows: "Luminous, even and velvety. A three-times-beautiful skin.") (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 176).

The third example is the one of "Dove Men+Care". As in mathematics, the sign + conveys the idea of numeric addition. Thus the word "care" can be thought of as a distinguishing feature of a product destined only to "men", which stresses the belonging to the area of beauty products, even if the product is for men and is not, against all odds, for women. Vice versa, "DermaSpa Uplifted+" almost certainly refers to the qualitative, and not quantitative, preeminence of the product, which is also inferable from its description. In the Italian version, the description of the product reads "per una maggiore compattezza ed elasticità" ("for greater firmness and elasticity"), hence the idea of the graphic sign is clearly verbally stated with the word "greater" (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 176-177).

An interesting example of the phonetic dimension is the one of Comfort's product "Blue Skies", which clearly refers to Irving Berlin's jazz song of 1926. The song, throughout the years, was given new life with various adaptations. The rhythm and lyrics convey ideas of freshness and vividness that perfectly match with the ideas that consumers should associate with cleaning products. Ergo, what should the marketing team do in a country where "Blue Skies" do not create any visible cultural associations, like Italy? Although a clear blue sky may evoke a positive image that can be used in this case, the name of the product has been translated as "Aria di Primavera" (spring air) which instead may arouse associations with other popular

---

[8] Coccolino, Aria di primavera – Eco pack https://www.amazon.it/coccolino-ammor-ecoricarica-700-ml-Classico/dp/B01M136THD (02.04.2021)

and familiar Italian songs, such as "Primavera" by Marina Rei, in order to have the same effect on the Italian consumer (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 177).



Fig.7[9]                                                      Fig.8[10]

The morphological and syntactical analysis has been performed on both the name of the brand and on the name of some products. The name of the brand is an example of "blending" which is the creation of a new word (Unilever) out of two former ones (Unie, from Margarine Unie, and Lever, from Lever Brothers). The surname Lever is also an example of recategorization of a patronymic transformed into a brand name. According to the classification of brand names reported by Inchaurralde (2017: 386), it is an "eponymous name", since it comprises a family name (Lever), but also a "descriptive name" (Unie), resulting eventually in a "coined name" (Unilever). The same applies to the brand name "Knorr", which comes from the name of the company's owner, Carl Heinrich Knorr. As regards the morphological analysis on brand names, the only pertinent example is the one of "DermaSpa", which in the Italian version is separated, resulting in "Derma Spa".

The results of the syntactical analysis showed that many Unilever's descriptions of products are built on the construction adjective + noun. This is the case of

---

[9] Comfort, Blue skies https://www.comfortworld.co.uk/products/catalog/comfort-blue-skies-fabric-conditioner-21-wash-750ml.html (19.02.2021)

[10] Coccolino, Aria di primavera https://www.amazon.fr/Coccolino-Ammorbienne-Primavera-Adoucissant-concentr%C3%A9/dp/B07S2RNDGV (02.04.2021)

Dove's products, which read "gentle exfoliating", "fresh touch", "fresh care", "invisible dry", "maximum protection", "youthful vitality", "cool fresh", "clean comfort", "sensitive care" and "extra fresh"; but also Comfort's products offer examples like "easy clean" or "ultra-protection". These are followed by very brief descriptions of the product in question (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 178).

For the lexical analysis, Botton et. al.'s (2002) classification is used (see page 49). An example of differentiation that Unilever offers is undoubtedly Unilever's Heartbrand. In fact, when it comes to Unilever, the first thing that comes to mind is probably the company's Heartbrand, the famous ice cream trademark that is known, depending on the country, as "Algida" in Italy, "Langnese" in Germany, "Ola" in The Netherlands, "Streets" in Australia, "Kibon" in Brazil, "Wall's" in the UK and a couple of Asiatic countries. Peculiar is the case of "Axe", which is unvaried in the Italian and French market, but becomes "Lynx" in the English and Australian one.

On the other hand, standardization also occurs in many of the brands attached to Unilever, such as Cif, Knorr and Dove, that keep the same name in every country. As for the case of Italy, loans from English and other languages are quite well accepted in everyday language and the choice of standardization can also be explained because of its convenience (it reduces advertising costs and helps easy identification of brands for those who travel across many countries. However, it is not 100% given that consumers have a high proficiency in the source language of the product and, generally speaking, the consequences of a misunderstanding should not be underestimated. In the case of Unilever, the English words that remain unchanged in the Italian version are words such as "Easy clean" ("Cif easy clean pavimenti brezza marina") or "Creations" (as in "Coccolino creations). By the same token, terms from other languages, such as "gourmet" in Knorr's "I momenti gourmet" ("gourmet moments") or "noodles" are kept unchanged (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 179-180).

An example of adaptation is the one of the English "Comfort" becoming "Coccolino" in Italian. This cannot certainly be defined as a translation, first of all because the word "Coccolino" does not exist in Italian, and secondly, because the

word it stems from, "coccola" (cuddle), only partially conveys the idea of "comfort" (Nacchia, Massaro 2017: 180).

The last level of analysis is the semantic one. In this regard, a special focus is given to Dove's and Knorr's product names. The main semantic areas of the two brands are reported in the following table.

Table 1.

| Brand | Semantic area | Terms | |
|-------|---------------|-------|--|
| | | **Nouns** | **Adjectives** |
| *Dove* | **Assessment** | | Extra, Maximum |
| | **Body and feelings** | Fresh, Touch | Fresh, Cool, Sensitive, Dry, Clean, Exfoliating, Gentle |
| | **Life-Cycle** | Vitality | Youthful |
| | **Relax and safety** | Care, Protection, Comfort | |
| *Knorr* | **Cooking** | Dadi, Vellutate (soup), Risotteria (rice), Passati (mashed food), Soffritto (pan-fried), Zuppa (soup), Purè (puree), Minestre (soup) | Gourmet, Cremosa (creamy), Pescatora (with fish), Ortolana (with vegetables), Boscaiola (with mushrooms) |
| | **Emotions** | Segreti, Cuore | |
| | **Food** | Verdure (vegetables),  Zucca (pumpkin), Spinaci (spinach), Carote (carrots), Rosmarino (rosmarin), Funghi (mushrooms), Tartufo (truffle), Couscous, Gamberetti (shrimp), Pepe (pepper), Patate (potatoes), Finferli (chanterelle mushrooms), Cipolline (onions), Zucchine (zucchini), Porri (leek), | Porcini (porcino mushroom), Patate dolci (sweet potatoes) |

| | | Prezzemolo (persil), Aglio (garlic), Cipolla (onion), Sedano (celery), Noodle, Cereali (cereals), Pasta, Lenticchie (lentils), Brodo (bouillion), Orzo (barley), Farro (hulled wheat), Legumi (legume), Ceci (chickpeas), Manzo (beef), Pesce (fish), Sale (salt), Fagioli (beans), Pollo (chicken) | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **Format** | Polvere (powder) | Granulare (grainy) |
| | **Geography** | Mondo (world), Asia Asia), cayenna (cayenne pepper) | Parmigiana (Italian recipee), Milanese (Milanese), orientali (oriental) |
| | **Magic** | Magia (magic) | |
| | **Nature** | Nuvole (clouds), primavera (spring) | |
| | **Taste** | Sapori (flavours), aroma (aromas) | Profumata (perfumed) |
| | **Tradition** | Nonna (grandmother) | Tradizionale (traditional), Arlecchino (Venetian harlequin mask) |

As for Dove's products, some considerations about the words used in their marketing strategy can be made. First of all, a recurrent idea of youth and vitality can be noticed. This is typical for the market segment dealing with beauty products for women, which is driven by the idea of an eternal beauty that women usually aspire to and of a time that does not pass. However, to these values, which go far beyond the product itself, men do not relate to in the same way as women. This probably explains why Dove decided to create an entire line of products only for men, Dove Men+Care, with which men can better identify. As regards the differences in the transfer of ideas from one country to the other, a shift in focus of the product's characteristics can be observed. The first example is the one of "Go fresh beauty – cream hand wash" that is transferred in Italian as "Go fresh – fresh touch detergente cremoso di bellezza profumo di tè verde e cetriolo" (Go fresh - fresh touch creamy beauty cleanser with green tea and cucumber scent). The first difference is that what

is a cream hand wash in English, seems more like a creamy all-purposes soap in Italian ("detergente cremoso"). The intentional translation of "beauty" into "di bellezza" shows the desire to make sure that this term is understood by the Italian consumer and to evoke the idea of beauty and self-esteem expressed by Dove.

Some peculiarities of the semantic area of Knorr's products are the fact that they are linked to the theme of traditions, family and genuineness. This is done in accordance with the typical associations that Italians make with their culinary style, thus sentences as "I segreti della nonna" (Grandmother's secrets) or "Cuore di bro-do" (stock pot's heart) deliberately intend to evoke personal memories, nostalgia for childhood, for food prepared with love and by the loved ones. In the English version, the product simply reads "stock pot" (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 183). Interestingly enough, today the soup which reads "I segreti della nonna" can still be bought on Amazon, although on the official site of Knorr the label does not read this sentence anymore. However, the description still reads something evoking the past and the old traditions "Ideali per gli amanti della zuppa tradizionale e dei sapori di una volta" ("Ideal for the lovers of a traditional soup and of flavors of the past"). To sum up, it seems like Knorr's strategy is to glorify and take advantage of the intimate and somehow "romantic" relationship Italians have with food.

Furthermore, according to what is reported on Nacchia and Massaro's analysis, it appears that four years ago Italians were not as bothered by the choice of raw materials as they were by the emotional sphere linked to food. A case in point was the use of the "gluten free" tag in Knorr's risotto package, which did not appear on the Italian one, even if risotto is generally a gluten-free product, or the "Organic chicken stock powder", which missed the word "organic" on the product sold in Italy. This, however, cannot find evidence nowadays, probably due to the growing interest in certified organic food and sustainability, or due to new food labelling regulations (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 183).

Many conclusions can be drawn from this analysis of Unilever's brands. First of all, we notice that the branding strategy of the company in Italy relies heavily on

the semantic dimension and on a general openness to the English language. In fact, there is still a huge presence of English terms in the Italian names analysed. Nevertheless, the cultural dimension is not as remissive as the linguistic one: a number of proofs show that brands do not propose innovative or alternative eating trends to the Italian audience, but rather put forward the more traditional, home-made and emotional dimension of food, which has a greater impact on the Italian consumer. Different product categories show different levels of adaptation made with reference to the cultural background: Italian products, in other words, resist standardization as far as food is concerned, whereas they are more submissive to it as regards the beauty category. Another conclusion that it is possible to draw is that the use of evocative language in food products is not as spread in the English market as it is in the Italian one. The same, however, is not true for the category of products of beauty and cosmetics. In this case, Dove's products are usually reported as in the source language, apart from the words denoting the product type (Nacchia and Massaro 2017: 184).

## Chapter 2 Conclusions

The aim of this chapter has been to do a practical analysis of the linguistic features of the business and marketing discourse. The topics that have been discussed are the following. First of all, a brief discussion of specific features in the studies on business language have been made. The argumentation involved elements like marketing terminology, semantic and pragmatic characteristics of the marketing discourse. Mentions of the few cases of what may be called perfect synonymy and pseudo-synonymy have also been made. Secondly, the analysis moved to the three main features of brand identity, namely brand names, logos and slogans. In order to examine this, the author compared and classified different brand names, logos and slogans taken from research papers and websites. Successively, two companies (IKEA and Unilever) have been chosen as case studies to reflect upon the role of language and culture in business and marketing. IKEA has been chosen because, compared to other retailers, it seems to be more attached to its original business model and to accept only partial alterations to the perfect mix of low price, DIY, centralized sourcing, unique and innovative design. However, the analysis showed that, to be true to one's business concept, adaptation is the strategy mostly needed, especially in foreign countries such as the UK and China. Furthermore, the analysis of IKEA's slogans showed, once again, that companies tend to pay attention to the use they make of language and recognize that using linguistic devices to add a special touch to their tone of voice is as important as the establishment of a clear and well-structured business strategy. The same conclusion has been drawn from the study of the linguistic features that characterize the second brand chosen as a case study, namely Unilever. For the study of this company, products belonging to several Unilever's brands have been examined and their names in their respective languages have been compared and discussed.

**Conclusions**

Our vision of the world is influenced by many factors that make up who we are, how we behave and what we expect from others. Culture and language are undoubtedly two of them. People's intrinsic, deep-rooted and, sometimes, unconscious behaviors are easier to interpret if their cultural background is considered. Moreover, they have inevitable consequences not only on personal relationships but also on business. However, to describe what culture is and in which ways it affects us is not an easy task. The goal of the first part of this study has been to perform a theoretical analysis of intercultural communication in business and in marketing, and consequently to analyse the marketing language. Globalization and the steady removal of barriers in the global market bring with them special features that are relevant to analyse. Markets are characterized by different languages, cultures and ethical values. Having an eye on this should always be at the center of the planning strategy for future expansion into overseas markets. Comprehensive knowledge of foreign countries' culture determines companies' success. Hall's primary message systems and the three different levels at which they communicate may help in this sense. Besides, factors such as silent language, values and attitudes, manners and customs also have a profound influence on business communication. What applies to business in general, is also true for marketing activities and, more specifically, for intercultural marketing. For example, the three dimensions of interpersonal communication can be applied to the topic of marketing communication. When entering a foreign market, there are strategies that can be followed, namely standardization, adaptation and creolization. The latter implies that consumers are not just passively receiving standardized products, but instead actively interpret, alter and judge the products in accordance with their own cultural background.

As far as language is concerned, the field of marketing language should be studied as a field of research per se with a set of distinguishing characteristics and as a sub discipline of the economic discourse. The most interesting trends of the devel-

opment of marketing language are: the fetishization of language and the rise of visuality; individualization and customization (and their two types); and the democratization of language made by consumers. To create value, segmentation and differentiation are two processes included in the study of the marketing discourse. Last but not least, according to some researches, there is a need to introduce specific terms in the scientific sphere for the study of marketing language such as "linguistic marketing" and "reclamemics". Furthermore, brand identity, a key element in marketing studies, can be explored with references to areas of linguistic inquiry such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and semiotics, with the aid of Schmitt's model. Together with this, brand names can undergo taxonomic analysis of the lexical items used in trademark naming.

Theoretical advice is not followed to the letter by every company. Whereas fast food chains like McDonald's pledge mantras such as "Think global, act local", other companies may be less willing to make too many concessions and to change their business style too much. This is the case of IKEA which tries to apply its Scandinavian-style approach globally. However, in today's market making changes to the core business is essential to fit in with the local environment. To be true to one's business concept, adaptation is the strategy mostly needed, both in the "visible" aspects of the business, like the marketing and communication aspects, and in the "invisible" ones, like the sourcing and the supply chain.

Another aspect to mention is that much can be said, literally, with words. The use of correct and culturally respectful language undeniably makes a difference for a company. The Anglo-Dutch multinational goods company Unilever is a good example in this sense, since it showed the products' label of its brands are not standardized, but rather adapted to the market. It is also remarkable to notice that there are product categories which resist standardization, and others which are more submissive to it.

In conclusion, internationalization and globalization elements should be combined according to various markets, to remain true to one's core business idea. The

so called "glocal[11] management" and "glocalization" (a portmanteau of globalization and localization) are terms to keep in mind when planning business expansion overseas. For all the reasons illustrated in this paper, to think global and to act local, seems, up to now, the best strategy for a successful business expanding overseas.

---

[11] Oxford learner's dictionaries: "Having features or relating to factors that are both local and global." https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/glocal?q=glocal (06.04.2021)

# References

1.      Aggarwal, P. "The effects of brand relationship norms on consumer attitudes and behavior." *Journal of Consumer Research* 31, no.1 (2004): 87-101. https://www.jstor.org/stable/10.1086/383426?seq=5#metadata_info_tab_contents Accessed 13.05.2020.

2.      Ba Banutu-Gomez, M. "The Role of Culture, Language, and Ethics in Global Business." *European Scientific Journal* 10, no. 10 (2014): 231-242. https://silo.tips/download/the-role-of-culture-language-and-ethics-in-global-business Accessed 13.05.2020.

3.      Bartlett, C. and Ghoshal, S. "Managing Across Borders: The Transnational Solution." *The Journal of the National Committee on American Foreign Policy* 2, no. 3 (1999): 20-22. https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/10803920.1999.10392010?needAccess=true Accessed 12.05.2020.

4.      Benet-Martinez, V., Leu, J., Lee, F. and Morris, M. W. "Negotiating biculturalism: Cultural frame-switching in biculturals with oppositional versus compatible cultural identities." *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* 33, no. 5 (2002): 492-516. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/247723656_Negotiating_BiculturalismCultual_Frame_Switching_in_Biculturals_with_Oppositional_Versus_Compatible_Cultural_Identities Accessed 12.05.2020.

5.      Blommaert, J. "Language, the great diversifier." In *Routledge International Handbook of Diversity Studies*, edited by S. Vertovec, 83-90. Abingdon: Routledge, 2015.

6.      Brendl, C. M., Carvallo, M., Chattopadhyay A. and Pelham B. W. "Name letter branding: Valence transfers when product specific needs are active." *Journal of Consumer Research* 32, no. 3 (2005): 405-415. https://doi.org/10.1086/497552  Accessed 15.05.2020.

7.     Burcea, R. G. "The Marketing Discourse. A Semantic Perspective." *Linguistic and Philosophical Investigations* 13, (2014): 606-617. https://www.ceeol.com/search/article-detail?id=30130 Accessed 14.05.2020.

8.     Carnevale, M., Luna, D. and Lerman, D. "Brand Linguistics: A theory-driven framework for the study of language in branding." *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 34, (2017): 572-591. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijresmar.2017.01.003 Accessed 25.02.2021.

9.     Cheema, A. and Patrick, V. M. "Anytime versus Only: Mind-Sets Moderate the Effect of Expansive versus Restrictive Frames on Promotion Evaluation." *Journal of Marketing Research* 45, no. 4 (2008): 462-472. https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkr.45.4.462

10.    Constantinides, E. "The 4S web-marketing mix model." *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications* 1, no. 1 (2002): 57-76. http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edselp&AN=S1567422302000066&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site. Accessed 25.02.2021.

11.    Cucchi, C. "National Cultures on European Corporate Homepages in English: A Linguistic Analysis." *International Journal of Business Communication* (2015):1-35. http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=135388020&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

12.    Damak, L. *Corps du consommateur et design du produit*. Paris: University Dauphine, 1996.

13.    Ferraro, G. P. *The Cultural Dimension of International Business.* Massachusetts: Prentice Hall, 2002.

14.    Glees, A. "Looking into Europe." *The Linguist* 25, no. 4 (1986).

15.    Grundlach, G. T. and Wilkie, W. L. "The American Marketing Association's new definition of marketing: Perspective and commentary on the 2007 revision." *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 2009: 259-264. http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=45044349&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

16.    Haarmann, H. *Symbolic values of foreign language use: From the Japanese case to a general sociolinguistic perspective*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 1989. https://proxy.library.spbu.ru/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=nlebk&AN=559269&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site&ebv=EB&ppid=pp_Cover Accessed 05.03.2021.

17.    Hall, E. T. *The Silent Language*. New York: Anchor Books, 1961.

18.    Hall, E. T. and Whyte, W. F. "Intercultural communication: A guide to men of action." Practical Anthropology 10, no. 5 (1963): 216-232. https://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2163/stable/44124458?refreqid=excelsior%3Aaba50686651c13f582f32ad850aac7b5&seq=1#metadata_info_tab_contents Accessed 25.02.2021.

19.    Hall, S. "Cultural Studies: Two Paradigms." *Media, Culture & Society* 2, no. 1 (1980): 57-72. https://proxy.library.spbu.ru:3693/item.asp?id=11350146 Accessed 26.02.2021.

20.    Heath, R., Brandt, D. and Nairn, A. "Brand Relationships: Strengthened by Emotion, Weakened by Attention." *Journal of Advertising Research* 46, no. 4 (2006): 410-419. http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=23585231&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site. Accessed 26.02.2021.

21.    Herbig, P. A. "A Handbook of Cross-Cultural Marketing" *Journal of the Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management* 4, no. 2 (1998). https://web-b-ebscohost-com.ezproxy.its.uu.se/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=2&sid=17d4c131-34fd-4728-8cc2-b239bdf5a3cf%40pdc-v-sessmgr01 Accessed 26.02.2021.

22.    Holden, N. J. "Toward a Functional Typology of Languages in International Business." *Language Problems and Language Planning* 13, no. 1 (1989).

23.    Hoshino, K. "Semiotic marketing and product conceptualization." In *Marketing and semiotics: New directions in the study of signs for sales*, edited by Umiker-Sebeok, 41-56. The Hague: Mouton de Gruyter, 1987.

24.    Hundt, M. *Modellbildung in der Wirtschaftssprache: zur Geschichte der Institutionen- und Theoriefachsprachen der Wirtschaft*. Tübingen: Niemeyer, 1995.

25.    Hundt, M. "Neuere institutionelle und wissenschaftliche Wirtschaftsfachsprachen." In: *Hand-bücher zur Sprach- und Kommunikationswissenschaft* 14 Fachsprachen, no. 1, edited by Steger, H. and Wiegand, H. E. Berlin and New York: de Gruyter, 1998: 1296-1304.

26.    Inchaurralde, C. "Keywords in marketing: some linguistic considerations." *Proceeding of the International May Conference on Strategic Management*, May 382-889

http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=124005890&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021

27.    Irmak, C., Vallen, B., and Robinson, S. R. "The impact of product name on dieters' and nondieters' food evaluations and consumption." *Journal of Consumer Research* 38, no. 2 (2011): 390-405. http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=63004512&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site. Accessed 26.02.2021.

28.    Irvine, J.T. and Gal, S. "Language ideology and linguistic differentiation." In *Regimes of language: Ideologies, polities, and identities,* edited by P. V. Kroskrity, 35-83. Santa Fe: School of American Research Press, 2000.

29.    Jagodkina, M.V. *Jazyk reklamy kak sredstvo formirovanija virtual'noj real'nosti.*" Saint Petersburg: Pushkin Leningrad State University, 2009: 31.

30.    Jaworski, A., Thurlow, C., Ylänne-McEwen, V. and Lawson, S. "The uses and representations of local languages in tourist destinations: A view from British television holiday programmes." *Language Awareness* 12, no. 1 (2003): 5-29. http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=asn&AN=11414047&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

31.    Kelly-Holmes, H. "The Linguistic Business of Marketing." In *The Business of Words: Wordsmiths, Linguists, and Other Language Workers*, edited by Crispin Thurlow,  37-50. Abingdon: Routledge, 2019.

32. Klink, R. R. "Creating brand names with meaning: The use of sound symbolism." *Marketing Letters* 11, (2000): 5-20. http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edssjs&AN=edssjs.CCF6208B&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

33. Konovalova, A. and Yepes, G. R. "The language of marketing and its translation: Morphological and semantic aspects of terminology." *MonTI. Monografías de Traducción e Interpretación* 8 (2016): 1-26. https://www.e-revistes.uji.es/index.php/monti/article/view/2400 Accessed 15.05.2020.

34. Kragh, S. U. "Three Perspectives on Intercultural Marketing." Frederiksberg: Department of Intercultural Communication and Management, Copenhagen Business School, 2000: 1-24.

https://research.cbs.dk/en/publications/three-perspectives-on-intercultural-marketing#? Accessed 25.02.2021.

35. Kragh, S. U. and Djursaa, M. *Standardization or Adaptation: The Effect of Culture in Strategic Positioning. In Contemporary Developments in Marketing*. Paris: ESKA, 1998.

36. Kronrod, A., Grinstein, A. and Wathieu, L. "Go green! Should environmental messages be so assertive?" *Journal of Marketing* 76, no. 1 (2012): 95-102. http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsggo&AN=edsgcl.281598974&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

37. Levitt, T. "The globalization of markets." In Buzell, R.D, Quelch, J.A. and Barlett, C.A.: *Global Marketing Management. Cases and Readings 3*. Ed. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company. New York, 1995

38. Linden, G., Smith, B. and York, J. "Amazon.com recommendations: Item- to-item collaborative filtering." *IEEE Internet Computing* 7, no. 1 (2003): 76-80. http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edselc&AN=edselc.2-52.0-0037252945&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

39. Lowrey, T. M. and Shrum, L. J. "Phonetic symbolism and brand name preference." *Journal of Consumer Research* 34, no.3 (2007): 406-414. https://doi.org/10.1086/518530 Accessed 25.02.2021.

40.     Luna, D., Ringberg, T. and Peracchio, L. A. "One individual, two identities: Frame-switching among biculturals." *Journal of Consumer Research* 35, (2008): 279-293. https://doi.org/10.1086/586914 Accessed 25.02.2021.

41.     Luna, D., Carnevale, M. and Lerman, D. "Does brand spelling influence memory? The case of auditorily presented brand names." *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 23, no. 1 (2013): 36-48.

https://www-jstor-org.ezproxy.its.uu.se/stable/26578133?pq-origsite=summon&seq=1#metadata_info_tab_contents Accessed 25.02.2021.

42.     McCracken, G. *Culture and Consumption: New Approaches to the Symbolic Character of Consumer Goods and Activities.* Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1988.

43.     Meyer, M. and Cushman, M. "Argumentation in the Light of a Theory of Questioning." *Philosophy & Rhetoric* 15, no. 2 (1982): 81.

https://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2163/stable/40237314?seq=1#metadata_info_tab_contents Accessed 25.02.2021.

44.     Mick, D. G., Burroughs, J. E., Hetzel, P. and Brannen, M. Y. "Pursuing the meaning of meaning in the commercial world: An international review of marketing and consumer research founded on semiotics." *Semiotica*, no. 152-1/4 (2004): 1–74. https://doi.org/10.1515/semi.2004.2004.152-1-4.1 Accessed 24.02.2021.

45.     Nisbett, R. *The Geography of Thought: How Asians and Westerners Think Differently… and Why*. New York: The Free Press, 2004.

46.      Oswald, L. "The place and space of consumption in a material world." *Design Issues* 12 no.1 (1996): 48-62. https://doi.org/10.2307/1511745  Accessed 25.02.2021.

47.     Patrick, V. M. and Hagtvedt, H. ""I don't" versus "I can't"": When empowered refusal motivates goal-directed behavior." *Journal of Consumer Research* 39, no.                    2                    (2012):                    371-381. http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsggo&AN=edsgcl.372035535&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site. Accessed 25.02.2021.

48. Peirce, C. S. *Collected papers of Charles Sanders Peirce*. United Kingdom: Thoemmes Continuum, 1931-1958.

49. Peng, M. W. *Global Business*, *2nd ed*. Ohio: South-Western Educational Publishing, 2010.

50. Pérez, Berenguel J. F. "Glosario de errores comunes en la traducción económica y financiera." In: Muñoz Martín, Ricardo (Hrsg.) I AIETI. *Actas del I Congreso Internacional de la Asociación Ibérica de Estudios de Traducción e Interpretación.* Granada 12-14 de Febrero de 2003. Granada: AIETI. Vol. n.º 2, pp. 619-628.

51. Perry, A. and Wisnom, D. *Before the brand: Creating the unique DNA of an enduring brand identity*, New York: McGraw-Hill, 2003.

52. Pietikäinen, S., Kelly-Holmes, H., Jaffe, A.M. and Coupland, N. *Sociolinguistics from the Periphery: Small Languages in New Circumstances*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2016. http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsbas&AN=edsbas.2B113F62&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

53. Puntoni, S., de Langhe, B. and Stijn, M. J. van Osselaer "Bilingualism and the Emotional Intensity of Advertising Language" *Journal of Consumer Research* 35, no. 6 (2009): 1012-1025. https://doi.org/10.1086/595022 Accessed 25.02.2021.

54. Ricks, D. A. *Blunders in international business.* Cambridge, Mass., USA: Blackwell Business. (1993).

55. Samo, O. *Intercultural Marketing. The Impact of Culture on the Marketing-Mix*. GRIN Verlag. Munich: 2014. https://www.grin.com/document/307913 Accessed 12.09.2020.

56. Schmitt, B. H. "The consumer psychology of brands." *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 22, (2012): 7-17. https://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2060/10.1016/j.jcps.2011.09.005 Accessed 25.02.2021

57. Serón Ordóñez, I. "La traducción de la metáfora en los textos financieros: estudio de caso." (2005): 205-250. https://nanopdf.com/download/4-traduccion-de-la-metafora-en-economia_pdf Accessed 25.02.2021.

58. Sknarev, D.S. "Reclamemics and linguistic marketing as new knowledge areas." *Вестник Российского Университета Дружбы Народов. Серия: Русский и Иностранные Языки и Методика Их Преподавания*, 3 (2016): 51-57.http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsclk&AN=edsclk.16910564&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

59. Solomon, O. "Semiotics and marketing New directions in industrial design applications." *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 4, no. 3 (1988): 201-215.https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8116(88)80005-3 Accessed 25.02.2021.

60. Sutiu, C. L. "Human Nature: Between Persuasion and Manipulation." *Journal of Academic Emergency Case Reports* 5, no. 10 (2014): 99-111.http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=asn&AN=99503177&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

61. Swift, J. S. "Foreign language ability and international marketing." *European Journal of Marketing* 25, no. 12 (1991): 36-49.

https://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2349/insight/content/doi/10.1108/EUM0000000000634/full/html Accessed 25.02.2021.

62. Tse, D. K., Lee, K.-h., Vertinsky, I. and Wehrung, D. A. "Does culture matter? A cross-cultural study of executives' choice, decisiveness, and risk adjustment in international marketing." *Journal of Marketing, 52, no.* 4 (1988): 81-95. http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsggo&AN=edsgcl.7128595&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

63. Turnbull, P. W. *Business in Europe: The Need for Linguistic Ability*, Manchester: UMIST, 1981.

64. Verey, R. J. *Marketing Communication: Principles and Practice*. New York: Routledge, 2002.

65. Wang, Z. "Intercultural Conflicts of International Marketing Activities- From The Perspective of Chinese Companies", *Review of European Studies* 4, no. 2 (2012). DOI: 10.5539/res.v4n2p118 Accessed 15.02.2020.

66.     Watzlawick, P. and Beavin, J. "Some Formal Aspects of Communication." *American Behavioral Scientist* 10, no. 8 (1967): 4-8. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764201000802 Accessed 25.02.2021.

67.     Wiebenga, J. H. and Fennis, B. M. "Me, Myself, and Ikea: Qualifying the Role of Implicit Egotism in Brand Judgment." *Advances in Consumer Research* 40 (2021):733-734. http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=92981537&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

68.     Wind, J. and Rangaswamy, A. "Customerization: The next revolution in mass customization.", *Journal of Interactive Marketing* 15, no. 1 (2001): 13-32. http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=4211345&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 25.02.2021.

69.     Zhang, S., Schmitt, B. and Haley, H. "Language and culture: A new approach to consumer behavior in international marketing research." In *State of the art in research in international marketing*, edited by S. C. Jain. Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar, 2003.     http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/summary?doi=10.1.1.11.3203 25.02.2021.

**Sources**

1.      Botton, M., Ferrari, B. and Cegarra J. *Il nome della marca: creazione e strategie di naming*. Milano: Guerini e Associati, 2002.

2.      Burt, S., Johansson, U., Thelander, Å. "Standardized marketing strategies in retailing? IKEA's marketing strategies in Sweden, the UK and China." *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services* 18, no. 3 (2011): 183-193. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/223947182_Standardized_marketing_strategies_in_retailing_IKEA%27s_marketing_strategies_in_Sweden_the_UK_and_China Accessed 14.05.2020.

3.      Coccolino, Aria di primavera – Eco pack https://www.amazon.it/coccolino-ammor-ecoricarica-700-ml-Classico/dp/B01M136THD Accessed 02.04.2021.

4.      Coccolino, Aria di primavera https://www.amazon.fr/Coccolino-Ammorbienne-Primavera-Adoucissant-concentr%C3%A9/dp/B07S2RNDGV Accessed 02.04.2021.

5.      Coccolino, Aria di primavera https://www.unilever.it/wiop/products/coccolino/coccolino-ammorbidente-concentrato-aria-di-primavera.html Accessed 19.02.2021.

6.      Conti, S. "Unilever Moves to More Inclusive Language on Labels: The Company Is Removing References to 'White' and 'Whitening' in Its Skin Care, and Also Plans to Change the Name of Its Fair & Lovely Brand." *WWD: Women's Wear Daily*, (2020): 6. http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=144295336&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 01.03.2021.

7.      Comfort, Blue skies https://www.comfortworld.co.uk/products/catalog/comfort-blue-skies-fabric-conditioner-21-wash-750ml.html Accessed 19.02.2021.

8. Comfort, Blue skies https://www.comfortworld.co.uk/products/catalog/comfort-blue-skies-fabric-conditioner-21-wash-750ml.html Accessed 19.02.2021.

9. Comfort, saver pack https://www.amazon.in/Comfort-After-Fabric-Conditioner-Pouch/dp/B07M7KGJZL Accessed 02.04.2021.

10. Dove Italian Website, DermaSpa Uplifted+ https://www.dove.com/it/collections/dermaspa.html Accessed 18.02.2021.

11. Dove Italy Website, DermaSpa Goodness https://www.dove.com/it/collections/dermaspa/goodness3.html Accessed 21.02.2021.

12. Dove UK Website, DermaSpa Goodness https://www.dove.com/uk/collections/dermaspa/goodness3.html Accessed 21.02.2021.

13. Dove UK Website, DermaSpa Goodness https://www.dove.com/uk/collections/dermaspa.html Accessed 18.02.2021.

14. Dove Website, DermaSpa Uplifted+, https://www.dove.com/za/skin-care/body-lotion/dermaspa-uplifted-body-lotion.html Accessed 18.02.2021.

15. "IKEA: a rebellion in flat-pack": https://www.ft.com/content/ae774248-05bf-11e8-9e12-af73e8db3c71 Accessed 18.02.2021.

16. IKEA. "About IKEA. Facts and figures." https://www.ikea.com/ms/ar_QA/about_ikea/facts_and_figures/index.html. Accessed 22.02.2021.

17. IKEA. "IKEA vision, culture and values. IKEA vision and business idea" https://ikea.jobs.cz/en/vision-culture-and-values/ Accessed 22.02.2021.

18. IKEA print advertisement in China https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0969698910000998 Accessed 31.03.2021.

19. IKEA print brochure in the UK (Scotland) https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0969698910000998 Accessed 31.03.2021.

20.     IKEA    slogans:    https://benextbrand.com/ikea-brand-slogans/    Accessed 20.04.2021.

21.     IKEA     UK:     "Better     divorce     for     everybody": https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zGIIWu2y4Dw Accessed 06.03.2021.

22.     IKEA:     vision     and     business     idea     https://www.ikea.com/gb/en/this-is-ikea/about-us/vision-and-business-idea-pub9cd02291 Accessed 31.03.2021.

23.     Jonsson, A. "A Transnational Perspective on Knowledge Sharing: Lessons Learned from IKEA's Entry into Russia, China and Japan." *International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research* 18, no.1 (2008): 17-44. http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edselc&AN=edselc.2-52.0-76949093807&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 07.03.2021.

24.     Knorr,     "Cuore     di     brodo"     https://www.knorr.com/it/prodotti/brodi-e-insaporitori/cuore-di-brodo/cuore-di-brodo-manzo.html Accessed 05.03.2021.

25.     Knorr,          "Gluten          free          risotto"          (eng) https://www.knorr.com/us/en/products/selects/four-cheese-risotto.html     Accessed 05.03.2021.

26.     Knorr, "Gluten free risotto" (it)     https://www.knorr.com/it/prodotti/primi-piatti/risotti/risotto-asparagi.html Accessed 05.03.2021.

27.     Knorr, "I segreti della nonna"     https://www.amazon.it/Knorr-Segreti-della-Nonna-Zuppa/dp/B00XUNNHJ0 Accessed 05.03.2021.

28.     Knorr,          "I          segreti          della          nonna" https://www.knorr.com/it/prodotti/zuppe/zuppe-da-scaldare/zuppa-di-ceci.html Accessed 05.03.2021.

29.     Knorr, "Stock pot"     https://www.knorr.com/ie/knorr-products/stock-pot/beef-stock-pot.html Accessed 05.03.2021.

30.     Lewis, E. "Chapter 7: Chuck out Your Chintz." In *GBS: Great Ikea!*, Marshall Cavendish Limited, 2004: 116-134.

http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=47667204&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 01.03.2021.

31.     Lewis, E. "Chapter 10: Ikea in the Global Village." In *GBS: Great Ikea!*, Marshall Cavendish Limited, 2004: 172-187. http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=47667207&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site Accessed 01.03.2021.

32.     List of 25+ Best IKEA Brand Slogans https://benextbrand.com/ikea-brand-slogans/ Accessed 12.04.2021.

33.     Malyuga, E. N., A. Radyuk, and A. S. Tsagolova. 2018. "Linguacultural Studies of Advertising Slogans and Their Significance for Linguistic Identity." International Multidisciplinary Scientific Conference on Social Sciences & Arts SGEM 5 (January):                                                            269–75. https://proxy.library.spbu.ru/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=asn&AN=134142637&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site        Accessed 11.04.2021.

34.     Miller, P. M. "Ikea with Chinese Characteristics." *China Business Review* 31, no.                          4                          (2004):                          36-38. http://proxy.library.spbu.ru:2124/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=14297640&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site. Accessed 02.03.2021.

35.     Miller, Darryl W., and Marshall Toman. 2016. "An Analysis of Rhetorical Figures and Other Linguistic Devices in Corporation Brand Slogans." *Journal of Marketing Communications* 22, no. 5 (2016): 474–493. https://proxy.library.spbu.ru/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=118223422&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site. Accessed 11.04.2021.

36.     Nacchia, F. and Massaro, V. "A joint linguistic-marketing analysis of brand and product names: the case of Unilever." *Lingue e Linguaggi* 22, (2017): 169-186. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/318779320_A_joint_linguistic-marketing_analysis_of_brand_and_product_names_the_case_of_Unilever Accessed 15.05.2020.

37.     The        "Chuck        out        your        Chintz"        campaign: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9O5IeLQgRoE Accessed 06.03.2021.

38.    The    "Stop    being    so    English"    campaign: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=V1LnSn8M98I Accessed 06.03.2021.

39.    The Wall Street Journal (2006) IKEA Hits Home in China. March 3, 2006. https://www.wsj.com/articles/SB114132199911087764 Accessed 05.03.2021.

40.    Ulf, J. and Thelander, Å. "A Standardised Approach to the World? IKEA in China." *International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences* 1, no. 2 (2009): 199-219. https://doi.org/10.1108/17566690910971454 Accessed 02.03.2021.

41.    Unilever    Bright    Future    https://www.unilever.co.uk/news/press-releases/2016/unilever-unveils-new-tv-and-digital-bright-future-campaign-in-the-uk.html Accessed 31.03.2021.

42.    Unilever by Hotli Simanjuntak/EPA-EFE/Shutterstock http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bsu&AN=144295336&lang=ru&site=eds-live&scope=site  (01.03.2021)

43.    Unilever    UK,    So    long,    old    world. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=faqkSCOlDmU Accessed 18.02.2021.

44.    Unilever website, Our strategy. https://www.unilever.com/our-company/strategy/  Accessed 31.03.2021.

45.    Unilever, Cif easy clean https://www.unilever.it/wiop/products/cif/cif-easy-clean-pavimenti-brezza-marina.html Accessed 19.02.2021.

46.    Unilever, Coccolino Creations https://www.unilever.it/wiop/products/coccolino/coccolino-creations-ammorbidente-concentrato-campanula-selvatica-e-bergamotto-co-pack.html Accessed 19.02.2021.

47.    Unilever, detergente cremoso di bellezza https://www.unilever.it/wiop/products/dove/dove-detergente-cremoso-di-bellezza-profumo-di-te-verde-e-cetriolo.html  Accessed 18.02.2021.

48.    Unilever, Go fresh beauty – cream hand wash https://www.dove.com/uk/washing-and-bathing/hand-wash/go-fresh-beauty-cream-hand-wash.html Accessed 18.02.2021.

49.    Vignali, Claudio. 2001. "McDonald's: "Think Global, Act Local" - the Marketing    Mix."    *British    Food    Journal    (1966)*    103    (2):    97-111. https://tinyurl.com/yaj73xtg

**Dictionaries**

1.    Oxford learner's dictionaries https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/