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Sound Symbolism Effects Across Languages: Implications for

Global Brand Names

L. J. Shrum^a Tina M. Lowrey^a David Luna^b Dawn B. Lerman^c Min Liu^a

^aUniversity of Texas at San Antonio, Dept. of Marketing One UTSA Circle San Antonio, TX 78249 Email: <u>lj.shrum@utsa.edu</u> <u>tina.lowrey@utsa.edu</u> <u>min.liu@utsa.edu</u>

^bBaruch College, City University of New York New York, NY 10010 <u>david.luna@baruch.cuny.edu</u>

^cFordham University 113 West 60th Street, New York, NY 10023 <u>lerman@fordham.edu</u>

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L. J. Shrum^a

Tina M. Lowrey^a

David Luna^b

Dawn B. Lerman^c

Min Liu^a

^aUniversity of Texas at San Antonio, Dept. of Marketing

One UTSA Circle

San Antonio, TX 78249

Email: <u>lj.shrum@utsa.edu</u>

tina.lowrey@utsa.edu

min.liu@utsa.edu

^bBaruch College, City University of New York

New York, NY 10010

david.luna@baruch.cuny.edu

^cFordham University

113 West 60th Street, New York, NY 10023

lerman@fordham.edu

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Abstract

Selecting good brand names for products is a critical step for marketers, and many aspects of the name influence brand perceptions. Three experiments investigated the effects of phonetic symbolism (the impact of sound on meaning) on brand name preference, the extent to which these effects generalize to other languages, and the processes that underlie these effects. When choosing brand names, French-, Spanish-, and Chinese-speaking participants who were bilingual in English preferred words in which there was a match between the phonetic symbolism of the words and the product attributes. These results were unaffected by whether participants completed the study in their first or second language, by second-language proficiency, or by whether the Chinese language representations were in logographic or alphabetic form. These findings provide a replication of Lowrey and Shrum (2007), and indicate that phonetic symbolism effects for brand name perceptions can generalize across languages, and thus suggest that marketers may be able to embed universal meaning in their brand names.

Keywords: Phonetic symbolism, sound symbolism, brand names, psycholinguistics JEL Classification Code: M31

1. Introduction

Selecting good brand names for products is a critical step for marketers. Good brand names can enhance memorability, create favorable images, increase preference for the products, and are an important component in building brand equity (Aaker, 1996). Poor brand names can of course have the opposite effect, with the Ford Edsel as a case-in-point: The pervasive dislike for the brand name has been implicated as a major reason for the failure of the brand (Klink, 2000). It is thus no surprise that the construction and testing of brand names is itself a big business (Kohli & LaBahn, 1997).

The brand naming process is made that much more difficult by the globalization of markets. Fortunately, commonalities between languages sometimes make it possible to derive benefits from the same brand name in multiple markets. For example, the L'Oreal brand *Hydrovive* has a similar meaning in French and English because the two languages share the letter combinations of the morphemes *hydro* and *vive*, as well as their respective meanings (moisture and life; Lerman, 2007). However, in many cases, desirable brand names in one market may be detrimental in another.

Brand name challenges are magnified further when Western brands are introduced into a market like China, where the language is based on an entirely different writing system. Consider, for example, the Hydrovive brand in China. The combination of sounds do not map onto the same meanings, or perhaps any meaning, as they do in English and French. In such cases, the marketer must make a choice (Zhang & Schmitt, 2001). One option is to translate the name into Chinese, thus abandoning the sound, in order to find a name with a similar meaning. The other option is phonetic translation or transliteration, abandoning the meaning in order to maintain the sound. A third (but more difficult) option is to translate phonosemantically, that is, to translate

sound with meaning (Dong & Helms, 2001). Thus, most firms must choose between maintaining the phonetic brand sound and preserving the meaning of the brand name (Francis, Lam, & Walls, 2002; for a review, see Zhang & Schmitt, 2007).

In the examples just mentioned, the phonetic qualities pertain to preserving the sound of the name across translations. However, what if the actual sound of the name itself conveys meaning? Moreover, what if the extent of this effect differs across languages? If so, it has important implications for considering the sound of the word when constructing new brand names, as well as for the translation strategies that might be adopted. In the research we report here, we investigate this concept and its implications for brand name construction. A long line of research in psycholinguistics suggests that sounds convey meaning apart from their semantic connotations, a concept referred to as phonetic symbolism or sound symbolism (for a review, see French, 1977). Recent research in marketing has demonstrated that phonetic symbolism has implications for brand name perceptions and preferences (for a review, see Shrum & Lowrey, 2007). However, the extent to which these findings generalize to other languages and writing systems has not been sufficiently addressed, something that is clearly crucial for applying previous findings to international brand-naming contexts.

To address this issue, we report a study that is a replication of previous work (Lowrey & Shrum, 2007), but does so in a context relevant to global brand name construction. Specifically, we investigate these effects across multiple languages, including one with a non-alphabetic writing system (Chinese logographic), do so in a bilingual context by testing whether the effects also occur in a consumer's second language, and test whether the effects vary by second-language proficiency. The international context of the investigation allows us to generalize brand name construction recommendations to global marketing and advertising situations.

2. Theoretical development

2.1 Phonetic symbolism and brand name development

Phonetic symbolism refers to a non-arbitrary relation between sound and meaning. It suggests that the mere sound of a word, apart from its actual definition, conveys meaning. Research supporting this notion has shown that the distinct sounds resulting from different letter combinations are consistently associated with the magnitude of concepts such as size, weight, speed, hardness, and so forth, at rates above those predicted by chance (French, 1977). For example, front vowel sounds (such as the [i] vowel sound in *pip*), in which the tongue is positioned toward the front of the mouth, are associated with perceptions such as smaller, faster, brighter, harder, whereas back vowel sounds (the tongue is toward the back of the mouth, as with the [ä] vowel sound in *pop*) are associated with perceptions such as larger, slower, darker, softer. Similar associations have also been documented for consonants (Klink, 2000).

Recent research has extended the concept of phonetic symbolism to brand name perceptions and preferences. For example, when presented with fictitious brand names, people perceived names with back vowels to be associated with concepts such as thicker (ketchup), darker (beer), and creamier (ice cream) compared to names with front vowel sounds (cf. Klink, 2000; Yorkston & Menon, 2004). More recent research has extended these findings to show that brand attitudes and preferences can be enhanced when the fit between the phonetically induced perceptions of a brand name and the product's attributes is maximized. Lowrey and Shrum (2007) constructed fictitious brand names that varied only by one vowel, which represented the manipulation of the front/back vowel sound distinction (e.g., tiddip vs. toddip). Relative to back vowels, front vowel sounds are perceived to be faster, smaller, sharper, cleaner, crisper, and so forth. Consistent with the phonetic symbolism hypothesis, front vowel sound words were preferred over back when participants were asked to choose a brand name for a convertible or a knife, by about a 2-1 margin. However, just the opposite was true when asked to choose a brand name for an SUV or a hammer, again by about a 2-1 margin.

Although research on phonetic symbolism and brand names suggests that the sounds of brand names influence brand name preferences, there are clear limitations of these studies that inhibit their applicability to international contexts. These limitations include the fact that the majority of research in the area has been conducted only in English and in the U.S., has used only alphabetic writing systems, and has not accounted for possible language proficiency effects when the brand name is foreign-sounding or presented in a second-language context.

2.3 Hypotheses

To address these shortcomings, we conducted a replication of Lowrey and Shrum (2007), but varied a number of factors to test the extent to which the findings generalize across situations applicable to international brands. The primary hypothesis we tested is that particular words will be preferred as brand names when the phonetic connotations of the words are consistent with the product attributes. We also varied the language in which the study was presented (English, Spanish, French, Chinese), whether the language was the first or second language for bilingual speakers, and for Chinese language administrations, whether the writing system was alphabetic or logographic. We also measured language proficiency. For these language factors, our expectations were less clear. First, although phonetic symbolism effects have been noted in quite a number of languages (Ultan, 1978), it is not clear whether the magnitude of the effects are similar across languages (Brown, 1958; Sapir, 1929). Second, although fluent and non-fluent speakers process second-language information differently (Luna & Peracchio, 2001; Zhang & Schmitt, 2004), it is not clear whether such processing differences influence phonetic symbolism effects. Third, theorists hold differing views on whether phonetic symbolism effects should be observed for logographic word representations (cf. Chua, 1999; Fang, Horng, & Tzeng, 1986; McCusker, Hillinger, & Bias, 1981; Perfetti & Zhang, 1991).

4. Experiments 1a – 1c

4.1 Method

Data collections in three countries (Experiments 1a – 1c) were conducted to test the different possibilities just raised. The experiments represented a close replication of Lowrey and Shrum (2007), which crossed vowel sound with product category (see that study for more specific details). Spanish-, French- and Chinese-speaking participants who were fluent in English expressed preferences between brand name pairs that differed only in their primary vowel sound (front versus back), and did so as a function of product category. In addition, Chinese-speaking participants received brand name stimuli that were constructed using either alphabetic letters or logographic symbols. We also manipulated whether participants completed the experiment in English or a different language and we measured their proficiency in the two focal languages. *4.1.1 Participants, procedure, and measures*

Participants in Experiments 1a – 1c spoke French, Spanish, or Chinese, and were also bilingual in English. Participants in Experiment 1a (n = 106, 58 women, 47 men, 1 missing; M_{age} = 23.7 yrs., SD = 2.57) were undergraduates at a French university, participants in Experiment 1b (n = 88, 39 women, 48 men, 1 missing; $M_{age} = 23.6$ yrs., SD = 5.53) were undergraduates at a U.S. university with a substantial proportion of Hispanic students, and participants in Experiment 1c (n = 181, 104 women, 77 men; $M_{age} = 31.8$ yrs., SD = 7.56) were Chinese participants who were recruited by students in a graduate research course at a university in Taipei. Participants in all three experiments received the same set of stimuli in the form of questionnaires that differed only in the language in which the questionnaires were administered. They were told that they were participating in a study of brand names. In the first part of the questionnaire, participants were presented with a series of six word pairs (due to translation errors, only four word pairs were used in Chinese logographic conditions). Each word pair differed only by one vowel, which represented the phonetic symbolism manipulation of front versus back vowel sounds. Artificial words were used to avoid semantic associations. Although the artificial words are not technically translated because they have no meaning, the instructions were translated across languages, a process that was expected to prime that language's pronunciations and sound associations. Order of presentation was counterbalanced, and all words were separately evaluated by individuals who were bilingual in English and the target language to ensure that the pronunciation of the words was as intended did not closely resemble a real word, which might prime some semantic association. The set of stimuli are shown in Table 1.

(Insert Table 1 about here)

Participants were asked to indicate their preferences between each word pair as brand names for a 4 X 4 vehicle, a hammer, a 2-seater convertible, or a knife. Product categories were pretested to establish that they were properly understood. Because we had similar predictions for the 4 X 4 vehicle and hammer, and for the 2-seater convertible and knife, to conserve power we combined the product categories so that some participants expressed brand name preferences for both a 4 X 4 vehicle and a hammer (three word pairs for each; order was randomized), and other participants expressed brand name preferences for both a 2-seater convertible and a knife (three word pairs for each; order was randomized). This allowed us to collapse across product categories for which back vowel words (4 X 4, hammer) or front vowel words (convertible, knife) were expected to be preferred, if circumstances warranted. Finally, we manipulated the language in which the study was administered: in English, in the language that was the focus of that particular experiment (French, Spanish, or Chinese), and for Experiment 1c, in either Chinese alphabetic or logographic depictions.

Following the brand name preference exercise, participants completed a 13-item language proficiency scale (α = .92) that measured their proficiency in both English and either French, Spanish, or Chinese (Luna, Ringberg, & Peracchio, 2008). Participants also indicated their age, gender, and which language was their first language. Finally, they were asked to indicate what they believed the purpose of the study to be (none correctly guessed the purpose). *4.2 Results*

4.2.1 Effects of sound as a function of product

Our focal hypothesis was that preference for front versus back vowel sound words as brand names will vary as a function of product category: Front vowel sound words will be preferred over back for 2-seater convertible and knife, and back vowel sound words will be preferred over front for 4 X 4 vehicle and hammer. Thus, we expected a crossover interaction between vowel sound and product. To test these possibilities, we first created continuous dependent variables that represented the proportion of front and back vowel sound words chosen for each product category (e.g., preferring three back vowel words out six = 50%).

Preliminary analyses indicated that, as expected, responses did not differ as a function of whether the brand name was for a 2-seater convertible or knife, or as a function of whether the brand name was for a 4 X 4 vehicle or hammer. Thus, we combined the two pairs to form two product categories: convertible and knife, and 4 X 4 and hammer. The effects of order and gender were not significant, and thus were not included in the analysis. Next, we combined data

from all three experiments into one dataset, and coded experiment as an independent variable. In order to assess the effects of the alphabetic versus logographic administration in experiment 1c, we coded these as two separate experiments for the sake of the analyses. We then conducted a 2 (vowel sound) \times 2 (product category) \times 4 (experiment) mixed model analysis of variance (ANOVA), with vowel sound a within-subjects factor, and product and experiment betweensubjects factors. This analysis allows us to test our overall hypothesis but also determine whether findings differed significantly across experiments.

As predicted, the interaction between vowel sound and product category was significant (F(1, 367) = 63.87, p < .001). The preference results as a function of vowel sound and product category can be seen in the top panel of Table 2. Replicating Lowrey and Shrum (2007), front vowel sound words were preferred over back for convertible and knife (58% to 42%; t(188) = 5.33, p < .0005, one-tailed). In contrast, for 4 X 4 vehicle and hammer, the predicted opposite pattern was observed: Back vowel sound words were preferred over front (59% to 41%; t(185)= 5.37, p < .0005, one-tailed). Thus, the predicted crossover interaction was observed.

4.2.2 Effects of language and language proficiency

The three-way interaction between sound, product, and experiment fell just short of significance (F(3, 367) = 2.61, p = .052). To decompose this interaction, we performed sound × product ANOVAs for each experiment. The findings from this analysis can be seen in the middle and lower panels of Table 2. The results show that the pattern of effects for the four conditions is consistent: The expected crossover interaction in which majority preference for front versus back vowel sound words changes as a function of product category was observed in each instance (all ps < .006). Individual paired comparisons within product for each experiment indicated the predicted differences were also significant (all ps < .02, one-tailed), with two exceptions, but

both in the expected direction. For Experiment 1c (Chinese-alphabetic), the expected preference for front vowel sound words (53%) over back (47%) for 2-seater convertible and knife was not significant (p > .15), and also for Experiment 1c (Chinese-logographic), the expected preference for back vowel sounds (54%) over front (46%) for 4 X 4 and hammer was not significant (p > .20).

An inspection of the results also shows that the size of the effects vary somewhat across experiments, which accounts for the three-way interaction. In particular, effect sizes for the French and the Chinese logographic conditions tend to be larger than the other two, and with the Chinese logographic effect sizes being primarily driven by the front vowel sound effect for convertible/knife category. Further analyses confirmed this observation, with the effect size of the Chinese logographic condition differing from the Spanish (p < .05) and Chinese alphabetic (p< .03) administrations. The difference between the French and the Chinese alphabetic effect sizes approached significance (p < .07).

Finally, we also tested whether the effects differed as a function of language proficiency (scale measure) or whether the stimuli were administered in participants' first or second language. Neither variable had any significant influence (both Fs < 1 for each interaction), nor did their inclusion alter the interaction between vowel sound and product category.

(Insert Table 2 about here)

5. General discussion

Inputs into brand name perceptions are surely numerous and complex, and a number of factors may influence consumers' preferences for one brand name over another. In the studies presented here, we showed that the sound of a name, through its phonetic symbolism, is one factor that influences brand name preference. Across three experiments, we showed that

preference for a particular brand name over another not only can be influenced by the fit between the name's phonetic symbolism and the attributes of the product, but in fact the preference as a function of this fit can be reversed. Moreover, we showed that this effect is remarkably stable. We demonstrated the effect in four different languages—English, French, Spanish, and Chinese—and in the latter, for both alphabetic and logographic language formats. We also showed that these effects hold equally for one's own language and for bilinguals in a second language. For the bilingual conditions, we also showed that this effect does not appear to be affected by language proficiency.

These results add to the growing literature on marketing applications of phonetic symbolism effects. They also provide a theoretical contribution, particularly with respect to processing of logographic versus alphabetic scripts. The findings suggest that phonetic information is encoded from brands when they are written in logographic scripts, affecting perceptions of those brands, at least when semantic information is minimized by using artificial logographs that are the equivalent of non-words (pseudologographs). Moreover, these findings appear to be relatively automatic (Yorkston & Menon, 2004). Although the effectiveness of any phonetic manipulation may depend on the extent to which naming strategies (phonetic, semantic, phonosemantic) prime a phonetic versus semantic emphasis (Zhang & Schmitt, 2001, 2007), our results suggest that phonetics do play a role.

5.1 Managerial implications

Our research has implications for managers looking to introduce their brands into foreign markets. The general findings from previous research on the marketing applications of phonetic symbolism are that sound does convey meaning, and thus represents one more controllable input into developing good brand names. However, previous research has been constrained predominantly by Western, English-speaking contexts, which makes the generalizability of the managerial implications and applications problematic. Our research shows that the managerial implications can be extended to other languages in a bilingual context. This is good news for managers debating branding strategies for extending their well-established brand names into foreign markets. Our research suggests that qualities implied from the sound of the brand name will generalize. It is also good news for managers who are constructing new brand names. They can feel more confident in a strategy using the same name in multiple markets.

Although our findings have some specific implications for brand name development based on the front/back distinction we tested, we want to stress some limitations as well. For example, our findings imply that one might be well-served to use front vowel sounds for smaller automobiles and back vowel sounds for larger ones. Although some common examples of real brand names consistent with this logic easily come to mind (e.g., Hummer, Tundra (Toyota) for large, powerful vehicles; Prius (Toyota), Twingo (Renault) for small, light vehicles), exceptions are also easily generated (e.g., Ford Focus for a small car, Chevrolet Equinox for a large SUV).

Three important points are worth noting. First, our focus on the front/back distinction was primarily to test a theoretical proposition: Does the sound of a brand name influence perceptions and preferences that are generalizable across languages for bilinguals? The decision to use only the front/back distinction and hold all other sounds constant was a methodological choice to maximize construct validity. For real brand names, however, the situation is much more complex. The front/back distinction refers to vowel sounds, but there are a number of consonant sounds that have been shown to influence perceptions as well. Examples include fricatives versus stops, and voiceless versus voiced consonants. Moreover, not only are these two sets of categorizations orthogonal (and thus one can have voiced and voiceless fricatives), but some

categorizations also have further dimensions (e.g., occlusive vs. nasal stops). All of these categorizations have been shown to influence perceptions through their sound symbolism (Shrum & Lowrey, 2007).

Thus, the main recommendation that emerges from phonetic symbolism research for brand name creation is that marketers should attempt to maximize the sound-attribute fit. Such fit must be calibrated based on a detailed knowledge of how the sounds of brand names map onto their respective meanings across multiple dimensions. Our point is that knowledge of phonetic symbolism effects would be useful in the brand naming process, both by enhancing sound associations and avoiding bad ones.

The second point we want to stress is that there is much more to a word than just its sound, and in fact sound may often play a very minor role in relation to semantics in constructing brand names. This is evident in the counterexamples we just mentioned for naming vehicles. Although the Focus and the Equinox may violate the front/back guideline, the names clearly have a meaning, and it is reasonable to assume that semantic connotations will often overwhelm sound connotations. However, when considering two equally attractive brand names that convey meaning through their semantic associations, sound symbolism may provide an added value.

The third point we want to make concerns whether we should expect to see evidence of sound symbolism across brand names for a particular product category, such as the automobile category we chose as our stimuli. The answer depends on a number of variables. One is whether particular product categories tend toward the use of semantics in constructing brand names. In such cases, one might expect to see evidence of the effect only in instances in which the names are fictitious. Although most product categories may rely much more heavily on semantics than phonetics, there are also well known brand names that are made up (Kodak, Exxon).

That said, there are some product categories that may tend more toward the use of fictitious names, particularly those likely to use numeric or alphanumeric brand names (Pavia & Costa, 1993). One particular product category that tends almost entirely toward the use of fictitious brand names is medication trade names (e.g., Avistin, Taxol, both cancer medications), and in fact there is some evidence that phonetic symbolism may be related to the development of brand names in that category. Abel and Glinert (2008) coded the trade names of 60 frequently-used cancer medications in terms of the frequency in which they had voiced or voiceless consonants. They reasoned that because voiceless consonants are associated with concepts such as smaller, lighter, and faster (Klink, 2000; Newman, 1933), medication trade names with voiceless consonants might be associated with more tolerable chemotherapy, and thus more likely to be used in trade names than voiced consonants. They found this was indeed the case: Voiceless consonants were used in cancer medication brand names more often than would be predicted by their base rate in the English language.

In conclusion, the results of this research replicate the findings of previous research that shows that phonetic symbolism influences brand name perceptions, and that brand name preference can be enhanced when the fit between the concepts associated with the sound of the brand name and the attributes of the product are maximized. In addition, the results extend previous findings by showing that they generalize to other languages in both alphabetic and logographic writing systems, have similar effects for bilinguals in both their first and second languages, and hold regardless of language proficiency. Thus, an understanding of phonetic symbolism effects represents an additional tool for brand managers when constructing brand names, including names for international brands.

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TABLE 1

k Vowel Sound Words	Front Vowel Sound Words
Glav	Gliv
格啦芙 (ge la fu)	格理芙 (ge li fu)
Frag	Frig
弗樂珠 (fu le zhu)	弗莉珠 (fu li zhu)
Brado	Brido
布啦島 (bu la dao)	布尼島 (bu ni dao
Prash	Prish
普啦斯 (pu la si)	普莉斯 (pu li si)
Urad	Urid
Plam	Plim

WORD PAIR STIMULI (EXP. 1A – 1C)

NOTE. — Alphabetic words were used for all experiments. The logographic representations were administered to only half of the participants in Experiment 1c, and those participants saw only the logographic representations. The alphabetic representation and logographic representations are shown together here for illustration only, as are the pronunciations.

TABLE 2

EXPERIMENT 1A – 1C: BRAND NAME PREFERENCE AS A FUNCTION OF VOWEL SOUND, PRODUCT CATEGORY, AND LANGUAGE CONDITIONS

	All Languages Combined	
Product category	% front vowel words preferred	% back vowel words preferred
Convertible/Knife	58% ^a	42% ^b
4 X 4 SUV/Hammer	41% ^a	59% ^b
	French (Exp. 1a)	
Product category	% front vowel words preferred	% back vowel words preferred
Convertible/Knife	60% ^a	40% ^b
4 X 4 SUV/Hammer	37% ^a	63% ^b

Spanish (Exp. 1b)

	% front vowel	% back vowel	
Product category	words preferred	words preferred	
Convertible/Knife	56% ^a	44% ^b	
4 X 4 SUV/Hammer	42% ^a	58% ^b	
	Chinese Alphabetic (Exp. 1c)		
	% front vowel	% back vowel	
Product category	words preferred	words preferred	
Convertible/Knife	53% ^a	47% ^a	
4 X 4 SUV/Hammer	41% ^a	59% ^b	
	Chinese Logographic (Exp. 1c)		
	% front vowel	% back vowel	
Product category	words preferred	words preferred	
Convertible/Knife	76% ^a	24% ^b	
4 X 4 SUV/Hammer	46% ^a	54% ^a	

NOTE. — Comparing across columns, numbers with different superscripts differ at p < .05, one-tailed.