Title: The Market of Europe or European Markets? Defining Country Groups for International Marketing Based on Language

Conference Theme: 2.1. Market Entry and Locational Strategies

Type of the Paper: Workshop Paper

Author: Claudia Mennicken

Affiliation: Assistant Professor, University of Witten, Germany

Address: University of Witten, Department of Strategic Marketing, Alfred-Herrhausen-Str. 50, D-58448 Witten, Germany, Phone: ++ 49 / (0) 2302 – 926 506, Fax: ++ 49 / (0) 2302 – 926 527, E-Mail: claudia.mennicken@uni-wh.de

Abstract:

The selection of international markets is a very important decision in a firm's internationalisation process. To facilitate entry and resource-allocation decisions for the various international markets a meaningful grouping and comparing of countries can be helpful. In this paper we will present language as an important indicator to identify similarities or differences between international markets. Language captures a cultural trait and forms a basis for consumer behaviour.

This paper also analyses language differences within Europe. The results from a study in 16 European nations reveal that although European market conditions regarding macro-environmental factors are converging towards a single market, language still remains an important barrier for an "Unified Europe".

Keywords:

Language – Market selection – Europe – Correspondence Analysis

THE MARKET OF EUROPE OR EUROPEAN MARKETS?

DEFINING COUNTRY GROUPS FOR INTERNATIONAL MARKETING

BASED ON LANGUAGE

INTRODUCTION

Internationalisation and globalisation processes are ones of the most driving forces in shaping business in world's market today. This is true for goods and services as well as for large multinationals and small and medium sized companies. Especially, macro-environmental market conditions seem to enforce regional integration of business activities. For example, the political and economic unification process in Europe has led to the assumption that a single European market exists where a standardised marketing approach can be used. Nevertheless, European countries are deeply rooted in history and their national culture (Clark 1990). Therefore it can be questioned whether European consumers are converging to "regional European consumers".

In this paper we will analysis this hypothesis in the context of strategic decision making in international marketing, especially market entry decisions. The initial decision of "going international" and international market expansion strategies (including the definition and selection of target markets) are important decisions influence future patterns of development of an international company. To facilitate entry and resource-allocation decisions for the various international markets a meaningful grouping and comparing of countries can be helpful. Based on identified similarities, international markets can be clustered into segments and a standardised marketing approach can be implemented for a group of countries. Several criteria can be used to segment countries. In the past, most research has focused on the analysis of macro-environmental factors, especially the economic environment. We will propose another criterion: language. Language is central for our lives and forms a basis for consumer behaviour. Language captures a cultural trait; it is an expression of the culture we live in. Based on the language abilities spoken in 16 European countries, we will analyse how these countries can be grouped into clusters by using multiple correspondence analysis.

INTERNATIONAL MARKETING: ARE MARKETS CONVERGING?

The Idea of Globalisation

Research in international marketing has been largely driven by the debate of globalisation (e.g. Buzzell, 1968; Jain, 1989; Levitt, 1983; Kotler, 1990; Ohmae, 1989; Quelch and Hoff, 1986). It can be noticed that globalisation is a process that primarily occurs on the competition level. Regional agreements like the GATT/WTO-framework has reduced tariff and non-tariff trade barriers. Regional integration like the economic and political European unification process has created larger market entities. The advanced use of communication technologies like the internet shrinks geographic distances and links markets world wide (Douglas and Craig 1997).

To some extent global marketing relies on the phenomenon of globalisation. Often assumed as “common sense” in the international marketing literature is that global marketing means to homogenise and integrate activities on a world-wide scale. A central assumption is the world-wide homogenisation of demand (convergence of demand). It is assumed that “global consumers” exist, which have or develop the same universal needs, tastes, preferences, attitudes, and purchase intentions. This justifies a standardisation of marketing activities, namely the supply of standardised products and services offering a good quality for a low price (Levitt, 1983). Supplying globally standardised goods can take advantage of experience effects (economies of scale and scope) and can therefore lower production costs and selling prices (Meffert and Bolz, 1995). But without the existence of global consumers or globally common needs the claim for global marketing loses its main (theoretical) basis.

In fact global marketing in general (and standardisation of marketing activities in particular) has also found its critics. It has even been renamed as being a "myth" (Douglas and Wind, 1987). From an international marketing perspective that identifies needs and wants of customers across countries in order to develop and market products and services that provide a differential advantage, the idea of globalisation has to be changed (cf. Bradley 1987, p.208). As far as consumer behaviour and marketing environment is concerned there are still cultural barriers to be taken into account (Usunier 1996). Additionally, little empirical evidence exists that differences in consumer behaviour completely fade to disappear. Findings in existing studies on international consumer research are at least inconclusive about the convergence towards global needs, values, lifestyles, or consumption patterns (cf. Sojka and Tansuhaj, 1995 for an overview). If it is taken into account that similarities and differences in consumer behaviour exist it is more adequate to look for an "optimal" degree between standardisation and customisation (Meffert and Bolz, 1995). From this perspective, international marketing means to customise marketing strategies to customer differences within a framework of a global strategy. A detailed reflection on the different strategy formation schools can be found in Mintzberg and Lampel (1999).

Market Selection and Market Entry

One important area in international marketing is market entry, in the situation of "going international" as well as international market expansion. This leads us to the strategic decision of defining and selecting target markets. Opportunities in one market have to be evaluated against others before the commitment of company resources (Cavusgil and Nevin 1986). The choice of target markets has long-term consequences for a company. It determines the pattern for future development (Douglas and Craig 1995). A wrong choice of international markets can be a source of two types of costs: the actual costs of an unsuccessfully entry of the "wrong" market, and the opportunity costs, the missed opportunities of entering an international market where products or services might have been successful (Rynning and Andersen 1995). To facilitate market entry decisions international marketers need a comprehensive and meaningful framework for comparing international markets.

Additionally, selecting the appropriate international markets is a complex decision, since competition is emerging on a global scale and international markets become more interlinked across country boundaries (Usunier 1996). It makes sense not to look on each country isolated but to integrate international marketing decisions into a global framework. If the international marketing management can define a meaningful grouping of markets, it can follow similar strategies in similar countries. The situation of increasingly integrated markets at least in some parts of the world can mandate a marketing standardisation strategy (Jain 1989). If similarities exist between markets they can be grouped into a cluster and a standardised marketing approach can be implemented (Segal-Horn and Faulkner 1999). A major advantage is that international marketers are able to draw from its experiences in similar markets (learning of firms; Dow 2000). More specifically, an international company can profit from market similarities with regard to its timing strategy of market entry (Ayal and Zif 1979). This is especially true for the introduction of new products. If countries share similarities with regard to market characteristics it can be hypothesised that successful products or services in one country can make their way to the customers in other countries as well (Douglas and Craig 1992). Similarities between markets can help to identify countries (a cluster of countries), which are simultaneously entered to profit of the lead time or to identify the path of country market which sequentially entered to profit of the lead effect (sprinkler versus waterfall strategy; Bradley 1995; Ganesh, Kumar, and Subramaniam 1997).

To sum up clustering international markets has some major advantages: 1It helps international marketers to systematically analyse the problem of market selection (Ayal and Zif 1979). Additionally, identifying similar countries facilitates market entry and resource-allocation decisions (Cavusgil and Nevin 986). If similarities exist between international market a company can profit from using a standardised approach and from its experiences in these markets. But also some disadvantages or limitations of clustering international markets have to be taken into account: first, difficulties are arising from the underlying assumption that each country is homogeneous in itself. This can imply an oversimplification of reality. Second, facing changing markets conditions can lead to lacking validity of the results over time (Vahlne and Nordström 1992). Finally, the choice of appropriate market criteria is crucial. This issue will be addressed in the next chapter.

Clustering International Markets

Clustering international markets means that there should be a high degree of homogeneity in a group of markets and a high degree of heterogeneity between the clusters of markets (Douglas and Craig 1997). Therefore, appropriate criteria are needed. Basically, the different approaches of market clustering can be grouped into two types:

- uni-dimensional and
- multi-dimensional approaches.

In uni-dimensional approaches criteria as geographical distance, economic, political, or legal conditions as well as language or culture can be used.

There is a strong tradition in the international trade literature to use geographic distance and the existence of common borders as indicators (e.g. Geraci and Prewo 1977; Srivastava and Green 1986). Geographical distance is very easy to measure. To identify international markets as similar, they must have a low geographic proximity. And markets with common boundaries are hypothesised to be more similar and can be grouped into a cluster. It is often used in cross-cultural marketing studies. For example Ganesh, Kumar, and Subramaniam (1997) have re-analysed the innovation path of several consumer durables based on geographical distance. Although geographic distance is easy to measure, it does not give clear advice which countries belongs to a cluster and which do not. Additionally, the explicative power of geographical distance seems to be limited, especially if we want to segment markets from the customers perspective. In an empirical study Dow (2000) found that the predictive power of psychic distance for international market selection is higher compared to geographic distance. Grouping countries on economic similarity can assist market selection and entry or expansion decisions, since it is assumed that uncertainty is reduced if companies operate in comparable macro-environmental conditions. For example, Leeflang and van Raaij (1995) have meta-analysed macro-environmental factors in Europe and found that Europe has more converging than diverging trends. And Craig, Douglas, and Grein (1992) have analysed patterns of convergence among industrialised nations based on economic criteria. But they also found that socio-cultural characteristics appear to underlie macro-environmental changes.

Uni-dimensional approaches fail to identify and measure the complex whole of the market environment. Geographic distance may be an indicator of differences between international markets or may be not. Therefore multi-dimensional approaches are better suited. In this context the concept of "psychic distance" proposed by researchers at Uppsala University has become well known (Johanson and Vahlne 1977; Wiedersheim-Paul, Olson, has become well known (Johanson and Vahlne 1977; Wiedersheim-Paul, Olson, and Welch 1976). Psychic distance is a complex whole of factors, which prevent or disturb the flows of information from and to a country, and between a firm and its markets. The concept is widely cited and explored in its theoretical aspects. The primary weakness lies in the still open question how to measure psychological distance, and which indicators and scales to be used (Dow 2000). Additionally, Vahlne and Nordström (1992) have demonstrated that psychic distance is not stable over time, since it is influenced by learning of firms during the internationalisation process.

Psychic distance can be seen in line with approaches to measure cultural differences (e.g. Hofstede 1980; Sethi 1971). In both approaches language is an important indicator for similarities or differences, besides values and norms, or behavioural patterns (Johanson and Vahlne 1977). Although language is an uni-dimensional construct, it has the major advantage that it remains quite stable over time and influences consumer behaviour. Language performance abilities restrict our possibilities in retrieving information and communicating. According to Whorf-Saphir-Hypothesis the language we learn in the community we are born and educated structures our world-view, our perception, categorisation, and evaluation of social reality, and our social behaviour (Saphir 1923; Whorf 1941).

Language captures an important cultural trait (De Mooij 1998). Which language a person speaks is part of the culture in which he or she grows up. For example Naroll (1970, p. 248), a cultural anthropologist, has proposed to define groups on language (concept of "culti unit"): a culti unit is defined as „... people who are domestic speakers of a common distinct language and belong to the same state or contact group". This definition is well suited if markets should be clustered from the consumers perspective since the sharing of a common language as well as a high degree of social interaction and communication are often boundaries staking out similarities in consumption (Douglas and Craig 1997). Additionally, language regarded as a market segmentation criterion has the advantage that it remains quite stable over time and that it leads to the identification of segments which are big enough to justify economic activities.

At the time and for the purposes (in terms of the anthropological groups he was studying) Naroll (1970) proposed his definition the notion of a common language, the same native tongue was suitable to identify and segment cultural groups. For the purpose of segmenting international markets, not only the native language characterises a market but also other language abilities. Our native language must not necessarily be the language we speak in school, we use on our job, or we need to understand when we watch television and films. Recent developments like ethnoscapes (e.g. persons who move to other countries as tourists, immigrants, or guest workers), mediascapes (e.g. satellite TV), or technoscapes (e.g. the Internet) have spanned our possibilities to communicate on the one hand, on the other hand they force us to broaden our language abilities (Appadurai 1990). It seems suitable to extend the measurement of “language” as Tamilia (1978, p. 84) propose:

- language used most,
- language used most frequently at home,
- language used most frequently on the job,
- first language of instruction,
- language preferences,
- language of religious activities,
- language used most in reading book and papers,
- language used most in listening to the radio,
- language used most in watching television,
- language used most in reading newspapers and magazines, and
- language performance abilities (reading, writing, conversation).

To summarise, language is a uni-dimensional construct to measure differences and similarities between countries. It is an important element of the culture we share. Although the explicative power of uni-dimensional approaches is limited, the meaning of language for international marketing is manifold. From the international marketer perspective it relates to difficulties in accessing market information, communicating with existing or potential customers and other trade partners (Dow 2000).

EUROPE: THE MARKET OF EUROPE OR EUROPEAN MARKETS?

In the following we want to focus the question of identifying and selecting target markets based on language on the European region. Although competition and supply are increasingly integrated in the European markets, it can be questioned whether a „European consumer“ exists or “European consumers” tend to converge since there is no common language spoken in all European countries (Usunier 1996).

Europe, or the European Union, provides a good example for regional integration. Especially since the Single European Market has been achieved by the end of 1992 and a single currency has been introduced, a convergence toward a political and economical unified Europe is hypothesised (Leeflang and van Raaij, 1995). On the supply side competition is increasingly integrated in the European markets. European based companies face small and sometimes mature home markets and therefore want to export their products and services to other European countries.

Compared to other world-wide regions like Asia, Europe seems to be more culturally homogeneous. Nevertheless it can be assumed that Europe can be clustered in several cultural segments. The various European countries are deeply rooted in their history and traditions. Several studies have addressed European consumers, e.g. Dubois and Laurent (1993) for luxury goods, Broderick, Greenley, and Muller (1998), Grunert, Brunsø, and Bredahl (1998), and Steenkamp et al. (1995) for food consumption, and Leeflang and van Raaij (1995) for consumption patterns in general. They all suggest that similarities as well as differences in consumer behaviour exist and therefore identified various European segments. For example Broderick, Greenley, and Muller concluded that European consumers tend to be similar in the consumption of fresh fruit, but are dissimilar for coffee consumption. A comparable result was found by Steenkamp et al. (1995). They identified that marketing of food products in Europe need a differentiated marketing approach.

Language is important in Europe. There is a stronger emphasis than in the United States on grammatical appropriateness and correct pronunciation (Usunier 1996). Not speaking a dialect is a social prerequisite, especially for a number of job assignments, in several countries. Also in policy the European Union hold an extremely time-resting respect for national culture, traditions, and language. For example, in the European Union the fifteen EU member states have twelve different official languages. And some countries are very protective with regard to their language traditions: French authorities have issued several decrees not to use English words in French texts. And the German government funds the native group of “Sorben” to preserve their cultural traditions and language.

Although language is an important cultural element, there is no study existing (at least to our knowledge) which has investigated this issue.

European countries have only been grouped hypothetically based on language. For example, Usunier and Sissmann (1986) have identified four European clusters: Northern, Anglo-Saxonean, Central “Lorrainean”, and Mediterranean Europe (see Figure 1). These four segments partially overlap. The German market is regarded as a “pivotal country”, belonging to three segments. This refers to the notion of a “lead country” (cf. Ohmae 1989, p. 155). The main disadvantage is that grouping countries is done by intuition of the authors. It can be questioned why Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Finland are grouped together since the Finnish language has different roots. The same criticism is true for the Mediterrean cluster; the Greek language has nothing in common with the other languages. In the following we want to address the research question whether this hypothetical clustering of European countries is empirically valid.

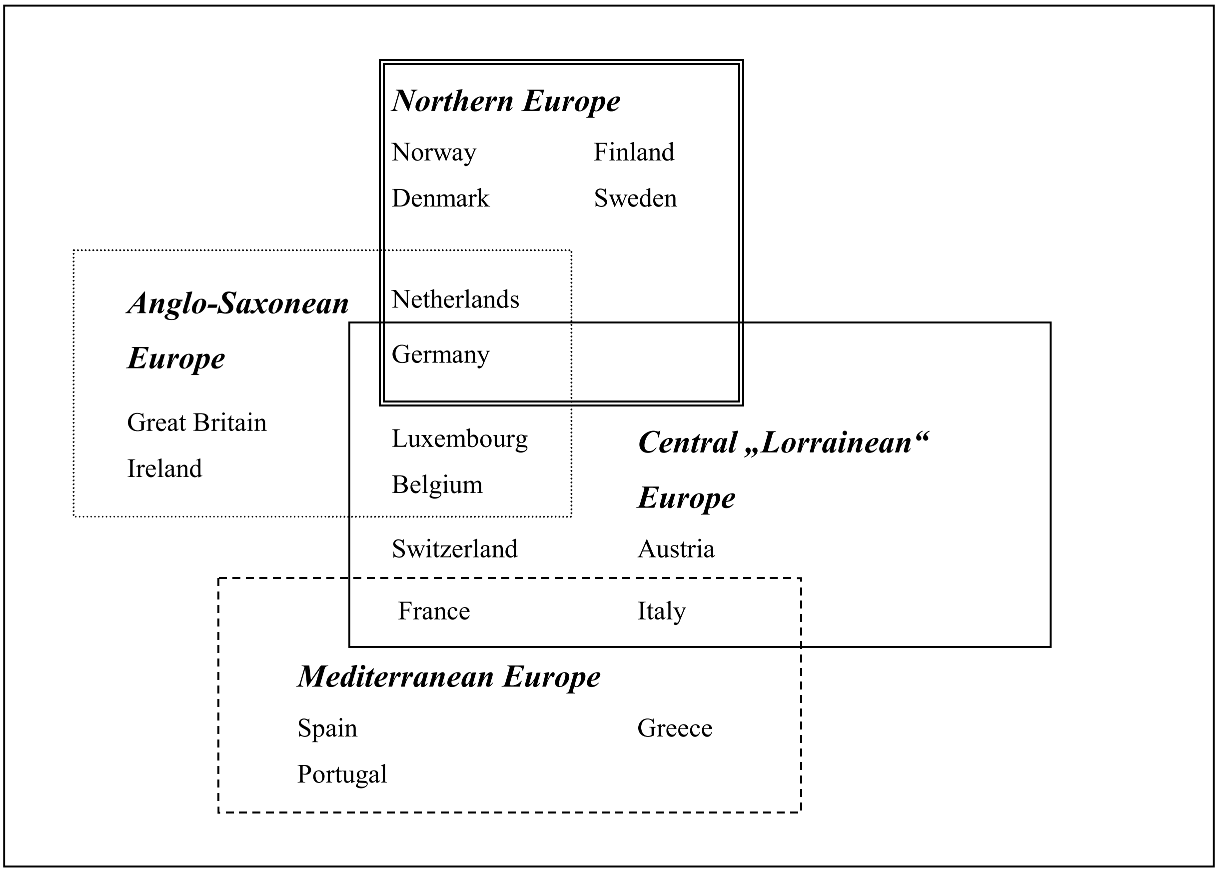

Figure 1: A Hypothetical Clustering of European Countries (Usunier/Sissmann 1986, p. 133)

EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

To address this research question outlined above, language abilities across the EU are examined. As data we re-analysed the original data set from the Reader's Digest Survey (1991). In this study on various topics, e.g. attitude and preferences for certain products, product usage, language abilities have been surveyed as well. Based on a probability sampling technique, data has been collected in 1991 by in-home interviews. The data base consists of 11.191 consumers from 16 countries which are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland. To measure language abilities three questions have been asked concerning:

- language most frequently used at home,
- spoken language performance abilities (conversation), and
- reading language performance abilities.

The set of languages included: Danish, Dutch/Flemish, English, Finnish, French, German, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Swedish.

As data analysis technique we used multiple correspondence analysis, an exploratory multivariate technique which is very similar to principal component analysis, but applicable to categorical data as well (as in our data set; Greenacre 1984; Hill 1974). The primary goal of correspondence analysis is to transform a table of numerical information (a contingency table) into a graphic display, which facilitates the interpretation.

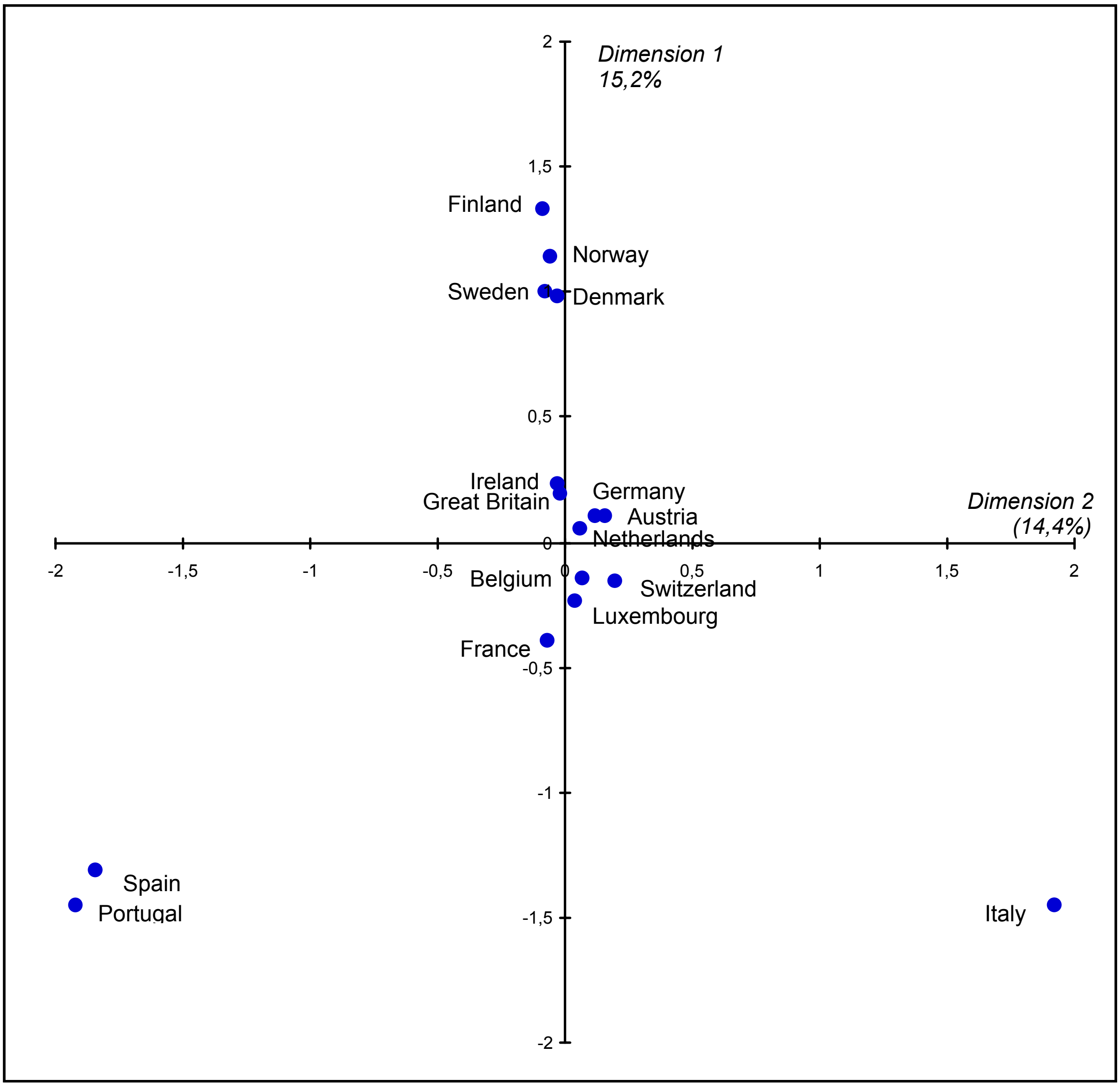

Figure 2: Positioning of 16 European Countries based on Language Capabilities (n = 11.191)

The graphical results for the countries and the first two extracted dimensions are shown in Figure 2. The total variance (inertia) is 4.47. The first two axes explain approximately 30% of the variation in the data (1st axis: 15,2%, 2nd axis: 14,4%). It is interesting to notice that the positioning of countries as a result of the correspondence analysis is comparable to a map of Europe. Nevertheless the distances based on language abilities between the countries (which can be numerically evaluated) are not the same compared to the geographic proximity.

If we look on the positioning of the countries, the first axis (in Figure 2 the vertical axis) distinguishes between the Nordic countries, Denmark, Finnland, Norway, and Sweden, and the Southern countries, Italy, Portugal, and Spain. Although, it has been hypothesised that the three countries, Italy, Portugal, and Spain belong to "Mediterranean Europe", the second axis differentiates between Italy on one side and Portugal and Spain on the other side.

In comparison to the Northern and Southern European countries, the more "Central European" countries lie closer together in the map. However, the results of the data analysis is not displayed here in its full length, the numerical analysis (inertia explained, contributions and correlations of countries with the dimensions) for higher dimensions than two reveals that three other clusters can be identified: Belgium and the Netherlands, Great Britain and Ireland, Germany, Switzerland, and Austria. Additionally, France as well as Finnland build a cluster on its own.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The empirical results suggest that the European market is heterogeneous with regard to language abilities, and it is more segmented than the hypothesised clustering has stated. Especially, the Southern European countries have a high proximity from other European countries, but do not form a homogeneous cluster; Spain and Portugal do not have very much in common with Italy, at least to the language abilities of their inhabitants. Further on, the four Nordic countries does not form a cluster; Finnish has different linguistic roots than the others. However, the Central European countries as well as the Anglo-Saxonean countries lie closer together, this result has to be differentiated if the numerical solution for higher dimension is taken into account.

Although European market conditions regarding macro-environmental factors are converging towards a single market, language in Europe still remains an important barrier to standardise marketing activities. On the supply side increasing competition caused by small home markets can lead to an increase of exporting products and services to other European countries. However, since countries differ – at least with regard to language abilities – the selection of foreign European markets becomes a difficult task. It seems to be true that not many European countries can be grouped into one cluster; so, applying a standardised marketing approach to all of them can be crucial.

Additionally, in the future, the political and economical unified Europe with its currently 15 member states and 360 million spending customers will expand to include at least 25 countries and 700 million customers. It would be interesting to study this development from the perspective, how stable existing country clusters based on language are. If new segments are added to the existing ones or if a regrouping of countries is necessary can be analysed in the future.

There are several limitations of the research presented here that should not be overlooked. The implications of this research address the question of how meaningful groupings of countries can be done based on language. This information can improve the decision for international market selection, since language is an important factor influencing the flow of information between firms and its customers. It has to be noticed that the analysis of language performance abilities has been done on country data. Unfortunately reality is more complex. National boundaries in Europe must not correspond to language boundaries. It can also be hypothesised that language performance abilities may vary within one country; especially the percentage of people speaking foreign language(s) could be higher in regions close to national borders. Therefore, it would be interesting to re-analyse the data based on the individual respondent level and to group respondents, not countries. Substantial work still needs to be done on the relationship between language and other international marketing decisions. Especially the role of language for standardisation versus customisation decision has to be addressed.

References

Appadurai, Arjun. 1990. Disjuncture and Difference in the Global Cultural Economy. In Michael Featherstone, editor. *Global Culture*. London: Sage, 295-310.

Ayal, Igal & Jehiel Zif. 1979. Market Expansion Strategies in Multinational Marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 43: 84-94.

Bradley, Frank. 1987. Nature and Significance of Internationals Marketing: A Review. *Journal of Business Research*, 15:205-19.

Bradley, Frank. 1995. *International Marketing Strategy*. 2. edition. London: Prentice Hall.

Broderick, Amanda J., Gordon Greenley & Rene D. Muller. 1998. Utilising Consumer Involvement for International Decision-Making in the Food Retail Market. In Per Andersson, editor. *Proceedings of the 27th EMAC Conference, Track 2*. Stockholm: EMAC, 481-500.

Buzzell, Robert D. 1968. Can you standardize Multinational Marketing? *Harvard Business Review*, 46(6): 102-13.

Cavusgil, S. Tamer & John R. Nevin. 1986. The State of the Art in International Marketing: An Assessment, In Subhash C. Jain & Lee R. Tucker Jr., editors. *International Marketing: Managerial Perspectives*, Boston, 27-59.

Clark, Terry. 1990. International Marketing and National Character: A Review and Proposal for an Integrative Theory. *Journal of Marketing*, 54(4): 66-79.

Craig, C. Samuel, Susan P. Douglas & A. Grein. 1992. Patterns of Convergence and Divergence among Industrialized Nations: 1960-1988. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23: 225-235.

De Mooij, Marieke. 1998. *Global Marketing and Advertising: Understanding Cultural Paradoxes*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Douglas, Susan P. & C. Samuel Craig. 1992. Advances in International Marketing. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 9: 291-318.

Douglas, Susan P. & C. Samuel Craig. 1995. *Global Marketing Strategy*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Douglas, Susan P. & C. Samuel Craig. 1997. The Changing Dynamic of Consumer Behavior: Implications for Cross-Cultural Research. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 14: 379-395.

Douglas, Susan P. & Yoram Wind. 1987. The Myth of Globalization. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 27(1): 19-29.

Dow, Douglas. 2000. A Note on Psychological Distance and Export Marketing Selection. *Journal of International Marketing*, 8(1): 51-64.

Dubois, Bernard & Gilles Laurent. 1993. Is there an Euro-Consumer for Luxury Goods? In W. Fred van Raaij & Gary Bamossy, editors. *European Advances in Consumer Research*. Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research: 58-69.

Ganesh, Jaiskankar, V. Kumar & Velavan Subramaniam. 1997. Learning Effect in Multinational Diffusion of Consumer Durables: An Exploratory Investigation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 25: 214-228.

Geraci, V.J. & W. Prewo. 1977. Bilateral Trade Flows and Transport Costs. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 59(1): 64-74.

Greenacre, Michael J. 1984. *Theory and Application of Correspondence Analysis*. London: Academic Press.

Grunert, Klaus G., Karen Brunsø & Lone Bredahl. 1998. Food-related Lifestyle in France and Germany. In I. Balderjahn, C. Mennicken & E. Vernette, editors. *New Developments and Approaches in Consumer Behaviour Research*, Stuttgart, London: Schäffer-Poeschel, MacMillan, 1-14.

Hill, M.O. 1974. Correspondence Analysis: A Neglected Multivariate Method. *Applied Statistics*, 23: 340-354.

Hofstede, Geert. 1980. *Cultural Consequences: International Differences in Work Related Values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Jain, Subhash C. 1989. Standardization of International Marketing: Some Research Hypotheses. *Journal of Marketing*, 53(1): 70-9.

Johanson, Jan & Jan-Erik Vahlne. 1977. The Internationalization Process of the Firm. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 7(4): 11-24.

Kotler, Philip. 1990. Globalization – Realities and Strategies. *Die Unternehmung*, 44(2): 79-99.

Leeflang, Peter S.H. & W. Fred van Raaij. 1995. The Changing Consumer in the European Union: 'A Meta-Analysis'. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 12: 373-387.

Levitt, Theodore. 1983. The Globalization of Markets. *Harvard Business Review*, 61(3): 92-102.

Meffert, Heribert & Joachim Bolz. 1995. Erfolgswirkungen der internationalen Marketingstandardisierung. *Marketing ZFP*, 17: 99-109.

Mintzberg, Henry & Joseph Lampel. 1999. Reflecting on the Strategy Process. *Sloan Management Review*, 40(3): 21-30.

Naroll, Raoul. 1970. The Cultural-Bearing Unit in Cross-Cultural Surveys. In Raoul Naroll & Ronald Cohen, editors. *Handbook of Method in Cultural Anthropology*. New York, 721-765.

Nordström, Kjell A. 1991. The Internationalization Process of the Firm: Searching for New Patterns and Explanations. Doctoral Dissertation. Stockholm: Stockholm School of Economics.

Ohmae, Kenichi. 1989. Managing in a Borderless World. *Harvard Business Review*, 67(3): 152-61.

Quelch, John A. & Edward J. Hoff. 1986. Customizing Global Marketing. *Harvard Business Review*, 64(3): 59-68.

Reader's Digest. 1991. *Eurodata - A Consumer Survey of 17 European Countries*. New York, London: Reader's Digest.

Rynning, Marjo & Otto Andersen. 1995. The International Market Selection: Why Do Firms Not Adopt a Systematic Approach? In Michèle Bergadàa, editor. *Proceedings of 24th EMAC Conference*. Cergy-Pontoise: EMAC, 1055-1068.

Saphir, Eward. 1929. The Status of Linguistics as a Science. *Language*, 5: 207-214.

Segal-Horn, Susan & David Faulkner. 1999. *The Dynamics of International Strategy*. London: International Thompson Business Press.

Sethi, S.P. 1971. Comparative Cluster Analysis for World Market*s. Journal of Marketing Research*, 8: 348-354.

Sojka, Jane Z. & Partiya S. Tansuhaj. 1995. Cross-cultural consumer research: a twenty-year review. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 22: 461-74.

Steenkamp, Jan Benedict E.M., George Avlonitis, Klaus G. Grunert et al. 1995. Consumer-Led Approach to Food in the EU. In Michèle Bergadàa, editor. *Proceedings of 24th EMAC Conference*. Cergy-Pontoise: EMAC, 2009-2018.

Srivastava, R.K. & Robert T. Green. 1986. Determinants of Bilateral Trade. *Journal of Business*, 59(4): 623-640.

Tamilia, Robert D. 1978. Defining Cultural Groups for Cross-Cultural Marketing Studies:

The Canadian Case. *Developments in Marketing Science*, 1: 82-86.

Usunier, Jean-Claude. 1996. *Marketing across Cultures*. 2. edition. London: Prentice Hall.

Usunier, Jean-Claude. 1998. *International & Cross-Cultural Management Research*. London, Thousand Oaks, and New Delhi: Sage.

Usunier, Jean-Claude & P. Sissmann. 1986. L'Interculturel au Service du Marketing . *Harvard-L'Expansion*, 40 (1): 80-92.

Vahlne, Jan-Erik & Kjell A. Nordström. 1992. *Is the Globe Shrinking? Psychic Distance and the Establishment of Swedish Subsidiaries During the Last 100 Years*, Working Paper 92/3. Stockholm: Stockholm School of Economics, Institute of International Business.

Whorf, Benjamin Lee 1941. The Relation of Habitual Thought and Behavior to Language. In L. Spier, editor. *Language, Culture, and Personality. Essays in Memory of Eward Saphir*. Menasha, 73-93.

Wiedersheim-Paul, Finn, Hans C. Olson & Lawrence S. Welch. 1976. Pre-Export Activity: The First Step in Internationalization. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 9: 47-58.