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A Linguistic and Cultural Analysis of Localisation Practices on Oil and
Gas Company Websites

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Robert Gordon University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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## **Abstract**

Oil and Gas companies have the inevitable need to operate in a global environment and therefore have a global reach. This thesis seeks to understand the nature and degree of localisation of the websites in this industry. This thesis introduces two notions of 'global', and seeks to examine the relationship between them: the first of which is the Global reach or operations of companies and the second is where a company's communication is localised in language and cultural terms. A company can be seen to be 'global' in one of these two notions and it is this relationship that this thesis seeks to explore.

The contribution of this thesis firstly, is that it adds to previous studies of website localisation, which have focused primarily on consumer goods and the retail industry, by examining a different kind of industry. Secondly, it takes into account the important semiotic and symbolic dimensions of language and culture when looking at localisation practices. The thesis thus contributes to the growing literature on website localisation and practices in Multinational companies. This study was carried out on 387 corporate and country specific websites of 16 Oil and Gas Companies to understand the extent and nature of their localisation practises particularly the way that language and culture are presented. The websites were studied using a qualitative and quantitative research design which involved carrying out a linguistic/semiotic analysis and a cultural analysis to give a balanced perspective of localisation practices.

The conclusions of the study were that the companies operated a 'glocal' strategy, a combination of both a localised and a globalised (standardised) strategy. The companies had a combination of globally standardised features such as the website layouts, images, colour schemes, logos and the use of global celebrities on their websites and a limited degree of localisation where the 'local' is signified by local country websites, local news stories, local languages, local celebrities, images of local sights, images of company's local office buildings and local petrol stations.

**Keywords:** Localisation, Website Localisation, Corporate Websites, Oil and Gas, Culture, Language, Translation, Semiotics, Hofstede, Globalisation

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## CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction

This Chapter provides an introduction and 'sets the scene' for the entire dissertation. This section gives an introduction into the types of companies that can be seen in the globalised business world and identifies how the companies studied in this research relate to this typology. This section also discusses the rationale and the motivation to carry out this research and the benefits it will have to the body of research. The aims and objectives of this study are also explained in detail. The research problems are listed in this Chapter and provide an understanding into why there was a need to carry out this research. The structure of the research is also provided which gives a detailed explanation of what is contained within each chapter and within the sections of each chapter to make it easier for the reader.

This dissertation explores the contents, semiotics and visual communication on websites of 16 Multinational Oil and Gas companies in order to understand the extent and nature of their website localisation practices, if any. Of particular interest is the way that language and culture are represented on their websites. Globalisation has brought about the need for most companies to expand into different cultures and languages (Hubbard 2013, Maynard and Tian 2004) and as a result, companies need to find a way to adjust their activities and communication styles to match their target audience. Globalisation in the context of this research is introduced as having two major dimensions. The first dimension is that companies could be seen as being 'global' because of their global reach, in other words, these companies are operational in most countries of the world: this is the common definition of a global company. Companies in the Oil and Gas industry fall under the first dimension, where a company is seen as being 'global' because of its global reach, as most of them have a global reach and are operational in most countries of the world. The second dimension is that companies could be seen as being global depending on the degree of localisation of its website and other marketing communications in the countries where it carries out its operations, regardless of whether it has multiple global locations or not.

The background to this research stems from this existent trend of globalisation and internationalisation of Oil and Gas companies. Due to the nature of the Oil and Gas industry, there is a need to operate across several locations, cultures and languages. To

manage these differences, Oil and Gas companies need an understanding of language management strategies. The research problem to be investigated was therefore to understand how the Oil and Gas industry interacts with these language issues and the extent and nature of their website localisation to suit the language and cultural differences of their target audience. As companies grow, one can say there is a genuine need for them to adapt their communication practices to suit their target audience. As they also expand into countries whose first language is not English, there is a further need to localise their website and language use to suit their target employees and market. This dissertation also investigates the various factors which can affect a company's localisation and language management strategy, including: the language zones covered and the symbolic importance of these languages; representation of the 'local' and the 'global' and the balance between these; the economic power of the areas covered by the companies and their place in the companies' strategy.

As the world becomes global, the need arises to have the ability to interact with others in various different languages in order to get a message across, to do business and sometimes to survive. Globalisation brings about a systemised need for communication within companies that operate across cultures and different languages and this can only be achieved through the practice of effective language management. Diversity can either pose a great challenge to effective language management or act as an asset within the company depending on how the companies react to the challenge of globalisation. Companies can either see diversity and globalisation as an asset or they could see it as a problem that needs to be overcome. The practices of the companies which this dissertation examines – language management and translation, visual representation and symbolism – will enable some contribution to an understanding of how the companies react to this challenge.

Companies currently in the process of globalisation or who are already operating in different locations will be confronted with issues of diversity which they may want to tackle on their websites. The main two dilemmas that companies, especially multinational oil and gas companies, usually consider when they think of localising are firstly, image problems in some parts of the world concerning their size, practices, operational policies, particularly when they involve issues relating to the environment and environmental pollution of any kind. This plays a major factor in their localisation practices. The second is the economic power of their target location and its economic relevance to the individual company. This is mainly because the parts of the world in which they operate are economically powerful in terms of markets to these companies and as Kelly-Holmes

(2006) identified, this will have an impact on translation and the degree of cultural adaptation of their websites. To these companies, it matters to what degree the countries in which they operate have commercial value to them or not, and this may determine whether it is worthwhile localising or not. This research therefore looks at the economic, cultural and linguistic/translation aspects of localisation particularly in the oil and gas industry.

This research was based on a study of 16 companies in the oil and gas industry, which varied in size, location of headquarter and the type of oil and gas operations in which the companies are involved with. As a result, the researcher was able to capture information using a sample based on company size, type of activity language zones and countries, representing a cross-section of the localisation practices of oil and gas companies. In terms of reach of the companies, all the main continental regions of Africa, Europe, Asia and America were covered in this research to gain a global perspective of localisation practices. A more detailed description of the companies chosen and the rationale behind their choice can be found in the Methodology Chapter of this thesis.

## 1.2 Original Contribution to Knowledge

This section explains what the original contribution of this research is and what the research gaps are. Although a number of studies have been carried out in the area of website localisation (Smith et al. 2004, Fan and Tsai 2010, Shneor 2012, Rau and Liang 2003) and how it ties into language and culture (Baack and Singh 2007, González-Trejo 2010), there remains an open question about what website localisation strategies are used in the oil and gas industry. Other studies have also looked at industries which produce consumer goods for various countries, whereas, the oil and gas industry on the other hand, is a different type of industry because it is involved with exploration, exploitation, and providing services, and does not have products that can be localised to suit each specific location. It is also an industry which is hugely powerful, symbolic, and has a strong image dimension to it, in other words, the industry has image problems, of which it is aware, and thus this research seeks to examine this symbolic dimension.

Many existing studies to date are limited in that they mainly operate as either purely linguistic studies (Kelly-Holmes 2006, Hillier 2003, Lee 2009, Martin 2011), or just use cultural dimensions to map cultural variation (Baack and Singh (2007), Al-Badi and Mayhew (2010), Chao et al. (2012), Singh and Pereira (2005), Cyr and Trevor-Smith

(2004), Würtz (2006), Singh and Baack (2004), Tsikriktsis (2002)). The second contribution of this research is therefore that it takes into account the important semiotic and symbolic dimensions of language and culture which very few existing studies do. Applying both semiotic, linguistic and cultural evaluations to this research gives a new dimension on the global communication practices in the Oil and Gas industry. The focus on cultural translation also identifies the issue of economic power each country location has for these companies and how this affects the efforts they put into their localisation practices.

This research also contributes to and reflects the increased concern with the role that language plays in international management and organizational studies and supports studies such as that carried out by Tietze (2008) on international management and language.

## 1.3 Overview of Types of Companies

This section provides both an operational/functional and communicative/cultural definition of what multinational companies are and provides a background to the research problem and the type of company studied. Companies can be classed into different types depending on where they operate, the origin of their globalisation (that is in terms of companies that are born global and companies that become global as they grow and expand), the size of the company, and the rate at which they have expanded. Oil and gas companies can also be classed into any one of these categories although most of them tend to fall into the global or multinational categories due to the nature of the industry. Various types of companies exist in the business world today and they can be subdivided into Global Companies, Born Global Companies and Multinational Companies. However, the main type of company which concerns this research is the Multinational Company.

## 1.3.1 Operational and Functional Definitions of Multinational Companies

Multinational companies, which are the focus of this study, have been defined in various ways based on the context in which these definitions are used. This section details the operational definitions that exist for multinational companies. Multinational companies have mainly been described as business organisations with activities in more than two countries with at least one of the countries being in a global city (Bartlett and Ghoshal 1993). Defining it from the operational perspective or criteria, Levitt (1983 p.3), also

defines the Multinational Company as one that "operates in a number of countries, and adjusts its products and practices in each - at high relative costs". They are also described by Fredriksson et al (2006 p.2), as consisting of "... headquarters and subsidiary units, which are spatially separated and often embedded in different language environment (s)". However, with the prevalence of these type of company, it has come to the fore that it is not the operational criteria alone which is the sole defining basis for what a multinational company is, the second criteria for defining these companies is discussed in the next section.

"The astronomical growth in e-commerce has changed the way multinational corporations (MNCs) present themselves, sell and communicate with consumers" (Okazaki 2004 p.81). Multinational companies "are amongst the world's most powerful types or organizations. They account for a large share of intellectual property rights, dominate the world's stock markets, are among the biggest employers, and contribute to the economic development of those countries in which they operate" (Williams 2009 p. 92). Multinational companies have grown so rapidly in recent times that they have a major presence in most countries. Williams (2009 p. 92) also adds that "as internationally dispersed organizations, MNC's are able to use their... knowledge to pursue global initiatives". Multinational oil and gas companies are mainly interested in pursuing these global initiatives on a regular basis in order to have a competitive advantage as well as satisfy the needs of their customers.

### 1.3.2 Communicative and Cultural Definitions of Multinational Companies

In contrast to the operational definition of a multinational company, these companies can also be defined from a communicative and cultural perspective. According to the divergence hypothesis which posits that culture shapes organisational behaviour and influences communication (Stohl 2001), as an organisation grows and expands its locations, it most likely will need to adapt to the cultures of the constituents of its growing population. In the diverse work environment brought about by globalisation and international mergers, effective communication would have to consider cultural backgrounds, customs, mores and values to be successful (Spinks and Wells 1997). Differences in communication styles exist from one culture to the other and are usually influenced by a range of factors including national cultures, language and many more (Gudykunst et al 1988). Each country and culture has its communication style which stems from factors like different understandings of politeness/formality, educational and historical influenced (Kotthoff and Spencer-Oatey 2009). In collectivist cultures such as in East Asia for instance, similar communication styles could cut across several countries as

is the case of Japan, China and Korea, although there are variations due to language, brought about by underlying similarities in value orientation. Kameda (2001) also indicates that communication styles are fostered by a nation's philosophy and worldwide view which would include the educational system and organisational cultures. Every truly global organisation, therefore, has to accommodate and localise to the communication style of each of its diverse subsidiary locations if effective communication with its clients and subsidiaries is to be achieved.

Multinational Companies are thus at "the intersection of diverse communicative, cultural and social practices" (Stohl 2001 p.325) and therefore, like most companies operating at this level, have the need to come up with strategies in order to properly manage communication among their diverse locations. According to Erez and Shokef (2008 p. 286), MNCs are "...not only the product of globalization; they are also the carrier(s) of globalization". Moore (2005) further adds that multinational companies depend on the process of globalisation for their continued existence and are "inextricably linked with the political, economic and social processes of globalisation". This inevitably means that in themselves, they define and have the characteristics of what globalisation is all about. If this cultural and linguistic conception of a global company is something to go by then we can see that the multinational company is a multicultural workplace where people of different cultures and nationalities work together to achieve the same goal. This multicultural workforce would be seen as an asset to any multinational company which embraces divergence. According to Pudelko and Harzing (2008 p. 394), "Globalization and MNCs are two closely interlinked phenomena. On the one hand, the growing importance of MNCs is considered to be a key ingredient of the globalization process. On the other hand, MNCs need to become more and more competitive in order to survive in an increasingly globalized world economy".

## 1.4 Statement of Research Problem

The following research questions led to this study:

- To what extent do Multinational Oil and Gas companies standardise or localise their communication practices on the internet?
- To what extent are the main languages of subsidiary locations used on the companies' country websites?
- What localisation strategies have been put in place to target other employees and clients based in non-English speaking environments?

- Are there any similarities, differences or localisation trends in the web communications strategy of Oil and Gas companies?
- To what extent does De Swaan's theory on the classification of language serve as an adequate or useful explanation in understanding translation practices?
- To what extent does English act as a hypercentral language in the website language strategy of most Oil and Gas companies and what are the emerging trends in language use?

## 1.5 Research Aim

The aim of this research is to carry out an in depth cultural, linguistic and semiotic website analysis on Multinational Oil and Gas companies, to understand the extent and nature of localisation practices within these companies.

## 1.6 Research Objectives

The objectives of this research have emerged from an in-depth study of relevant literature and connect with the aim of this study. The objectives are as follows:

- To understand the extent to which Oil and Gas companies ensure that their localisation strategies are designed to reach the target audiences.
- To carry out an analysis of Oil and Gas company websites to understand their translation strategy, language use and the role of English and other languages in their web localisation strategies.
- To identify the dynamics of control or autonomy in relation to companies' web communication and localisation strategies by analysing their country specific websites.
- To identify 'the local' features depicted on each country specific website and how they are represented.
- To identify the different web communication strategies that are currently used on Oil and Gas Company websites.
- To identify strategies used by these companies to accommodate the different local cultures they have to operate in.

### 1.7 Structure of Dissertation

This section provides an introduction to the research, research questions, a background and the rationale for the study. It identifies, the aims and the research objectives, the issues which have developed and brought about the need for this study as well as providing an overview of the different kinds of companies which exist in the business world.

Chapter 2 is the Literature Review, which is divided into eight main sections and several sub sections. This chapter of the research gives an academic background for the research study, discusses previous studies that have been carried out in the main areas of this research and also identifies the gaps which brought about the need to carry out further studies in this subject area. The subject of multilingualism on the internet is introduced and discussed, followed by a brief history of the internet. An explanation is given of how websites are classified and the different ways that websites are classified in existing studies, which include the standardisation of websites, internationalisation of websites, localisation of websites and the globalisation of websites. Globalisation and its impact on multinational companies and their websites are discussed in detail. Language management issues in multinational companies are discussed as well as the role that language has to play in globalisation. Different language management strategies, such as monolingualism, bilingualism and multilingualism that can exist within a company, are examined. The relationship between language and culture is also discussed.

Chapter 3 provides an in depth discussion on the different theories and frameworks of culture that currently exist and how these relate to this research. There is an introductory overview of the cultures that exist in organisations, followed by an in depth discussion of Hofstede's theories on the dimensions of culture. The GLOBE research project, which is a development and critique of Hofstede's study is also introduced and discussed as an alternative to Hofstede's research. This section also offers a critical assessment of Hofstede's framework and the GLOBE research project. In relation to culture and communication style, Edward Hall's culture theory of high and low context communication is discussed in detail, and the resultant communication style preferences. The chapter concludes with a detailed discussion on cultural markers as a means of assessing the way that websites are adapted culturally to meet the expectations of the local audience.

Chapter 4 is the Methodology Chapter which defines and describes the research methods that have been used to carry out the data collection and analysis in this thesis and also provides a justification for the research methods that were used for the analysis. A general overview of the various research methodological approaches used to address the linguistic, cultural, and semiotic aspects of the research questions is discussed as well as the sampling methods that were used to identify the companies selected for this study. This section provides a justification for the choice of the Oil and Gas industry as a case study for this research and describes the process of building the framework upon which the analysis was carried out. An overview of the framework and where the components were derived from are clearly listed. The final section examines the ethical considerations of this research.

Chapter 5 presents the semiotic and linguistic analysis of websites. It provides an overview of the translation and multilingual practices used in oil and gas companies. This chapter details the overall website strategies used by the companies studied, such as the grouped or regional website strategy, and describes the role of translation on websites and in particular, the effect that this has on website design features. An intrasemiotic translation analysis of all the websites is carried out. This chapter also details the language options that were available on the corporate websites of the companies studied, the role of English on these websites, the languages used on country specific websites, and finally an image analysis of country specific websites with language options. An intersemiotic translation analysis was carried out, which involved the image analysis of corporate web pages with language options and country specific websites. Finally, anomalies and inconsistencies revealed by the translation analysis are addressed. A comparative analysis of the language used on the corporate websites studied compared to the language(s) used on the country specific websites is carried out. This section also contains a detailed analysis of translation practices relating to one language, French.

Chapter 6 is a visual analysis of website content and design features of the websites studied and the contents of the websites are studied to identify images used and what they represented on these websites. This chapter lists the details of the country specific websites and domain names, the different languages used on each country specific websites and domain names are explained in detail. The website strategies that have been identified in the course of study are described, principally, the grouped strategy and the regional website strategy. The two main design styles identified (fully designed and plain) on the different websites are also discussed in detail. This chapter explores how companies use the standardised website strategy in the creation of their websites and

provides examples of this occurrence. The use of colours on each website is also examined, as well as its possible meanings and use in each country. The company logos are analysed, and representations of the company's achievements, feature of local promotions, and sponsorship of local events on the websites are investigated. The use of animation or multimedia images, the depiction of managers or those in authority and the representation of expertise on the company websites are identified, including the depiction of employees and the representation of the technical side of the business. Gender representation and the issues of gender equality as shown on the various websites are discussed. Also discussed in this section is the use of iconic images, in particular the use of national flags and artefacts and locations used to represent the local such as local prominent sites, representation of cars and bikes, use of animals, use of buildings and petrol stations, the use of historical symbols and images, environmental sensitivity and how this is represented on the websites.

Chapter 7 provides a conclusion to the thesis and summarises how the conclusions address the research questions. It also highlights the limitations and the managerial implications of this research. This chapter identifies the research's contribution to knowledge and the body of research on localisation and provides suggestions for future and further research in this area. In particular, there is a detailed discussion of the about the framework used for analysis in this research.

## CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a background to this research and a critical review of literature that is relevant to the main themes of this research, which are culture and language. It also contains a critical review of the sub themes of this research which are website localisation or cultural adaptation and translation, website language management and communication styles. It identifies what previous researchers have done in these fields and provides a background to the areas where the researcher has identified as a gap in current research. This chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section gives a good background into companies and the effect that globalisation and all the current changes has on them. The second section discusses the theme of language and translation, while the third section looks at culture and the major culture frameworks that are used as a basis for this study.

## 2.2 The Internet and Multilingualism

The internet is "a massive network of networks, a networking infrastructure and it connects millions of computers together globally, forming a network in which any computer can communicate with any other computer as long as they are both connected to the Internet" (Singh and Pereira 2005 p. 2). Crystal (2006 p. 3) also describes the internet as an "association of computer networks with common standards which enable messages to be sent from any registered computer (or host) on one network to any host on any other". According to Singh et al (2005 p.129) "the internet is inherently global in nature, as it is globally accessible and crosses national boundaries to allow consumers around the world to participate equally". Kelly-Holmes (2006 p.507-508) further adds that "the Internet has become an unavoidable fact of life for commercial organisations, heralded as the harbinger of the borderless market and invested with expectations that have not always been met. At its most basic, the Internet fulfils the function of a virtual market".

Shin and Huh (2009 p. 287), explain that the "unique characteristics of the Internet such as interactivity, information storage, digitalization ability, and almost unlimited reach to the global audience across borders enable marketers to easily interact with their customers around the world". The internet allows easy access to companies' websites and other

consumers' ideas and product evaluations (e.g., bulletin boards, consumer review Web sites, on-line discussion forums, etc.) (Cho and Cheon 2005). It is a means by which companies who operate on a global level are able to make their presence known anywhere they want to in the world (Nacar and Burnaz 2011) and has also "...become one of the most direct and effective delivery medium for internal communication between (their) staff..." (Lee et al 2006 p.275). With its capacity "to expand beyond a country's territorial borders, the Internet seems an ideal medium for globalization" (Maynard and Tian 2004 p.287) and "reduces advertising and communication costs in serving global market segments, allows for direct and easy access to customers and customer feedback, and reduces the need for intermediaries" (Singh and Pereira 2005 p.1). However, Singh et al (2005 p. 71-72) adds that, "internet communication is different from other marketing channels, partly due to fewer access barriers and more consumer choice, and thus merits special attention".

In relation to this research, the interest of the researcher was in the language capabilities and language use on the internet. According to Crystal (2006 p. 229), the Web and the Internet were a predominantly English based medium in the early years, but with globalisation, the number of languages used on the Internet have increased. Kelly-Holmes (2006 p.517) further adds that "the nature of the Internet means that the linguistic situation is constantly changing, and while many websites remain dormant or idle, commercial sites, particularly those of large global brands are updated constantly". Current research carried out by Crystal (2006) argued that although English was dominant in the earlier years of the internet, the internet is becoming more multilingual. In particular, some of the major 'central' languages such as Arabic, Chinese and Russian are becoming important which therefore changes the language situation on the internet in comparison to about 10 years ago. The extent of English use on websites of most multinational companies, in particular, Oil and Gas companies is discussed in much more depth in the analysis section of this thesis.

In most of the developed world today, there is hardly anyone who would say they have not used or heard of the Web or Internet. In Europe, a large percentage of people have internet service installed in their homes and therefore have access to it at all times. In developing countries such as countries in Africa, a lot of people tended to rely on internet cafes to access the internet. Due to this lack of infrastructure and access to the internet, the English language continued to gain dominance on the internet. However, in recent years and with people in developing countries now having more exposure to infrastructure and the internet, this trend is changing. In recent times, the number of internet users in

Africa has steadily been on the increase. According to research carried out by Crystal (2011), as at 2010, internet users in Africa had reached over 86 million with a 1,810 percentage internet growth.

The Global reach survey as quoted by Crystal (2006 p.230), identified that the internet is becoming more accessible to non-English speaking countries and this number has increased from 7 million to 136 million between 1995 to 2000. This also means that the internet is becoming multilingual and more people can access information on the internet in their own language. This development is gradually turning the internet into a more multilingual forum where people of all languages can use and have access to information regardless of whether they understand or speak English. This change is so prevalent with "some commentators predicting that before long the Web (and the Internet as a whole) will be predominantly non- English, as communications infrastructure develops in Europe, Asia, Africa, and South America" (Crystal 2006 p.230). This thesis will examine the degree of monopoly of English as the most preferred language used on websites in the Oil and Gas industry. The internet has become such a common phenomenon that most companies, especially those in the retail sector, are dependent on it for their daily business activities and communication with locations around the world. As the internet is such a global tool, internet users span across the world and "have rightly come to expect that web sites will be available in their own languages, meeting their own cultural norms, with full functionality" (Maroto and De Bortoli 2001 p.1). This is mostly because the linguistic sphere is changing quite rapidly and users expect to be considered when websites are created. "Web sites do not just communicate with one segment of consumers in one language; instead they are "born-global" for all global consumers to see and they need to be adapted to different cultures and languages" (Singh and Matsuo 2004 p.864). These strategies are discussed in more detail in further sections as this thesis looks into the availability of country specific websites and also their availability in the languages of the countries for which they have been created.

## 2.3 Classification of Websites

Most companies with a global web presence have to define how they want to be presented on the web. These companies mostly need to decide whether they want to go with what is known as a standardised strategy, a localised strategy or a glocalised strategy, each of these strategies will be examined further on in this research. The decision on which strategy to adapt is usually made based on how much importance the

company places on the use of web communication and also the amount of money it is ready to allocate to improving web communications to its target users. While adapting their websites, companies also have an increased need to identify what parts of their website content need to be adapted and what parts may be standardised. As websites are mainly created for the purpose of marketing, advertising and recruitment, in order to maximise it to its fullest potential, they have to be adapted in some way to suit each company's target market. The attitude of each company towards the localisation of their website unavoidably becomes an area of interest as it has the potential to have an impact on its profits and reputation. It is this attitude and the visible adaptations on these websites that this study seeks to identify.

#### 2.3.1 Standardisation of Websites

The concept of standardisation started in relation to companies and how their products and services are presented to their target users. This can be seen from Pudelko and Singh's (2008 p.394) definition of standardisation of multinational companies as, "standardization of overseas subsidiaries' management practices towards HQ practices". It can be seen that this definition was mainly in the context of companywide practices and management styles in each company's various locations. The concept of standardisation was criticised by many practitioners and marketing professionals as being overly product oriented (Sinkovics et al 2007). However, things have now changed and the concept of standardisation can now be related to how companies design and operate their websites and is one of the main schools of thought in relation to advertising strategies used in international marketing. When it comes to the standardisation of websites, the concept is more relative to the way websites are modified or structured to serve a wide variety of audiences. Website standardisation can seem to be an easy option for companies that are expanding at a rapid rate as not a lot of money would be required for adapting the websites to suit each country as translating entire sites can be expensive and time consuming (Chao et al 2012 p. 34). To effectively standardise their websites, companies use "consistent promotional messages internationally, translating but not otherwise modifying headings, illustrations or copy" (Sutikno and Cheng 2012 p.59). In this way, the same information is viewed by their users all over the world and the contents on the website are not specific to any particular country or location. Lindstrom (2001) describes standardisation as the act of a company using only one website to service all their users, with this website most often than not in English. Apart from the cost savings attached to using this strategy, the assumption by companies is also that users would want to have access to the same kind of information. However, the disadvantage of standardising all or

most features on any country website is that the company will be unable to communicate effectively with its target audience in each location. With the expansion of companies more and more into locations where the local language and culture are not the same as the corporate language, the possibility of standardisation between locations is decreased and it is even more difficult for companies to manage the language and cultural diversity with which they have to cope with (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005).

#### 2.3.2 Internationalisation of Websites

Internationalisation, in relation to products and services, explains how products and services are customised in such a way that it is easier to localise them and also describes the process of following necessary rules during the initial development of a product. Usually, if product internationalisation is done properly, and at an early stage in the development process, the localisation effort into any other language should have positive results (Maroto and De Bortoli 2001 p.4). Internationalisation of companies on the other hand has been defined as "the process where an organization operates in more than one country" (Hubbard 2013 p.6). This definition makes internationalisation sound like globalisation however, when it relates to the internalisation of websites, these are two very different concepts. With the internationalisation of websites, the focus is more on "developing a global Web template to support front-end customization" (Singh and Matsuo 2004 p. 864) and internationalisation takes place at "the level of program design and document development" (Esselink 2000 p.2). Website internationalisation has been described technically as the "process through which back-end technologies are used to create modular extendable, and accessible global web site templates that support frontend customization" (Singh and Pereira 2005).

### 2.3.3 Localisation of Websites and Localisation Strategies of MNCs

Management researchers have described localisation as "the adoption by overseas subsidiaries of those management practices commonly employed by domestic companies in the respective host countries" (Pudelko and Harzing 2008 p.394). O'Hagan and Ashworth (2002 p. 66) define it as "a process to facilitate globalization by addressing linguistic and cultural barriers specific to the Receiver who does not share the same linguistic cultural backgrounds as the Sender". Gibb and Matthaiakis (2006 p.667) also define localisation as "the adaptation of a product or service to meet the language, cultural and other requirements of a specific target audience or grouping". The initial consideration and use of localisation as a process was its application to the localisation of software

products. This has however changed and the localisation process has extended into the field of translation and communications studies. The current limitation in the literature on localisation is that most of the studies that are currently available are technically based, which means that they are concerned with the technical issues of website design rather than semiotic/communicative issues. Localisation is not only a technical issue but also a communication issue as there is a need to ensure that the language used is culturally accepted and understood by the target users of the websites. This brings about the need to have more research in this area which is where this dissertation hopes to make a contribution by throwing more light on the relationship and the role of localisation in communication practices of multinational companies.

Localisation of websites has been described as the act of having several websites which are adapted to suit the different target markets and countries of the company (Tixier 2005, Singh, Furrer and Ostinelli 2004), the process of customisation, whereby websites are adapted to meet the needs of specific international target markets (Singh and Boughton 2004) and "the process of customizing a Website for a specific cultural group so that it seems natural or "local" to members of that particular culture" (Singh, Toy and Wright 2009 p.282). Website localisation is "concerned with leveraging this global Web template to create country-specific Web pages" Singh and Matsuo (2004 p. 864). Each of these definitions emphasise the receiver as the main target point. To adapt and localise communication to suit the target audience, multinational companies have to localise texts, websites and all communication needed to the main language of each country. Chao et al (2012 p. 34) also describes website localisation as when "the site gets customized such that it seems natural or "local" to members of a particular language or cultural group". Most of the researches carried out in this area have been focused on activities in the retail or consumer goods sector. Current research into website localisation have focused on identifying localisation elements and their impact on user perceptions of websites (Cyr and Trevor-Smith 2004, Singh et al., 2006, 2004, Tixier 2005 and Chakraborty et al., 2005), identification of cultural depictions in country-specific websites (Singh and Baack 2004, Singh and Boughton 2005, Singh et al., 2005a, Okazaki, 2004, Sinkovics et al., 2007), and website localisation measurement (Singh and Boughton, 2005; Singh et al., 2009), examining the impact of socio-cultural factors on website localisation (Schneor 2012). Other studies on the subject of website localisation have been in areas such as marketing (Coca-Stefaniak et al 2010, Nitish et al 2005, Cyr et al 2010, Okazaki 2004), IT and Software Management (Sandrini 2007, Gygi and Spyridakis 2007, Kim and Kuljis 2010, Snelders et al 2011, Olujimi et al 2011, Simon 1999, O'Hagan and Ashworth 2002, Gibb and Matthaiakis 2006) and education (Moura et al 2010). This research however, focuses

on only the linguistic and cultural issues and how these apply to websites in the Oil and gas industry.

Singh and Boughton (2005), carried out research in which they measured localisation in terms of how content is adapted and how areas such as language, structure, colour, images and content are taken into consideration in the localisation of retail websites. Their research identified five main website categories which include standardised websites, proactive websites, global websites, localised websites and highly localised websites. There have also been quite a few studies which have identified the need for a localisation framework. Singh et al (2009) provided a framework for the analysis of website localisation and focused their research on the US Hispanic Online market. Their localisation framework included four main categories and the analysis was based on using fourteen variables. The four main categories identified in this study were Content Localization (covering Content depth, Content Synchronization, Navigation, Website Service and Support), Cultural Customization (covering Web-Page structure, Graphics, Colours and Promotion of Products and Services), Local Gateway (covering Hispanic Gateway Visibility and Hispanic URL Usability) and Translation Quality. This framework is limited in that it only focuses on a specific market and a specific language zone. This study also focused on areas such as testing translation quality or website usability which this thesis does not focus on.

Several studies have supported the use of a localised web communications strategy (Simon 1999, Tsikriktsis 2002) and Gibb and Matthaiakis (2006) in their research proposed a localisation framework for the analysis of localisation and translation of web sites to be used by both web designers and users. This framework consists of creating a two dimensional matrix using language criteria such as the number of languages offered to users of the website and non-language criteria such as the date order, currency, measures, characters, colours, layout, language, images, amongst others, for analysis factors which are important for users of any website and important when considering localisation into the user's language or culture. The researchers tested their framework by carrying out an analysis on a small number of Greek company websites with the purpose of exploring the suitability and applicability of the framework for assessing the level of localisation on websites (Gibb and Matthaiakis 2006 p.675). There have also been studies carried out on the pros and cons of localising website content to suit particular audiences. Cyr and Trevor-Smith (2004) carried out research in the retail industry and identified that for a company to sell successfully to online global consumers, it must move beyond physical globalisation to localising its website both linguistically and culturally. A few studies effectively illustrate the need for MNCs to localise content for each target market and they include the following. According to Maroto and Bortoli (2001), localising a website makes the user feel like the company is willing to accommodate his or her needs and shows concern towards them. This is of symbolic importance to the customer whether or not they can understand the contents of the standardised website. It also makes users perceive the company to be more trustworthy and likeable when they see a version of the website in their local language (Maroto and Bortoli 2001). In the context outlined above, one can see that the extent to which websites are localised positively impacts customer preferences and profitability of companies particularly when companies are operating on a global or multinational level. One reason why companies would be reluctant to fully localise their websites is the lack of professional help from the localisation industry which is responsible for providing translation and localisation services to companies wanting to create multilingual software, website and other content (Chao et al 2012 p.47).

One way to localise is for companies to have country specific websites for each of the countries that they operate in; however, the practicalities of this are more complicated considering the cost implications, expertise and the time that needs to be allocated by these companies to carry out this work. When developing websites for a specific country, companies need to "address a plethora of international issues relating to Web page design, translation, logistics, legal hurdles, and most importantly, the diverse cultural expectations of global consumers" (Singh and Matsuo 2004 p. 864). According to Maroto and De Bortoli (2001 p.1), "localising the content of a website poses some of the largest technical, linguistic and cultural challenges, since a website is technology-based and interactive, with text continually changing, and users are heavily in their judgments about companies by their interactions with a company's website".

## 2.3.4 Glocalisation of Websites

Globalisation has been described as "the dialectics of the global and the local, convergence and divergence, homogenization and heterogenization, universalism and particularism, where the 'theses' and 'antitheses' not only coexist, but interact, and are synthesized in fluid, dynamic ways" and the concept that reflects these dialectics is glocalisation (Maynard and Tian 2004 p. 288). The concept of glocalisation was brought about following the trend of most companies to deviate from using solely localisation or globalisation strategies in reaching out to their global customers. The glocalisation concept can be applied to "advertising, management, marketing, effectively modifying a product to suit the tastes of the host culture" (Maynard and Tian 2004 p.288) and to any

sector on various levels (Svensson 2001 p.15). The focus on glocalisation has moved research away from whether companies should either localise or standardise their websites and made researchers ponder more brought about what features of the websites need to be standardised or localised. Companies in themselves have now moved towards a moderated approach where they are now proactively willing "to adopt a global perspective where possible, and glocalise where necessity dictates" (Kitchen and Eagle 2002 p. 174). This thesis looks in detail at the split between globalisation and localisation of features on the websites studied.

The term glocalisation was modelled on the Japanese word *dochakuka* which originally referred to adapting farming techniques to one's own local condition. In the business world, the idea was adopted to refer to global localisation (Khondker 2004) which refers to a situation where a company tries to use a combination of both local and global strategies for a variety of reasons. This combination may or may not be in equal measure and how this is reflected on the websites studied is one of the things this study seeks to ascertain. Toffle (2014 p.3527) defines glocalisation as a "way of expressing the ever-growing presence of globalization on the local scene" while Robertson (1995), describes the glocalisation theory as "a hybrid combination strategy of globalization along with localization or the simultaneity – co –presence – of both universalizing/globalizing and particularizing/localizing tendencies. It explicitly recognizes the importance of local adaptations and tailoring in the marketplace of business activities". Maynard (2003 p.57) further adds that "glocalization challenges notions of culture imperialism because the term suggests a negotiation process that appears to start from the inside out".

Koller's (2007) research identified that most global companies now want to be identified as being local and as responding to the needs of its local audience. The research further identified that just being seen as a 'global giant' was creating a negative image for some companies, therefore, they were seeking to counteract this by being seen as 'local', being that this is an image problem and these companies want to protect their image by localising. As globalisation progresses and companies become ever more powerful, the more criticism and even antagonism there is to this, particularly in those parts of the world where the population is sensitive to how global corporations operate and the environmental issues they have to face daily due to activities of these companies. These environmental issues are faced particularly in the Oil and Gas industry as their daily activities have a continuous environmental impact in certain communities. This thesis will identify how a glocal strategy can be used to address local and culturally relevant issues.

In relation to the globalisation of websites, glocalisation refers to the co-presence of both standardisation and localisation on websites (Tixier 2005). Quite a few studies have also been carried out on the glocalisation of websites such as those carried out by Singh et al (2004), Tixier (2005) and Lee (2007), all examining how websites can be adapted using a glocal strategy. Maynard and Tian (2004) and Tixier (2005) in their research also highlighted that some companies chose to use the website 'glocalisation' strategies, rather than going through the whole process of localisation, by presenting a hybrid of both the local and the global culture on their websites. This notion is supported by other studies carried out in this area which have shown that although MNC websites are adapted to reflect the host country, it does not automatically indicate that the websites have been adapted to meet the cultural needs of that country (Singh and Baack 2004, Singh and Boughton 2005, Singh et al., 2005, Sinkovics et al., 2007). This in theory looks like the best solution for companies operating globally; however, this may not be the best solution for companies who may want to retain globally symbolic elements such as logos and corporate colours on their websites. This thesis looks at the extent to which this theory may or may not be applied on websites in the Oil and Gas industry and will also seek to understand how the glocalisation strategy is applied when it comes to changing websites to suit the various host cultures.

## 2.4 Definitions of Globalisation

There are several definitions of the word 'globalisation'. Globalisation refers to "the growth of worldwide networks of independence, with various dimensions including environmental, military, social and economic globalization" (Tench and Yeomans 2006 p. 115). It is also "...the ability of a corporation to take a product and market it in the entire civilized world" (Cheney and Martin 2004 p. 3). Globalisation is also seen as "a central driving force behind the rapid political, social, economic, and communicative changes taking place in contemporary society" (Stohl 2004 p.243). Globalisation therefore brings about a systemized need for a communication strategy for companies that operate globally and also brings about "...—change and diversity" in the operations and employment of personnel in most companies (Moran et al 2007 p.184). Different cultures now interact with each other in unprecedented ways, and technology has become one of the most important factors facilitating this process of globalization (Maynard and Tian 2004 p.286). This change can either be viewed as a positive or a negative thing depending on how the company reacts to the challenge of globalisation. On the positive side, the Company can

see globalisation as an asset; on the negative side this can be seen as a barrier or problem which needs to be overcome.

Business activities over the last few decades have had a shift from local or national toward international or global business activities (Stöttinger and Holzmüller 2001). In the case of companies or the 'so called' global companies, the word 'globalisation' could mean on the one hand, having a global reach/power by having operations around the world and, on the other hand, it could mean being sensitive to the local needs of its global website users. According to Gillis (2006 p.42) globalisation "...has led to an increase in offices, operations, and business activity, often far from an organization's traditional headquarters, thereby limiting its ability to control day-to-day decisions...". Maynard and Tian (2004 p.287) also add that, globalisation is a complicated process, it "simultaneously creates tendencies toward some degree of cultural (structural) homogenization while at the same time it encourages people to identify more strongly with their ethnic or national grouping". These simultaneous tendencies are what make it difficult to justify globalisation as just being a standardised concept or a localised concept.

## 2.4.1 Globalisation and its Impact on HQ/Subsidiary Relationships

Various authors have advocated different measures as a means to deal with the complexities of working in a multicultural global work environment. Some of these include: eliminating hierarchies and bureaucracies, letting subsidiaries become more autonomous by delegation, and de-emphasizing the role of headquarters as the centre from where other sub sectors function (Welch and Welch 1997). A question that most multinational companies have to answer is what kind of relationship will exist between the headquarter locations and their subsidiaries, and whether the relationship will be one of centralisation or decentralisation (Rodrigues 1995). Centralisation is where subsidiaries do not have much autonomy to take decisions affecting them and decentralisation is where subsidiaries are given a great deal of autonomy to make most decisions relating to their local operations. To localise and increase effective communications with their subsidiary locations and clients at foreign locations, different company headquarters use different strategies depending on what suits their resources and facilities. Most companies "typically seek a unified approach to policies, procedures, and actions in order to facilitate control and coordination" (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005 p.14). Other companies believe in giving their subsidiary locations a degree of autonomy on how they prefer to communicate with others within the company and with the outside world. It must be noted that what seems to be the biggest benefit and advantage of having a centralised approach to communication and localisation is that it gives the owners of the company the ability to control and manage whatever message is being distributed to the public or to its employees at subsidiary locations.

Significant research on globalisation and its impact on Headquarters and subsidiaries have also identified convergence and divergence theories (Stohl 2001). Convergence theorists suggest that due to globalisation, companies must converge in terms of communication style, that is, have a centralised approach to communication practices. The convergence theory is economically driven being that the underpinning idea is that successful economic structures will become global – also known as isomorphism. The convergence view also sees culture as a 'soft' factor, that is, a factor regarded of secondary importance which can be managed, as convergence is primarily economically driven and convergence theorists do not see culture as something important to economic success. The divergence theorists on the other hand argue that culture shapes organisational behaviour and influences communication because communication is the essence of culture and effective communication is when people from two or more cultures are able to work together effectively (Stohl 2001). They also see diversity as an asset rather than a problem and have the conviction that culture is an aesthetic preference which will create problems for companies if they do not understand it.

Another view, from Ghoshal and Nohria (1993), posits three types of HQ-subsidiary relationship. The first one is that of centralisation with formal authority and hierarchal mechanisms, secondly of formalisation which involves decision making through bureaucratic mechanisms and the third being normative integration which involves the socialisation of both parties into a set of shared goals, values and beliefs. The most important of these three for this research is the normative function because it covers the cultural aspect of HQ-subsidiary relationships. If a company has a central culture existing within the company which is usually the culture of the HQ country, then this will affect any kind of relationship or communication policy that the company puts in place. This normative relationship will also lean towards the standardisation rather than the localisation of policies and practices within the company. It can be argued however that since the headquarters has economic power over its subsidiaries, it should not be surprising that they want to control or have a stronger say in what goes on. Headquarter locations have been known to exert forms of control in the way they handle their subsidiaries such as putting expatriates in charge of subsidiary locations (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005) and determining a standard corporate language to all employees.

According to Rodrigues (1995), an effective relationship between headquarters and its subsidiary location is a result of a balance between centralisation and decentralisation, decision making that takes into consideration the cultural needs of the subsidiary and a global organisational vision and cultural principles which are shared by all involved. Welch and Welch (1997 p.678) have a different opinion, they suggest that headquarters allowing subsidiaries make their own decisions makes "...it difficult to abdicate its power to monitor and control subsidiary behaviour". Bowman, Duncan and Weir (2000 p.132) in their study of 60 Multinational Company subsidiaries in Scotland found that when it came to financial decisions, "decisions such as the preparation of yearly accounts, the setting of financial targets and the sale of fixed assets" were generally delegated to the subsidiaries. This brings to light the subject of control and the question of whether headquarters should be 'controlling' activities in their subsidiary locations or simply guiding them towards the same goal. Whether companies are centralised or decentralised in their management or localisation strategies, the way they handle their subsidiary locations and the power they give to them will in turn affect the information their clients in those subsidiary locations receive as most times, clients rely on local country websites for information.

## 2.4.2 Globalisation and Its Impact on Modern Technology

Previous research on the relationship between modern technology and communication has viewed technology as the driving factor speeding up globalisation and also a factor in overcoming cultural and linguistic barriers (Green and Ruhleder 1995). Communication technologies used in most multinational companies range from video streaming, teleconferencing, intranets, e-mails and many more. In today's global world, most companies are left with no option but to rely on the use of electronic media. It is now commonplace for employees to rely increasingly on e-communication and the internet to pass messages across to colleagues in other locations (Theaker 2001). Some companies now circulate newsletters online and also use their intranet site as an internal communications tool. This is mainly because employees increasingly have to work with employees and clients around the globe. In relation to websites and the need to reach the current global business environment, companies may sometimes want to culturally or linguistically adapt their websites to suit the location the website is made for and the target audience in that location. Whichever strategy a company chooses to adopt, the main aim is to have a website which can reach out to its target users in a culture and language that they understand.

According to Würtz (2006 p. 275), "cross-cultural Web design nowadays requires dealing with design issues that include culture-specific color connotations, preferences in layout, animation, sounds, and other effects that are characteristic of today's generation of Web sites". Würtz's study is premised on consumer goods (in this case McDonalds) and the justification that cultural preferences will affect purchase behaviours of the product. This means that there might be a more direct correlation between culture and the product being that, when the consumer directly consumes the product, as with food, the cultural dimension of consumer preferences can be seen more clearly. In the Oil and Gas industry where the 'product' is mainly a service or activity, the impact of culture on the activities is primarily symbolic, because if Oil and Gas companies do not show sensitivity to local issues in certain parts of the world, such as environmental issues, then they may be setting themselves up for opposition or a boycott in those countries as their activities have a direct impact on most of these local issues.

## 2.5 Language and Globalisation

Globalisation and the need to interact with different countries in most work environments have meant that language has become an important part of globalisation. According to Dhir and Goke-Pariola (2002 p. 243), "language is the essential human skill that allows us not only to acquire, but also to transmit knowledge from one generation to the other". Without a shared language it is almost impossible to communicate effectively, especially with people that we cannot see face-to-face, although being able to understand other languages, that is, being multilingual is also a means of communication. According to Northrup (2013), a thousand years ago, there were a larger number of languages in use. However, the numbers have since decreased through 'language death' while there has been an expansion of others (Crystal 2001, De Swaan 2001, Northrup 2013). As there are now multiple languages operational in the global work environment, different researchers have looked at the role of languages in the globalisation mix. In particular, the focus has been on the role of English as a Lingua Franca, and this will be discussed later in this section.

In a classification of world languages carried out by De Swaan (2001), he proposes the notion of a world language system and accordingly categorises languages into hypercentral, supercentral, peripheral and central all of which connect with each other. According to his study, English is the 'hypercentral' language and the main language used in business communication and also the language which acts as a general language of

communication even among people who are speakers of other languages. English is connected to the supercentral language group as it is used on a local and national level even in countries where it is not the Lingua Franca. French, English, Spanish, German, Japanese, Russian, Arabic, Chinese, Swahili, Malay, Portuguese and Hindi are classed as 'supercentral' languages because he believes these are the languages that are mostly used on a regional or multi-country level. Many of these supercentral languages have also attained this status as a result of the legacy of colonialism. The 'supercentral' languages according to De Swaan (2001 p.177) are "languages of politics, administration, law, business, technology and higher education". The supercentral languages are then connected to the 'central' languages which are official languages and are used in school education at both primary and secondary school levels. These languages have "local, regional or national significance" (Kelly-Holmes 2006 p.508) and include languages such as French, Russian and Portuguese. They also appear in the print media and are used for politics and in courts. Russian, as with several of the supercentral languages which have connotations from the colonial past might have negative historical associations for some of the former Soviet countries. Central languages are those which are largely confined to the native speakers of one country. They are the languages in which the literature and media of that country are written. Some of these might be quite significant because of the size of the country. The 'peripheral' languages are those languages which are subnational, i.e. they are spoken by a minority of speakers within a country in which one of the central languages is the main language - e.g. Scots Gaelic, Catalan, Welsh and Basque. In some cases, these have political significance in that the language is bound up with cultural recognition of the minority within a country.

When it comes to the globalisation of languages and how it has affected the language use on the web, one can see that there is not a huge difference in terms of the languages that are predominant on the websites. Crystal (2006 p.230), identified the main 15 languages that were currently used on the web and the distribution are as seen below. English continued to maintain its position as the most used language on the web having appeared on 82.3% of web pages, followed not at all closely by German with 4%. Japanese has the 3<sup>rd</sup> position on the table with 1.6% mainly because, although Japanese is a supercentral language (not spoken outside Japan), it has 100 Million speakers, and a large number of internet users. One can see that the languages which hitherto were thought to be influential languages do not carry the same function on web pages on the internet.

Ranking	Language	Number of pages	Corrected percentage
1.	English	2,722	82.3
2.	German	147	4.0
3.	Japanese	101	1.6
4.	French	59	1.5
5.	Spanish	38	1.1
6.	Swedish	35	0.6
7.	Italian	31	0.8
8.	Portuguese	21	0.7
9.	Dutch	20	0.4
10.	Norwegian	19	0.3

Figure 1: Internet Language Use (Crystal 2006)

# 2.5.1 The Global Lingua Franca Status of English

A Lingua Franca comes from the Arabic word 'lisan-al-farang' and was an intermediary language used by Arabic speakers and travellers from Western Europe (House 2003). Globally, one language that research shows has been favoured by companies and individuals when it comes to the choice of languages is English. English has been identified as "the world's most widely used language in the world now and has become the first global Lingua Franca (Northrup 2013, Wierzbicka 2006). According to Fredriksson et al (2006), the choice of English has been promoted by the extension of the British Empire, the political influence of the USA, development of modern information and communication technologies and the growth of international mergers and acquisitions. English has also been established as a global Lingua Franca "partly due to its historical origins and the linkages between colonialism, trade and commerce as well as the dominant economic power of the United States in the twentieth century" (Tietze 2008 p.75). More recently, the preference for English could also be due to the growth of the internet and the World Wide Web which has enabled people to send ideas and images all around the world (Tietze 2008). English has also been promoted through the "use of English as the major language on the Internet, facebook and in data storage" (Hurn and Tomalin 2013 p.64) whereby reinforcing the importance of English on the World Wide Web.

De Swaan (2001) in his research identified English as the hypercentral language which holds all other language groups together. For some, the domination of English is a political issue, as for this writer Guilherme (2007 p.74) who states that English "is the language of

imperialism, consumerism, marketing, Hollywood, multinationals, war and oppression as well as of opportunity, science, social movements, peace processes, human rights and intercultural exchanges". English is "spoken with some minor variations by over 350 million people worldwide as their mother tongue or first language" and has been identified as being the official language in nearly 50 countries (Hurn and Tomalin 2013 p.63-64).). This excludes people who have learned English as a second language which according to Crystal (2005) could be between 1.5 to 2 billion users. House (2003 p. 557) further adds that "English is thus no longer 'owned' by its native speakers, and there is a strong tendency towards more rapid 'de-owning' - not least because of the increasing frequency with which non-native speakers use ELF in international contacts". This language has managed to gain a symbolic status in the world language system mainly as a result of the language 'fetish' that companies and counties alike adopt. Language fetish refers to when "the symbolic associations with a language utterance are more important than what the utterance literally refers to" (Hornikx, Van Meurs and Starren 2007 p. 205). The implication is that some languages, such as English, have 'fetish' value relating to feelings and emotions such as being 'cosmopolitan', modern, 'cool' or 'hip', which is reflected in the increasing intrusion of anglicisms into other languages.

The English language has "meaning, use and significance independent of the countries in which it is spoken. Thus, we see its use as a symbol of a national identity, of globalism, of youth, of progress and modernity; at one and the same time, it can bear the properties of pan-Europeanness/Americanness/globalism" (Kelly-Holmes 2000 p. 76). In addition to this, Cheshire and Moser (1994) identified in their research that in Switzerland for instance where English is not one of the main official languages, English has gradually established itself as a Lingua Franca. They go further in their research to identify three functions of the English language in Switzerland which include having a place in official domains of life such as appearing on the Swiss passport, being chosen as the language of business communication by most Swiss companies because it is cheaper than paying for translation and thirdly being used in communications by younger people in order to have the feeling of being westernised. This illustrates 'language fetish' in Switzerland and indicates that there is a 'hierarchy of cool' – for Swiss young people it is more cool to use English than their own language. In non-Western countries, such as China, English's fetish value might also be associated with the West in general.

The number of Internet users in non-English speaking countries is growing exponentially (Kim and Kuljis 2010) and it is estimated that "a quarter of the world's population speaks at least some English and this proportion is likely to increase" (Hurn and Tomalin 2013)

p.63). The widespread use of English and the acknowledgement of the importance of English mean that even in countries where English is not the main language, one still finds that English is widely taught to children in schools. According to Gorter, Zenotz and Cenoz (2014 p.4), even in cases "where neither the minority nor the majority language is English, speakers feel a need to have some command of English as an additional language for international contacts, for travel or for using the internet". This whether knowingly or not, serves to promote the English language in these areas and promotes the English language to the 'future' generation. Although certain researchers such as House (2003) in her paper argue that the widespread use of English does not pose a threat to other languages or to multilingualism, Guilherme (2007 p. 74) concludes that English is "undoubtedly the language of the cosmopolitan/global professional elites, but it has also been a tool for the citizens of the developing countries, mainly those colonised by the English".

# 2.6 Language Management in Multinational Companies

In the world today, humans can be divided into well over five thousand groups each of which speak a different language (De Swaan 2001). These differences in languages can both be viewed as either a negative factor or a positive thing within a company. According to Dhir (2005 p.359) "language plays a critical role in the formation of the organizational culture through its role in knowledge creation and application, flow of information, and functioning of the organization". Companies can either use these differences to their benefit and maximise on the linguistic diversity they have in their company or see it as a negative factor and a barrier to communication. Two attitudes to language diversity in companies has been identified: the first sees one language as natural and multilingualism as only a problem - the fear of the Tower of Babel - on that view the 'solution' to the language 'problem' is to establish an ecumenical language – and in our day that is English (Northrup 2013 p.7). The other is that language diversity is not a 'problem', or at least not one that cannot be overcome (by, for instance, translation) and might actually be a source of richness and diversity. It is quite true that every form of communication relies upon a shared language (Feely and Harzing 2008) and "...a common language does not imply a common culture...neither does it determine effective communication or understanding (Maclean 2006 p. 1385). However, according to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, language encompasses written, oral and non-verbal forms of communication, which all sum up to be the most symbolic codes of a person's culture (Tietze 2008). According to Dhir and Goke-Pariola (2002 p. 243) "language is considered the principal means by which an

organization acquires and communicates its culture to members within the society in which it operates". Dhir (2005 p.363) also adds that "language is the fundamental medium through which culture, tradition, and custom are transmitted to the stakeholders, both within and outside the organization".

Some researchers like Welch, Welch and Piekkari (2005) argue that language management cannot be fully achieved or totally managed in a multinational company. Whether this assumption is correct and whether language should be managed at all still stands to be tested. Other researchers in this area (Janssens, Lambert and Steyaert 2004, Hillier 2003) who have viewed differences in languages in companies as a problem have introduced strategies that can be used as frameworks to manage linguistic differences. These frameworks are discussed in the following sections of this thesis. There is a down side to not being able to manage language effectively within a company as linguistic differences have been known to make it harder for companies to transfer corporate knowledge and values between employees (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005). It also makes it harder for employees working in different locations to understand fellow employees who are speakers of other languages. For companies who see these linguistic differences as a problem, they have come up with the ecumenical solution of having one or several corporate language (s).

Language management in Multinational companies has been studied by a few researchers with the main focus typically being on interactions between English nativespeakers and non-native speakers (Harzing and Feely 2008, Marschan-Piekkarri, Welch and Welch 1999). Harzing and Pudelko (2013) also carried out a review of language competencies, policies and practices in MNC's based in four language based country clusters: Anglophone, Asian, Continental European and Nordic. Their research revealed that "distinctly different patterns of language competencies, policies and practices exist according to the various combinations of home, host and corporate languages" (p. 94). According to Welch, Welch and Piekkari (2005), the ramifications of language differences on multinational management processes are yet to be fully explored and this somewhat justifies the need to carry out this research to get a better understanding of language management practices in Oil and Gas companies. However, research has shown that language or cultural differences in a multinational company may serve to facilitate or impede the process of control and control structures (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005) and having a single corporate language in companies can be viewed as a form of control. Companies in using a single common language sometimes fear, in line with the Tower of Babel myth, that the company may fall apart if employees are all allowed to speak different languages in their various locations (Northrup 2013). As explained earlier on in this dissertation, some companies also bring in a corporate language such as English, not only because of the function of the language, but also because the language symbolises globalism (Kelly-Holmes 2001). Therefore, the introduction of a corporate language is with the hope that it will help to keep the organisation together but this is not always the case. According to Lauring (2007 p. 256), language is "...a negotiated source of power" and relates to "...the creation and maintenance of social structures and power relations". Not understanding a person's language can make communication impossible especially where employees are not multilingual or do not readily have access to a translator or reliable translating software. More so in the case where interaction with employees of different linguistic background in a global company is inevitable, there is more at stake for the individual and the company.

Lauring's (2007) research also shows that most companies use language knowledge as a means of control and as a knowledge management strategy. For instance if a company chooses English as the main language of communication within the company, native English speakers would have an advantage as they would most likely understand first-hand what information is being passed on. Lauring (2007) further adds that language is used as a method to include and exclude foreigners and control what information they have access to and what they do not have access to. For example, if working in a country where English is not the Lingua Franca but where the company has adopted English, native English speakers within the company would be the first recipients of information and then can pick and choose which information they want to pass on to other non-native speakers within the company. This notion was supported by Welch, Welch and Piekkari (2005 p.18) who indicated in their research that "whether by deliberate gatekeeping or not, language can be a powerful force generating a sense of exclusion from key information processes and ultimate decision making for those without the appropriate language skills...".

Language, despite being an important factor in the successful functioning of MNC's in foreign locations, tends to be overlooked and ignored in business management research (Tietze 2008, Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005, Marschan-Piekkari, Welch and Welch 1999). According to Welch, Welch and Piekkari (2005 p.11), language has been overlooked "despite the broad impact that language has on many aspects of international management, such as cross-cultural communication, international negotiations, knowledge transfer and management, headquarters—subsidiary and subsidiary—subsidiary relations, and control, coordination, and integration within multinational enterprises". "...language should not be

viewed as an outpost but as an integral element of the effective management of global operations" (Welch, Welch and Marschan-Piekkari 2005 p.25). Despite the fact that language differences could be a major barrier to accessing formal and informal communication within an organisation (Feely and Harzing 2004), language affects the ability of multinational organisations to function in the global market and has been overlooked as a source of diversity in companies but rather is seen as a problem (Dhir 2005). The lack of recognition of language as an important factor when communicating within a multinational company identifies the need for translators to be culturally aware when it comes to translation and language use on websites. Some researchers have looked at language and how it affects international management (Harzing and Feely 2008, Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005) and some have looked at language and its effect on knowledge management and performance (Welch and Welch 2008, Lauring and Selmer 2011, Tietze 2008). Overall, these studies have identified the need for Companies to have a language strategy, structure and management (Harzing and Feely 2008). Three major trends have however emerged from the process of trying to identify ways to manage language or languages within a company. The first is the choice of a single corporate language (Maclean 2006), the second is bilingualism where two languages are chosen for communication within the company and the third is multilingualism (Janssens et al 2004). A more in depth discussion of these trends are discussed in the sections that follow.

# 2.6.1 Monolingualism and the Choice of English in Companies

This section analyses the monolingual and ecumenical approach that may be used by companies for communicating. Language policies have become commonplace in multinational companies and any company indeed who has to operate and work in the international scene with diverse employees. Language polices in multinational companies can be influenced by a range of factors from the national language of the company's headquarters, to the language policy in their target country. Language policy can also be influenced by management's decision on which language to choose as the main corporate language. According to Dhir and Goke-Pariola (2002 p.242) "language policy issues have been driven by an interest in how the languages or varieties of languages in a nation's speech repertoire function, and the attitudes of the populace to these languages, so as to provide a "rational" basis for allocating functional roles to these languages". Maclean (2006 p. 1382) further adds that the desire to standardise language across the globe has been mirrored by the adoption of a single corporate language and in most cases this has been English.

This clearly points to the strategic role that English plays when it comes to the choice of corporate languages in most multinational companies. Companies believe that the choice of a single common language "minimizes uncertainty and loss of information, and integrates diverse members of a multinational organization into a single, cohesive and effective corporate body" (Dhir 2005 p.361). However, the issue of which language to choose as a corporate language is pertinent as language knowledge will be required by one or both parties and the choice of a corporate language in this circumstance might provoke negative reactions if one language is given priority over the other (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005). According to Maclean (2006 p. 1382), "the trend towards the adoption of English is rested on two assumptions. Firstly, a single corporate language is essential for operational efficiency, and secondly, that global patterns of language use are reinforcing the status of English as the predominant language" (Maclean 2006, Fredriksson et al 2006). According to (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005 p. 21), "The choice of the common corporate language can be as delicate a decision as the appointment of the chairman and the CEO or the choice of the new location for corporate headquarters" therefore the choice of monolingualism over bilingualism, which is the ability to converse and communicate in two languages proficiently (Gorter, Zenotz and Cenoz 2014 p.67), has to be considered carefully.

One of the major problems that come with choosing a single corporate language includes deciding which language to choose as the main corporate language. Typically, the company needs to come up with a language strategy meaning "...the decision which language (s) can be used, the role of translators in creating multilingual texts, the method used to validate the translation process...the type of texts that are expected to be produced" (Janssens et al 2004) and so on. A company's decision on which language to use as the main language of communication can sometimes exacerbate the effects of 'language politics' which would probably already be in existence within the company. Language politics or the political economy of language can be said to be the consequences of language choice (De Swaan 2001). One of such reasons is the advantage the choice of a particular language has over other languages in terms of the number of locations where the language is spoken worldwide. Sandrini (2008 p.177) also, identifies that "an international company would choose languages on the basis of their involvement in a certain market, the market potential measured in GNP growth rates, the number of active Internet users, costs, available staff for a particular language etc.". Choosing a single language of communication in a company has its pros and cons. The argument for adopting a single language can be that it increases effective communication between locations, facilitates reporting and communication between headquarters and its

subsidiaries, alleviates communication problems (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch and Welch 1999), improves communication and control by headquarters (Björkman and Piekkari 2009, Stohl 2001) and saves translation costs (Stohl 2001). Other researchers, however, believe that adopting a corporate language can "lead to power imbalances in the MNC" (Harzing and Pudelko 2013 p. 88), meaning that those in the company HQ who potentially have the language power will have better language skills than those in the subsidiary locations. The assumption by some of these companies is that 'effective communication' cannot be achieved on the basis of multilingualism where everyone in different parts of the world speaks different languages. They believe instead, just like the Tower of Babel myth, that this can bring about confusion and misunderstanding between subsidiary locations and between subsidiary locations and their headquarter locations.

English has been adopted as the Lingua Franca in most MNCs because of it being favoured as the dominant language in international business (Andersen and Rasmussen 2004, Bjorkman et al 2005, Maclean 2006, De Swaan 2001, Welch et al 2001, Janssens et al 2004, Marschan-Piekkari, Welch and Welch 1999). Most multinational companies have adopted English as their common corporate language (Feely 2003, Fredriksson et al 2006, Marschan-Piekkari et al 1999). The choice of English could typically have two functions within any organisation. The first reason could be that companies may choose to adapt one single language because it symbolises globalism and gives the impression to the outside world that they are a 'global' company (Kelly-Holmes 2006). The second function could also be because of the communicative function of English considering that if they speak English, which research has identified as being spoken by majority of the population, then communication is made easier within the company. Another justification for the choice of English as a single language of communication in most companies has been because it saves translation costs, training and is not time consuming (Stohl 2001) because it is understood by a large number of people. Maclean (2006) also adds that the basis for the choice of English has been because having a single language of operation increases efficiency. When it comes to the use of English on websites, many companies believe that mainly computer literate - individuals use the World Wide Web therefore, promoting their business in English alone is sufficient. While this may have been true in the past, it is no longer the case. However, not everyone sees the use of English in most sectors as a positive thing; some see the dominance of English as a persistent problem. According to Park and Wee (2012 p.3), "English, in its dominant conception, is a language of inequality, supporting and renewing relations of power - including the capitalist relations of oppression on the global scale between the center and periphery...". Another researcher (Hurn 2009) shifted the focus away from foreign companies and concluded that British companies should acquire linguistic and cultural fluency in other foreign languages. However, this theory may be said to be hardly practicable given the decline in foreign language teaching and learning in the United Kingdom.

## 2.6.2 The Multilingual Strategy

Current research shows that some companies are trying to move away from the idea of having English as the main language of communication and are becoming more multilingual. According to Dor (2004 p. 98), "the very same global economic pressures that are traditionally assumed to push the global expansion of English may actually be working to strengthen a significant set of other languages-at the expense of English". Companies now see that there is a need to reach end users in the language they understand and therefore the notion of English being promoted for economic reasons is losing its stance. The gentle continuous shift from the monopoly of English is driving most companies to multilingualism as explained earlier. The multilingual strategy "follows from the assumption that adapting to the local culture and language-releasing local markets from the task of translation and providing translation services as part of the product-is a necessary component in the penetration of, and competition over, local markets" (Dor 2004 p. 102).

There have been recent researches on multilingualism and websites and one of the studies considered to be relevant to this research is the one carried out by Hillier in 2003. Hillier (2003) carried out research on the relationship that exists between language, cultural context and usability and classified multilingual websites into three broad types. According to Hillier (2003 p.4), there are "single home sites, multi home sites and separate sites, where each belongs to the same organisation". Hillier (2003 p.4) further describes the single home site as one where only small parts of the website are translated into other languages, "this type of website is made up of more than one language; however, the translated sections often appear as links off the English language pages". A multi-home website on the other hand is where a website is "located under a single domain name, with a 'splash' page presenting a choice of languages" (Hillier 2003 p.4). In Hillier's research, multilingual websites are classified into three broad types as follows:

1	Single home site	One which is made up of more than one language and where only small
		parts of the website are translated into other languages. The translated
		sections also appear as links on the English language website.
2	Multi home sites	One where a website has a single domain name with a single page giving
		the option to choose between other languages.
3	Separate sites	One where different language versions of a site are presented separately,
		usually having separate domain names (either a county level domain or a
		sub-domain). The level of variation in the design ranges from being
		similar to being quite different depending on the level of decentralisation
		present in the organisation.

Figure 2: Hillier's (2003) Classification of multilingual websites

The researcher finds that this is one of the few major research frameworks identified based solely on language use and multilingualism. This is however also a limitation as this dissertation studied the cultural factors that affect the localisation of websites and sees this classification as not being in-depth enough in relation to the subject area of this thesis. Hillier's study also does not look at the semiotic meanings of translation practises within the companies studied which is the focus of Kelly-Holmes' (2006) study on the internet language practices of ten global consumer brands.

# 2.7 Theories of the Relationship between Language and Culture

Culture "influences the way we use languages, the meanings we associate with words (or phrases) and even the prioritisation we place on the perceived purpose of language itself, i.e., as a status symbol, communications tool, conduit of emotion, or artistic expression" (Hillier 2003 p.5). According to Nida quoted by Schaffner and Kelly-Holmes (1995 p. 1) "....Language is a part of culture...the most complex set of habits that any culture exhibits... reflects the culture, provides access to the culture, and in many respects constitutes a model of the culture". Dhir and Goke-Pariola (2002 p. 243) add that "the process of learning any one language is also a process of acquiring the culture that is embodied by that language". Different language theorists have come up with their various definitions of what constitutes language and the relationship it can have with our social relationships.

Some major language theories also see language as something which forms the way people see the world such as the Sapir - Whorf Hypothesis. The Sapir - Whorf Hypothesis

was the pioneer in terms of the relationship between language and culture and research for this was carried out between1920-1950. According to the research carried out by Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf, they maintained that language was "the symbolic guide to culture" and that "language serves as a filter through which the world is constructed for purposes of communication" (Beeman 2012 p.533). Other believers in the role of language in social constructivism also posit that language "provides a means to categorize the world through its function as a symbolic sign system" (Tietze 2008 p.18). There are also other theorists who believe in linguistic relativity without perhaps agreeing totally with the Sapir-Whorf theory that language is determinant. The linguistic relativity hypothesis states that "members of one linguistic culture think differently from people in other cultures as each language divides the world up differently and therefore speakers of each language perceive the world differently from each other (Tietze 2008 p. 23). Other major theorists argue that the existence of different languages and world views does not mean that communication and translation between language groups is going to be impossible. Noam Chomsky in 1957 carried out a research on universal grammar although this has now been modified. Altogether, Chomsky claimed that "Linguistics should be concerned with what all languages have in common, what he called Universal Grammar (UG). Yet, the goal of the UG enterprise is to abstract away from the diversity, the details and the plurality of human languages" (Garcia and Wei 2013 p.6). Chomsky was of the opinion that language variation ought to be viewed as a problem, an "imperfection," for learnability of languages simple because there are just too many of them in existence (Mukherii 2010).

Some other researchers who are in support of linguistic relativity argue that culture influences and affects the way we use languages, the meanings we associate with words and even the prioritisation we place on the perceived purpose of language itself (Hillier 2003 p.5). The differences in culture and language are the reason why companies may have to be culturally aware and adapt their communication styles to suit their various locations. Culture awareness involves understanding that not all cultures need to be communicated to in the same way and that communication needs to be adapted to suit the target culture. Cultural awareness also involves understanding communication styles and values, understanding language, translation needs and much more. Guirdham (2005 p. 43) describes culture as "...an imperfectly shared system of interrelated understanding, shaped by its members' shared history and experiences". Culture is also described as "...an intangible asset: ...part of our human software...a social and behavioural phenomenon which is largely invisible and unconscious" (Gray 1995 p. 269-270). Its manifestations include languages, habits, rituals, ceremonies, myths, stories, beliefs,

values, attitudes and artefacts (Korac-Kakabadse et al 2001, Cheney et al 2004). Literature on communication style or intercultural rapport management such as Bargiela-Chiappini (2013) acknowledge the influence of sociolinguistics and ethnography of communication – which shows that language and culture are inter-related.

# 2.8 Website Translation Theories and Approaches to Translation in MNCs

According to Shaffner and Holmes (1995 p. 9), translation is equivalent to "an interpretation of a foreign form and meaning, usually worked out in the translation process and rarely articulated independently of it". Venuti (1995 p.18) also describes translation as "the forcible replacement of the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text with a text that will be intelligible to the target language reader". Multinational companies have a need to translate websites, documents and many more in order to meet the language needs of their global stakeholders. Multinational companies have tried to meet this translation need by employing several means. Some of these include hiring a translator, hiring indigenous people to head up these subsidiaries, using machine translation, assigning expatriates who have local knowledge of the country's language to subsidiary locations or by organising compulsory language classes for staff (Large and Moukdad 2000). Some companies use local staff who are fluent in the corporate language as translators and communicators to manage communication between the subsidiary and headquarters (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005 p.18). This strategy is known as having 'language nodes' or acting as 'gate keepers'. These employees decide what information is passed on to headquarters and what is in turn passed on to employees in the subsidiary. Knowledge of the corporate language in a company can be a source of power for employees who are fluent in these languages (Tietze 2008, Zander, Mockaitis and Harzing 2011, Harzing and Pudelko 2013), it also gives those employees the power to act as gatekeepers, controlling information and communication flow between headquarters and its subsidiary (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005).

Most often than not, the employee who is competent in speaking the corporate language as well as the language of the subsidiary location automatically becomes the internal translator. However, the danger of this is that being a native speaker of a language does not necessarily qualify one to be a translator and therefore the companies might not be getting quality translations back from their choice translator, although they may be saving money in the process. According to (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005), "communication flow...is vulnerable to distortion either intentionally or unintentionally, during message

translation by the receiver. Subsidiary staff may deliberately alter the message during translation to suit local concerns rather than the directions of headquarters". It is also imperative that a translator understands the context within which they are translating as well as the subject matter and the target audience for the translation to be effective. Company translators also have to be aware of language variations, such as the differences between Portuguese and Brazilian Portuguese, British, Australian, South African and American English or Spanish and Latin-American Spanish (Maroto and De Bortoli 2001). Although some variations might be used more than others, if a company truly wants to localise then they have to provide localisations or language versions of their websites for each of these variations.

Research has shown that in some companies, language and translation issues have been regarded as a technical problem which can be solved with the use of computer-aided translation devices and software or translators (Welch, Welch and Marschan-Piekkari 2001). The choice of either a fully trained translator or a translating software would obviously have an impact on the quality of translation received by the company as translation software is often unreliable and can produce documents that have been translated out of context. This is in contrast with using a trained cultural translator who typically would aim to achieve effective localisation, via not only their ability to translate but also their understanding of how the words relate culturally to the product or service the company offers (Gibb and Matthaiakis 2006). There are a few examples on what happened when multinational companies did not take translation seriously or where translators made serious translation errors which ended up costing the company a lot of money. One example is HSBC, where in 2009; the company was forced to scrap its 5 year old "Assume Nothing" campaign after it was translated in many countries as "Do Nothing" costing the company \$10 million to change to a more suitable tagline (Ramadani 2014). Another example is when Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC) opened up in China in the late 1980s and mistakenly translated its slogan from "Finger-lickin' good" to "Eat your fingers off" (Dana 1999). Although a handful of researchers, who have already been discussed in this thesis, have looked into language issues on websites and succeeded in providing a framework for the analysis of language use on websites such as De Swaan (2001) and Hillier (2003) who provided a framework for the classification for websites based on their language use, the conclusion from the review of literature is that none of the existing studies, taken on its own, provide an adequate framework for the study of localisation of Oil and Gas company websites. Rather, a combination and an adaptation of various elements of the existing theories serve as a background for this study.

When websites are translated, translators need to 'localise' the language in order to make it suitable for the target audience. In relation to the translation of websites, translation takes a different context as most times the aim is not just to translate but to make it locally acceptable to the target users. According to Nantel and Glaser (2008 p. 114) "the process of translating a website in order to make it accessible to users from other cultures may also require a change of the overall design, as the usability of the site will depend on the culturally based expectations of the users". Translators involved in website localisation have to understand how the language they are translating into is used by the target group in order to provide translations that are culturally acceptable. When adapting language use on websites, the site has to be provided in a language the users can read and navigate in their own language when they access the localised site (O'Hagan and Ashworth 2002). In as much as translation and localisation are mostly studied together, it must be noted that they are two different subject areas. Localisation requires the knowledge of the target culture in order to be efficient in translation while basic translation only requires the knowledge of the language to be translated to and from without any need to understand the background culture. In web localisation, both the textual and nontextual elements of the website should be taken into consideration considering that images and texts on these websites may need to be changed. The linguistic adaptation of corporate websites can be done in several ways; while some websites are mono lingual, others are bilingual and some multilingual and each is designed to suit the individual needs of the company. However, with Oil and Gas companies expanding at a very quick rate and spreading more and more into locations where the local language is not the same as the corporate language, the possibility of standardisation between locations is decreased and it is increasingly difficult for companies to manage the language diversity they have to cope with (Welch, Welch and Piekkari 2005). Research carried out previously in this area shows that people prefer to use websites that are in their country's native language or a language they understand and speak (Singh et al 2004). This brings about the need to linguistically adapt websites and the need to make targeted websites bilingual or multilingual as the case may be.

Websites need to be translated as they mainly serve two main functions, the first function being the informative function and the second function being the symbolic function. The informative and communicative function for these companies would mean that content would need to be translated into the main language of each country to make it as 'transparent' as possible while the symbolic function would mean that not a lot of attention is paid to the translation of the website as the site only serves a symbolic purpose – which is for the company to be seen as being global. These companies also have the additional

need to linguistically adapt their websites to ensure that everyone in all their locations is getting the same information and that the local population is aware of what the company's activities are in their individual countries. The solution to this lies in the use of native speakers as translators as they will "produce culturally specific text because they will be more able to understand the target culture than outside translators" (Janssens et al 2004 p. 421). According to Maroto and De Bortoli (2001 p.7) "The linguistic quality of a translation is the most specialised and integral part of any localisation effort. It is essential that the translators are native speakers and are living in their native countries for the majority of the time" because only then will they understand the culture and have the ability to provide translated pieces that are relevant to the specific culture the website is made for. If companies literally translate content that is produced centrally from the Headquarter location for distribution to employees in other companies, then the resultant translations may not fully match the understanding of the target audience. Translation can be said to be an inevitable need in a multinational company, in that they operate across so many languages, communication styles and culture. However, according to Gibb and Matthaiakis (2006 p. 670), the process of localisation requires more than just translation skills; it also requires an understanding of the relation of words to the product or service being offered which means that there may be a likelihood of most of these companies opting to use in house translators rather than external translators. The exception to this of course, would be in a situation where the translators used are well versed in the area that the company specialises in. Having different communication styles requires translation and the adaptation of communication materials into local communication styles for better understanding between headquarters and their subsidiaries.

Another reason why companies localise is the need to manage the terminology used in all locations where the company operates. For translation of technical terminology, most often than not, bilingual glossaries are useful for helping the translator with technical terms. This is particularly useful for web sites where technical terms are used frequently and need to be consistent. There are however translation problems associated with terminology management. According to Hillier (2003), there is sometimes a problem with agreeing what terminology needs to be used especially when it pertains to technical words. Maroto and De Bortoli (2001) further add that to translate, for instance, a technical text requires, besides a firm understanding of industry-standard terminology, an eye for detail, consistency in style and the ability to translate commands, terms, descriptions clearly and with the end-user in mind. Terminology management "is the most efficient solution for ensuring that the organization as a whole uses the same terms to describe the same features and functions" (Muegge 2010 p.16). Most Multinational companies who are

interested in localising or translating have the need to ensure that the communication that is sent out or seen by their clients or employees on the internet is the same regardless of location. Oil and Gas companies in particular have a lot of technical terminology which need to be correct in order for them to promote and sell the right equipment or service to their target customers. Companies who have a centralised approach to localisation or communication are able to control their terminology through all its foreign locations and in that way are able to avoid translation blunders while protecting their brands across several worldwide locations.

According to Lee (2009 p.4) "The translation of commercial websites, therefore, aims to identify, translate and carry across the multiple layers of meaning from one language version to another in the hope of achieving the same or similar effect in the target culture". In relation to this, this thesis aims to understand how and the extent to which these websites have been translated and it is expected that this study will give a good understanding of the localisation practices of these companies.

#### 2.8.1 Semiotic Translation

To understand the language and translation practices within these companies, it was important to also understand and identify what the localisation practices of these companies are in the area of translation, to give a better picture of any specific tendencies relevant to the industry or each particular company. The analysis was carried out on all the websites to gain a detailed overview of current language practices and also to have a good insight into the demographics of these company websites. When companies attempt to translate websites from one language to the other, sometimes they ensure that the websites are culturally translated by using professional translators and sometimes they may use an online translation tool such as Google Translate to translate the original site into the language required and sometimes they also just translate the 'essential' information on the websites into the main language spoken in the country. Companies also carry out what is known as a semiotic translation of websites which means not only texts on these websites are translated, symbols and images are also considered in the translation process. Carrying out semiotic analysis involves dealing "with how language conveys meaning to signs and symbols in a specific social context" (Duriau, Reger and Pfarrer 2007 p.14). A semiotic analysis was carried out on all of these Oil and Gas websites to interpret the colours, symbols and images on these websites and what they symbolize about the corporate identity of the companies.

Koller (2007) carried out a research on HSBC websites using a semiotic analysis strategy to identify global and local translation strategies. She identified in her research that companies can either adopt intrasemiotic or intersemiotic approaches to translating their websites. Intrasemiotic websites would be seen where the company sees the need to translate content for communicative/informational reasons while retaining symbolism as it sees it as a priority for corporate identity. Intrasemiotic analysis also identifies when verbal parts of a website have been translated with the visuals remaining the same on both websites. Intersemiotic translation would be used when these companies decided to go further in their translation practices, having seen the gains in terms of local acceptability, however, these companies may 'lose' in terms of corporate identity. Intersemiotic translation identifies when the language, contents and visuals differ on all versions of a company's website. Chiaro (2004) also carried out research on intrasemiotic and intersemiotic translation analysis of print and web advertising of Italian food products. This research clearly explains intrasemiotic and intersemiotic analysis and although this research was carried out on a completely different sector, it was useful for this research. To gain a more detailed insight into current translation practices on these Oil and Gas websites, an analysis was carried out to understand the intrasemiotic and intersemiotic translation practices of these companies. The analysis was carried out in two parts: The first part of the analysis was carried out to understand the intrasemiotic translation tendencies on these websites while the second analysis was carried out to understand the intersemiotic translation tendencies on these websites.

# 2.9 Chapter Summary

In summary, the internet has had a huge technological impact on the society today. As a result of the increasing number of people using the internet, it has become a multilingual and multicultural environment where most of the major languages have gained presence. (Crystal 2001). The internet is the main host of the various websites and most companies create a website for the different countries they operate in. Websites have been classified into different groups by different researchers and these include standardised websites where the contents and layouts of the websites are kept the same for different countries, internalisation of websites where most of the information of the website is adjusted to suit the target culture, localisation of websites where all of the information on the websites are adapted to suit the target cultures and finally glocalisation of websites where the companies use both a local and global strategy in the representation of images and contents on their websites. The need to use the various strategies on websites has been

brought about mainly by globalisation. Globalisation goes beyond purely the operational elements of a company, that is, the number of countries where it has operations but also takes into consideration the cultural dimensions which involve a need to adapt practices in the countries where these companies operate. Globalisation can affect the way that a company interacts with its subsidiary locations and can also impact the way that websites are created and designed, depending on the company's needs and the kind of image it wants to present to the world. This need to adapt to the cultural needs in the different countries is what has brought about the concept of glocalisation – where the company can use both global and local strategies to target its users.

Due to globalisation and the need for companies to interact with their subsidiary locations around the world, there has been a need for companies to choose a language of communication. Some multinational companies have been torn between using a single language of communication and allowing subsidiaries to have autonomy in the choice of language they use. Some companies due to country language policies and internal company policies have also chose to use bilingualism or multilingualism to suit the business needs of the company. Many of these languages are differentiated from the ones that are only used in verbal communications within the company to the one that is only used for written communications. As a result of this multiplicity in language use in most multinational companies, there has been a need to also adapt the languages used on websites to suit that which is preferred by the company. Research has however identified that English has constantly been identified as the Lingua Franca for most companies regardless of the language spoken in the country where they are in operation. The implications of this is that, whichever strategy a company chooses to adopt, there will be a need to translate the websites in order to either suit the English speaking population or the local language speakers. This of course depends on whether the company has language options on their websites.

# CHAPTER 3. CULTURE FRAMEWORKS AND THEORIES

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into two main sections with the first section discussing Hofstede's dimensions of culture and the second part discussing Edward Hall's categorisation of culture into low and high context cultures. The first part of this chapter discusses the cultural frameworks that have been used as a background for this research study. As this research compares websites across various countries, there is a need to review frameworks for comparing behaviour across cultures, particularly in the business field. The second section of this chapter introduces the different cultures that may exist in organisations. This sub section gives an introduction to the third section which discusses Hofstede's dimensions of culture in an in depth manner as Hofstede's study has been the most frequently used cultural framework used for the comparison of different cultures. The fourth section discusses the GLOBE research project which is a development of Hofstede's dimensions of culture and was set up in response to criticisms of the inadequacy of Hofstede's study. In the fifth section, there is a critical analysis of both Hofstede's theory and the GLOBE research project. The sixth section involves an in depth discussion into Edward Hall's categorisation of culture into high context communication and low context communication and explains what Edward Hall means by both high and low context communication and explains its relationship with website communications. Having an in depth of understanding of these studies is important as this thesis examines communication styles and this framework has been the one most frequently used in studies of communication style. The seventh section is a description of the meaning of cultural markers and all the cultural theories and frameworks that exist in relation to websites. Cultural markers are the elements that companies adapt on their websites to suit their target cultures. This section highlights the role of cultural markers, what they are and their relevance to cultural adaption is also discussed in detail in this section of the research.

# 3.2 Theories of Culture in Organisations

Although several researchers have come up with different definitions of culture, there has been no agreement on the definition of culture (Kim and Kuljis 2010). According to (Gray 1995 p.270), "...culture has many layers: from national culture, to organisational or corporate culture, to occupational culture". With national culture referring to the values of

most inhabitants of a country, organisational culture referring to sub-cultures of values shared by most members of an organization and occupational culture being the subculture of values shared by people with a distinct occupation. This clearly explains and identifies the different cultures that exist and gives a clear focus to the cultural aspect of this research. De Angeli and Kyriakoullis (2006 p.250) describe culture as "the cumulative deposit of knowledge, beliefs, values and attitudes, which rules people's behaviour in a society and distinguishes the members of one group from another". Nakata (2009 p.4) further adds that "in this age of globalisation, cultures are traversing national borders, comingling, hybridizing, morphing and clashing through media. migration, telecommunications, international information trade, technology. supranational organizations, and unfortunately terrorism". This identifies the mobile nature of culture which has been brought about by the age of globalisation and diversity. The GLOBE researchers define culture as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations" (House et al 2002 p.5). This research focuses on some main cultural theoretical frameworks used in the business/organisational field and also looks at the national cultures that may be existent in these companies.

According to Mamman (1995 p. 528), a multicultural workplace is "...a setting which is heterogeneous in terms of race, ethnicity, beliefs, culture, gender, age, country of origin, and physical ability". This is typical of the effects of globalisation and in today's workforce and work environment; any company that claims to be global cannot be exempt from these characteristics within their workforce although it can be argued that they may have a different attitude to their workforce. It can therefore be postulated that some companies, although they claim to be 'global', seem to have a different conception of 'global' which embraces cultural diversity positively. The reality of companies having to work in diverse cultures means that cultural difference has an impact on every company working in this kind of environment. One view of this reality is that, if properly managed, cultural differences and globalisation can have a positive impact in companies. Diversity can be beneficial to companies and an opportunity to benefit from diverse knowledge and workforce. The second view on diversity is that, if not managed properly, globalisation can have a negative impact and can cause discord and conflicts among employees.

This subject has been previously discussed by Hoecklin (1995) and Stohl (2001) who have both identified typologies which attempt to divide organisations in this way. However, it is very important for companies to take into consideration the fact that a culture that

enables effective work processes in one country may not be easily transferable to another country, or may in fact suppress productivity (Moran et al 2007). Since there are varying cultures in a multicultural team, team members have different cultural backgrounds and ways of thinking. They then try to find a way to work effectively despite these differences in work behaviour, language and attitude and approach to work. Some theorists however now argue that it is inaccurate to talk of organisations as having a specific work culture, as the work place, regardless of where we are, is multicultural; this includes 'virtual' working relationships with people that other employees have never met (Moore 2005). Cultural diversity has been defined as "...differences, such as in language, religion, dress and moral codes that exist between people according to race and ethnicity" Kossek and Zonia 1993 quoted in (Leveson and Joiner 2009 p. 377). In this global age, companies and workforces are diverse. The question now is how companies can manage the differences and the attitudes of the company in regards to this diversity.

Quite a few cultural frameworks or dimensions were identified in the course of this research, however, only three of them were chosen as the main cultural theoretical frameworks to be discussed due to their relevance to this study. They include Geert Hofstede's 1998 theories on cultural dimensions, the GLOBE cultural theory which is a development of Hofstede's cultural dimension's theory and Edward T. Hall's 1976 theories on the existence of High and Low Context cultures. Briefly, the rationale for choosing these main theories are as follows. Hofstede's cultural framework was chosen as a framework for this research because of the frequency with which it has been used in business and organisational studies. The GLOBE research was also identified as it is the most recent and comprehensive attempt at mapping culture and organizational behaviour and addresses criticisms of Hofstede's study as well as develops it. According to Venaik, Zhu and Brewer (2013 p.362), Hofstede's research and the GLOBE research both "present a group of dimensions of national culture with corresponding scores, which not only highlight cultural differences between societies, but also provide the means for the application of those differences in culture related research". This makes these studies relevant to the research carried out in this thesis. On the other hand, Hall's (1976) High and Low context culture categorisation was chosen as one of the frameworks for this research as Hall's theory, places communication at the centre of its study which is useful as this thesis is also focused on the communicative aspects of culture.

These theoretical frameworks were used alongside each other to help build up elements of the researcher's framework for analysis and also to help give a deeper understanding of Oil and Gas websites. These theoretical frameworks were also used to develop a set of

criteria that would be usable for cultural and semiotic analysis based on the three theoretical frameworks discussed below.

## 3.3 Hofstede's Dimensions of Culture

Hofstede (1997 p. 5, 1980 p.13) describes culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another". Hofstede's definition "suggests that people from any one group will be formed by mostly the same values and norms as their compatriots (Kim and Kuljis 2010 p.126). Geert Hofstede, a Dutch Cultural Anthropologist, interviewed hundreds of IBM employees in 53 countries during 1967 to 1973 in order to gain a deeper understanding of the differences in culture. In 1983, he went on to carry out further research and "collected supplementary data on a further ten countries and three multi - country regions". Hofstede also published his main findings in Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work - Related Values (1980), jointly published Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind with Gert Jan Hofstede and Michael Minkov and also published Intercultural Cooperation and Importance for Survival in 1991 (Hurn and Tomalin 2013). Hofstede's model has been the most extensively quoted cultural model in culture research (Kim and Kuljis 2010) and has justifiably had the most influence on the understanding of the effects of culture on human activity (Hurn and Tomalin 2013 p. 29). In this study, Hofstede measured cultural dimensions by attempting to rank cultural values on a scale of 0 to 100 for 75 countries by means of quantitative ranking on a limited number of criteria which are thought to map the differences between cultures. Hofstede's main focus was on work related values. His statistical analysis techniques were used to find similarities and differences in cultures. In his initial study, Hofstede came up with four cultural dimensions: Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity and Uncertainty Avoidance. However, after further research he carried out based on the Far East, the conclusions of his study, identified a fifth dimension called long-term orientation and a sixth cultural dimension called Indulgence versus Restraint has also been added more recently (Hurn and Tomalin 2013). Hofstede's cultural dimensional approaches seek to reduce cultural variation to a limited number of dimensions which are thought to encompass the main variants of cultural values. The five dimensions of culture are explained in the following section and are partly used as a theoretical framework for this research.

#### 3.3.1 Power Distance

According to Hofstede (1981), Power Distance (PD), is the degree of emotional dependence between superior and subordinate. Würtz (2006 p.280) also confirms that "high Power Distance include many hierarchical levels, autocratic leadership, and the expectation of inequality and power differences, and are affiliated with HC cultures". In this dimension, Hofstede explains the extent to which less powerful members of a cultural group accept the dominance and power exerted by the more powerful members of the group (Hofstede 1998). He identifies that this dimension affects levels of hierarchies in organizations and status and basically explains the way that members of each culture handle the differences in power. Würtz (2006 p. 280), adds that "low Power-Distance cultures are characterized by flat organization structures, consultative or participative management style, and the expectation of egalitarianism, especially evident in LC cultures such as the Scandinavian countries". Cyr et al (2005 p.5) also add that low power distance cultures such as Canada, the U.S. or Germany tend to maintain a philosophy of equal rights for all, without acquiescence to those in power.

Power Distance can be said to affect global website designs and user interfaces by restricting the access people have to information. This is because the dissemination of information on country websites with a high level of Power Distance will tend to focus on those in higher positions of authority. The focus of website designers will also be on personnel expertise, people of authority and official logos to reemphasize who is in control. Website designs will also give prominence to leaders and people who are in authority in these organisations. Frequently, one would see a speech or an address from the CEO or President of the company or regional area on the company website. Singh (2002 p. 43) further adds that websites in high Power Distance cultures place more emphasis on features relating to power and prestige. Some examples could be rank or prestige of the company, testimonials, pictures of CEO's and important people.

#### 3.3.2 Individualism vs. Collectivism

This dimension explains the concept of integrating into groups rather than the source of the primary value orientation being the self (Smith et al 2004). Hofstede in his study identified that Individualism loosens group ties therefore creating an environment where every person feels autonomous or responsible for their independent self. According to Hurn and Tomalin (2013 p.30), in this culture, "people are supposed to look after themselves and their immediate families and to choose their own affiliations". Würtz

(2006) further adds that in Individualist cultures, motivation is based on personal achievement, which is usually heavily portrayed on the web pages. Shneor (2012 p.357) also adds that in highly individualistic societies, "one expects more self-centred approaches where end customers value being treated as a unique target audience separate from other groups". In individualistic cultures such as the USA, UK and Germany, more emphasis would be placed on individualism and themes reflecting independence and materialism (Singh 2002 p. 43). The key differentiation is the contrast in value orientations between independence (individualism) and interdependence (collectivism). Hofstede in his classification identified that individualistic countries are from the North American, Anglophone, Dutch and Nordic cultures (Hurn and Tomalin 2013 p.33). Websites for individualist cultures will therefore have a tendency to promote individuals as unique people within the company and not having any affiliation or dependence on others.

According to Shneor (2012 p.357) "in collectivist cultures, there is a more generalised acceptance of group and team work and a generally feeling of working as part of a group" where there is an interdependent self and individuals are dependent on each other. Collectivist cultures are mostly Asian cultures where considerable time is typically spent in building trust and forming relationships which they see as a key to success (Hurn and Tomalin 2013 p.33). When it comes to the design of websites for these cultures, Singh (2002 p. 43) also suggests that "websites for collectivistic cultures (Japan, China, Korea), should be more respecting of family values and emphasize community features". This is because they are an interdependent culture and therefore may see the need to portray this on their websites.

#### 3.3.3 Masculinity versus Femininity

Hofstede's has traditionally associated this dimension with 'masculinity' and more assertive tendencies that might be stereotypical. According to Smith et al (2004 p.67), this dimension can be described simply as "toughness versus tenderness". Masculinity "reflects the extent to which a society values dominance, performance and successes, while femininity is "associated with societies valuing harmonization, consideration towards others, and quality of life" (Shneor 2012 p.357). According to Singh (2002 p.43), websites in masculine cultures can "emphasize on ambition, sportiness, and assertiveness themes, online games, explicit comparison of products with that of competitors, and hard sell approach". Singh and Matsuo (2004) also cite countries like Japan, Austria, and Mexico

as examples of masculine cultures and the Nordic countries as examples of the feminine culture.

Masculine websites, according to Hofstede's dimensional study, are expected to have a preference for and consideration that "big and fast is beautiful... and clear gender roles are the norm" (Singh, Kumar and Baack 2005 p.75). Shneor (2012 p.357) further adds that "masculine societies may view localized service as recognition of their own importance, dominance and power, while feminine societies may accept more standardized formats of service as reflecting harmonious and inclusive processes". Masculine cultures such as Japan, India and the Middle East value assertiveness, ambition, material possessions and success (Singh 2002 p.43). The Masculine cultures can be linked to the High Context cultures studied in this research and evidence of the portrayal of these can be seen from the promotion of company office buildings and company accomplishments on their websites.

According to Simon (2001 p. 23), "Individuals from masculine cultures - Austria, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Switzerland, Brazil, and Venezuela (Hofstede 1991) - value material success and assertiveness, suggesting they may seek to respond in a manner that compliments their own ambitions". When it comes to the design of websites, High Masculinity cultures would typically focus on the traditional family and gender distinctions between male and female, a controlled navigation framework on their websites, websites would have more graphics, games and animations and the messages and images used on the websites will be more assertive and demonstrate toughness and competition among individuals.

Feminine websites, according to Hofstede's dimensional study, are expected to "value, beauty, nature and nurturance, and blurred gender roles" (Singh, Kumar and Baack 2005 p.75). According to Simon (2001 p. 23), "people from feminine cultures - Chile, Denmark, Finland, Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden (Hofstede 1991) - stress relationships and concern for others". This list was highlighted by Simon (2001) as one of the defects of Hofstede's criterion as most of the countries listed now have formal gender equality policies while in others the 'feminine' values stem from a wider aspect of the socioeconomic value system which tends to discourage individual, assertive kinds of capitalism. According to Singh (2002 p.43), feminine cultures include Denmark, Norway and Sweden and place more value on helping others, preserving the environment and the quality of life. Feminine cultures are closely related to the low context cultures proposed by Edward Hall. Singh (2002 p.43), goes on to conclude that websites in feminine cultures

emphasize environmental awareness, humane touch, developing cooperative relationships and unity with nature. In feminine cultures, one can expect that the gender roles will generally be blurred, there will be mutual cooperation and support between members, orientation will be towards home and family life and individuals will generally have unifying values.

# 3.3.4 Uncertainty Avoidance

According to Hurn and Tomalin (2013 p.36), this dimension describes "the degree to which people feel threatened by ambiguity, unstructured or unpredictable situations and the extent to which society is able to tolerate uncertainty". In this dimension, cultures tend to have norms regarding punctuality, formality and tolerance for ambiguity. According to Singh and Matsuo (2004 p.866), "countries like Greece, Japan, and Mexico rank high on uncertainty avoidance, while countries like Canada, Australia, the UK, and the United States have been found to have a greater tolerance for uncertainty". Cultures with High Uncertainty Avoidance tendencies seem to have more formal rules and fixed organisational structures to avoid any ambiguities. According to Hurn and Tomalin (2013 p.36), societies with high uncertainty avoidance are "more risk averse and will adopt beliefs and create institutions to avoid uncertainty" while societies with low uncertainty avoidance are "more prepared to accept uncertain, unusual and innovative ideas and behaviour, to take conscious risks and to take each day as it comes". Usually, websites in high Uncertainty Avoidance cultures will be simpler and easy to use, easy to navigate to avoid users getting lost and will have more colour and sound. This is because there is a high tendency to avoid any uncertainties or misinterpretation in the information provided.

#### 3.3.5 Long versus Short Term Orientation

This was the additional dimension added on by Hofstede after additional research had been carried out. In this dimension, the main focus is on time (Venaik, Zhu and Brewer 2013). Hofstede identified that a country with long term orientation is one which would place "more importance on the future and a concern with setting long- term goals and persistence or perseverance in achieving them. Relationships are structured according to status, and progress is made by displaying thrift and care in saving and controlling expenditure" (Hurn and Tomalin 2013 p.38). According to Salazar et al (2013 p.36) "long-term orientation is defined by the value placed on future-oriented values such as persistence and saving. In contrast, a short-term orientation refers to values that are focused on respect for tradition and fulfilling social obligations that are oriented towards

the past and present". In the Short term orientation countries, individuals are "concerned with steadiness, stability, social pressure to 'keep up with one's neighbour' and self-gratification" (Hurn and Tomalin 2013 p. 38). When it comes to the design of websites, cultures with Long Term Orientations usually have content which is focused on practical values and credibility of relationships with important people. Websites for Short Term Orientation cultures would typically have more content focused on facts about the company, the credibility of rules rather than relationships and the need for immediate results.

# 3.4 The GLOBE Research Project

The GLOBE research project is "a cross cultural research program based on data collected by 160 scholars from 60 countries" (House 1998 p.230). GLOBE is an acronym which stands for "Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness" and was started by a global network of researchers from 61 countries who in 1994 decided to examine "inter-relationships between societal culture, organizational culture, and organizational leadership" (House et al 2002 p.3 and p.4). Therefore, from 1994 to 2004, the GLOBE researchers carried out a study of 17,300 middle managers in 951 organisations, in 61 countries from different sectors. This research is still ongoing and according to House et al (2002 p. 4) is a "long-term programmatic series of cross-cultural leadership studies". The central theory of the GLOBE research is that "selected values and beliefs that distinguish a given culture are predictive of the practices of organizations of that culture, and are predictive of leader traits and behaviours that are acceptable to members of that culture and effective in that culture" (Hartog et al. 1997 p.394). The items used in the GLOBE project are also designed to reflect societal values and practices, not individual values and practices (Terlutter, Diehl and Mueller 2006 p.434).

There have been a few criticisms and limitations identified of Hofstede's study (Nakata 2009, House et al. 2002) and the need for an expanded framework, which the GLOBE research provides. The GLOBE research project was chosen for this study as it is a more recent framework for comparing cultures and builds on Hofstede's theories on cultural dimensions. It also provides a critique of Hofstede's study and provides an expanded framework. According to Nakata (2009 p.26), the GLOBE research project is "a cross-level one that attempts to integrate individual, industry, and country effects to understand the universal aspects of leadership". Although the GLOBE research project looks at leadership, it can arguably be used to look at other aspects of organisational behaviour.

This research draws on Hofstede's study, and goes further to advance all the existing theories on culture in terms of conceptualisation of cultural frameworks (Terlutter, Diehl and Mueller 2006).

The GLOBE researchers recognised that there was the need to expand on Hofstede's dimensions in order to find etic (cultural phenomena that have identical meaning for nationals of diverse cultures) and emic (cultural phenomena that is supplemented by other elements that are subject to differential interpretation across cultures) aspects of culture (Abraham 1996 p. 23). They therefore decided to add more dimensions to Hofstede's study on culture in an attempt to remedy some of the deficiencies of Hofstede. This research project "employs both quantitative and qualitative methods to provide richly descriptive, yet scientifically valid, accounts of cultural influences on leadership and organizational processes" (House et al 2002 p.5). The quantitative aspects studied by GLOBE include the "measurement of societal culture, organizational culture, and leadership attributes and behaviors" while the qualitative aspects include "culture-specific interpretations of local behaviors, norms, and practices" (House et al 2002 p.5). The nine GLOBE theoretical frameworks are as discussed below. The first six dimensions described below "had their origins in the dimensions of culture identified by Hofstede (1980)" (House et al. 2002 p.5).

# 3.4.1 Uncertainty Avoidance

This is described as the "extent to which members of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by reliance on social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices to alleviate the unpredictability of future events" (House et al 2002 p.5).

## 3.4.2 Power Distance

This is described as "the degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be unequally shared" (House et al 2002 p.5).

## 3.4.3 Collectivism I

This is a sub-division of Hofstede's dimension of individualism/collectivism and describes "the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups within a society" (Hartog et al 1997 p.394). The main difference between this dimension and Collectivism II in

comparison to Hofstede's individualist and collectivist cultures is that the group/team spirit is paramount in the GLOBE framework.

## 3.4.4 Collectivism II – Family Collectivism

This is one of the products of the split of Hofstede's individualism/collectivism dimension and represents the "degree of integration of the family" (House et al 2002 p.5).

#### 3.4.5 Gender Egalitarianism

This was developed by GLOBE as one of the two dimensions in lieu of masculinity in order to assess how equal the society is in dealing with gender roles. It explains "the extent to which an organization or a society minimizes gender role differences and gender discrimination" (House et al 2002 p.5). According to Grove (2005), cultures that have high gender egalitarianism will have more women in positions of authority, less occupational gender segregation, similar levels of educational attainment for males and females, and women would have a great decision-making role in community affairs. Societies with low gender egalitarianism would have fewer women in positions of authority, more occupational gender segregation; lower level of educational attainment compared to men, and women will have little or no decision-making role in the community.

#### 3.4.6 Assertiveness

This is "the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in social relationships" (House et al 2002 p.5). This was developed by GLOBE as one of the two dimensions to replace masculinity.

#### 3.4.7 Future Orientation

This refers to "the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviours such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification" (House et al 2002 p.5). Although both Hofstede's Long Term Orientation and the GLOBE Future Orientation dimensions have one thing in common which is that they include future aspects of time, Venaik, Zhu and Brewer (2013 p. 364) carried out a comparison of the two dimensions and identified firstly that the first difference is that Hofstede's Long Term Orientation dimension focuses on societal values while the GLOBE Future Orientation provides for both cultural practices and values. The second difference

is that "although the upper end of all Hofstede and GLOBE time dimensions focus on society's long term or FO, Hofstede LTO captures the perseverance and thrift aspects of FO, whereas GLOBE FO represents the planning aspect of FO, in practice and aspirational forms" (Venaik, Zhu and Brewer 2013 p. 377).

#### 3.4.8 Performance Orientation

This is "the extent to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence" (House et al 2002 p.5). It is also described by GLOBE (1996) as quoted in Hartog et al. (1997p.394) as being "the degree to which a society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence".

#### 3.4.9 Humane Orientation

This is "the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others" (House et al 2002 p.5).

Based on the nine cultural dimensions listed above, the GLOBE study further identified ten societal clusters which include South Asia, Anglo, Arab, Germanic Europe, Latin Europe, Eastern Europe, Confucian Asia, Latin America, Sub-Sahara Africa and Nordic Europe (Brennan 2011).

# 3.5 A Critical Assessment of Hofstede's Framework and the Globe Research

This section discusses the differences between the GLOBE research and Hofstede's dimensions and how these differences apply to this research. Hofstede's research has been used and also criticized by so many researchers for different reasons. According to Ahmed, Mouratidis and Preston (2009 p.49), "although his country scores were originally produced in the early 1970s, many replications of Hofstede's study on different cultures have proved that his data are still valid". However, Hofstede's cultural dimensions, although widely used by many international marketing and management researchers have had their own fair share of criticism. Hofstede's classifications have received criticism "regarding the internal validity of the dimensions and the method of constructing the

scales" (Tsikriktsis 2002 p.9). It has also been heavily criticized for being too dated and quite a number of researchers have criticized his methodology and sampling (Myers and Tan 2002, Terlutter, Diehl and Mueller 2006 p.425). Hofstede's critics have also identified that "the description of countries on a mere four or five dimensions is seen as insufficient, with several important dimensions missing" (Terlutter, Diehl and Mueller 2006 p.425). However, this criticism was somewhat made invalid by his addition of another six cultural dimensions in his latest study. Compared to Hofstede's study, the GLOBE research presents the most current data on cultural dimensions and also covers a larger number of cultures (62 cultures). This research also clearly distinguishes between societal values and practices and recognizes that both levels of culture may sometimes even be in conflict. This means that the GLOBE research was not only focused on what the respondent's values were, they were also interested in knowing what the respondents thought their values should be. This slant on their research differentiates the GLOBE research from Hofstede's theory as it gives a more dynamic picture of societal values rather than the static picture represented in Hofstede's research.

According to Terlutter, Diehl and Mueller (2006 p.433), Hofstede in his research is accused of confusing values and behaviours (practices) in his cultural dimensions and the GLOBE research accurately counters this by clearly distinguishing "between both levels of cultures", particularly, the values and practices in a society. The GLOBE research however, does not go without its own set of limitations. Compared to the other cultural frameworks, it has been described as having a relatively small sample size, with an average of about 250 subjects per culture (Terlutter, Diehl and Mueller 2006 p.434). Another limitation is that the respondents to the GLOBE research were middle managers in the corporations studied compared to Hofstede's respondents which "were matched groups of employees in seven occupational categories, two managerial and five non-managerial". Therefore the GLOBE research may not necessarily be a good representation of the cultures analysed (Terlutter, Diehl and Mueller 2006 p.434, Hofstede 2006 p. 884). According to Hofstede et al (2010 p. 42), in the GLOBE study "across countries, some GLOBE dimensions were strongly correlated among each other; "as is" and "as should be" dimensions often correlated negatively".

Overall, the GLOBE research builds on and expands on Hofstede's criteria, they recognise some of the shortcomings of Hofstede's study which have also been cited by other researchers in this field. Some of the refinements of Hofstede's criteria by GLOBE are useful for this research particularly the stress on gender equality as opposed to Hofstede's masculinity/femininity theory which comes in as an alternative view and

perspective to the issue of gender and how they are represented on company websites and in different cultures. According to Terlutter, Diehl and Mueller (2006 p.432), "Hofstede's masculinity dimension was seen to be confounded by numerous factors judged irrelevant to the concept, and was also seen to be lacking in face validity" which is why the GLOBE researchers introduced the additional two cultural dimensions of gender egalitarianism and assertiveness. Another difference between the two studies is the differentiation by the GLOBE research of Hofstede's dimension of 'collectivism' into the sources of collective orientation - the first is Societal Collectivism which "reflects the degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action" (House 2002 p.5) and the second is the In-Group Collectivism which "reflects the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in their organizational or families" (House 2002 p.5). Also different is the adoption by GLOBE of what may be a more accurate terminology for value orientation in the workplace - for instance the terms 'assertiveness', 'performance orientation' and 'human orientation'. The GLOBE research has created a dimension for gender egalitarianism rather than streamlining it to just a case of masculinity as is seen in Hofstede's research. This was important because this research singled out gender equality in terms of the representation of gender on the websites.

Although no one approach has all the solutions to such a complex phenomenon as globalisation and organisational behaviour, in relation to this thesis, the GLOBE research touched on more relevant issues and concerns. One of the reasons why the GLOBE research study has an advantage over Hofstede's study is that it is more recent and has a broader range of countries covered as explained in the previous sections. The GLOBE research also provides a wider and differentiated range of dimensions which provided a wider range of cultural issues that were looked into in the course of this research study. Their research also looked at the emic and epic aspects of organisational behaviour which is particularly relevant to this research as the thesis is focused on organisational practices as regards to localisation. As Hofstede's research is focused and based on national cultures, the GLOBE research stresses the need to find the 'fit' between organisational and national cultures. The need to find how organisational cultures relate to national cultures and vice versa is the central theme of this research and is important as this research focuses on the degree to which Oil and Gas companies will adapt their corporate cultures to the different cultures of the countries they operate in.

# 3.6 Edward Hall's Classification of High and Low Context Cultures

Edward Hall's classification of culture into High and low context was used as a theoretical basis for this research as it puts a communicative rather than a cognitive perspective on the research. Basically, a cognitive approach looks at values as comprising mental attitudes (what Hofstede calls 'software of the mind'). However, when looking at communication, there are limits to the cognitive approach as, arguably, it does not place sufficient emphasis on culture as how people communicate with each other and the styles of communication used. Edward Hall, by defining culture as 'context', places emphasis on the communicative situation as the key to understanding culture.

Edward T. Hall is an Anthropologist who in 1976 developed a framework for intercultural communication. In his study, he categorised each country's cultural values into two main groups: the High Context cultures and the Low Context cultures. According to Hall's theory, cultures of the world can be divided into High and Low Context Cultures, in which the cultural values and modes of communication are different (Barber and Badre 1998). The main emphasis of this research was based on context which according to Edward Hall is the amount of information or the environment surrounding a communication event, which is required by the hearer/receiver to 'de-code' its full meaning. Context can include non-verbal communication, dress, space, arrangement of furniture, hierarchy, time and expectations of it. However, in this research, we identify that it can also be applied to web-based communication. "Context" has primarily been used in verbal communications to refer to "the fact that when communicating people take for granted how much the listener knows about the subject under discussion" (Okazaki 2004 p.83). It can also refer to things like choice of words, intonation, use of silence and pauses. Context covers the amount of contextual information required to interpret written words correctly. As it relates to this research, the implications of Hall's theory on communication styles are mainly the difference in the way that each grouping communicates and the way that each grouping receives communicative messages.

The main reason for using Hall's theoretical classifications on culture was that the researcher identified that the dimensional studies proposed by Hofstede do not adequately address the question of context of communication. Hall's theories therefore provide a good background for the study of how cultural contexts affect communication styles. Because Hall's research is not a quantitative study, it also does not rank different countries like Geert Hofstede's study but instead, generally identifies Western/Northern

European cultures as low-context cultures. The cultures in the Eastern Mediterranean, Asia and Latin America are, on the other hand, identified as high-context cultures (Ahmed, Mouratidis and Preston 2009 p.49). High context cultures prefer an indirect style of communication. Therefore, in high context communication or messages, the information is either in the physical context or internalised in the person, while very little is in the coded, explicit, transmitted part of the message. Low context cultures on the other hand prefer direct styles of communication (Hall 1976 p.91). These communication styles are discussed in more depth in the following section. The following diagram shows how the countries have been presented with high context countries at one end and low context cultures at the other end:



Figure 3: Edward Hall's High and Low Context Culture Classification Hall, E. and M. Hall 1990 (understanding cultural differences) cited in Würtz (2006 p.277).

# 3.6.1 Communication Style Preferences in High Context Cultures

High context communication is typically "characterised by the use of indirect and polite messages that employ a lot of symbols" (Gonzãlez-Trejo 2010 p. 484). In High Context cultures "most of the information is either in the physical context or internalised in the person, while very little is in the coded explicit, transmitted part of the message" (Okazaki 2004 p.83). Physical context as mentioned previously can include 'where' the communication is taking place and whether it is a formal setting or not. Internalisation in

this context relates to 'who' is speaking, for example, whether the communication is coming from a manager or a lower ranking employee. According to Hall's classification, High Context cultures include countries such as Japan, China, Russia and the Arab countries. In High Context communication, the recipient of the message is expected to possess sufficient contextual information to 'de-code' the message correctly by themselves and therefore the speaker does not have to be explicit. A recipient without this contextual information, however, would not have this information, and thus may not understand the message. According to Gamsriegler (2005 p.4), "the reason for this is that their primary goal is to preserve and strengthen relationships by saving face and ensuring harmony". This is because High Context cultures tend to be collectivist cultures, where the maintenance of group harmony is important.

Website users from High Context cultures are also typically "used to indirect, informal and non-verbal ways of communication creating emotions through pictures and entertainment" (Barber and Badre 1998). People communicating in this kind of culture are more concerned about not losing respect or "face" and more concerned about peaceful coexistence. According to Bargiela-Chiappini et al. (2013 p.232), "when considering 'face', the speaker's need to be respected and liked, and the social recognition of the listener's positive self-image, are salient in any type of communication, but particularly so in settings where participants may encounter potential conflict". Based on contextual information in High Context communication, it is expected that "most information is known by the receiver and is contained in the setting so that textual information is minimum" (Ferreira 2002 p.7). High context communication tends to "rely heavily on an elaborate system of symbols, body language, intonations of speech and hidden, culturally based meanings" (Hurn and Tomalin 2013 p.21). Therefore, while communicating, the receiver will need to 'read between the lines' in order to fully understand the message that is being conveyed. This will be easier for people who share the context and are already socialised to expect this both in face to face communications and probably with website communication but might be harder for someone who belongs to another context to understand what the sender is saying.

### 3.6.2 Communication Style Preferences in Low Context Cultures

Low Context communication is "more direct and employs more facts and data, and tends to make comparisons between brands, companies" (Gonzālez-Trejo 2010 p. 484). This therefore means that low context cultures speakers would say what they are thinking without adapting the message to the person to they are speaking to. According to Hurn and Tomalin (2013 p.7), the result of their communication may be transparent and clear but they may be perceived as being rude by individuals who are used to communicating in the high context culture. In low-context communication "the mass of the information is vested in the explicit code" and "tends to employ textual and analytical argumentation, facts and data" (Okazaki 2004 p.83). Communication in this context is succinct and sender oriented and the true intentions of the speaker are made known while communicating therefore there is no need for the listener to try and decode what the speaker is trying to say. The goal while communicating in this context is to ensure that the speaker fully understands what is being communicated to them. As a result of this, website users from low context cultures also prefer "an explicit, direct and verbal communication style providing first of all product information" (Barber and Badre 1998).

According to Gamsriegler (2005 p.3), "low-context systems tend to be more complex as the spoken word has to make up for what is missing in the context". Ferreira (2002 p.8) also adds that in low context communication, "everything is expressed in a textual manner" which means that meaning resides more in the text than in, for instance, the layout or structure of a document or a website. This probably explains why there is a preference in this context for written communication. Low context communicators also "do not assume that everyone has most of the information they require and communication therefore needs to be more explicit" (Hurn and Tomalin p.22). Communication in this context is therefore usually clear and more detailed than communication in the high context cultures. Hall's study "generally identifies Western/ Northern European cultures as low-context cultures" (Okazaki 2004 p.83) with countries in this group including the Scandinavian countries, the United States of America and countries in Europe.

# 3.7 Cultural Markers and Cultural Adaptation of Websites

Cultural markers are defined as a basic element which is present on websites and that are more dominant in one particular cultural group and less dominant and/or absent in others (Taieb 2011). Kim and Kuljis (2010 p. 126) also define cultural markers as signifying "a

cultural association and denotes a conventionalised use of the feature in the website". Cultural markers "include color, spatial organization, shapes, icons and metaphors, language, flags, sound and movement" (Barber and Badre 1998). Cultural markers are also described as cultural attractors by Smith et al (2004) and the design elements of websites that reflect he signs and meanings. These cultural attractors include "colours, colour combinations, banner adverts, trust signs, use of metaphor, language cues, currency formats, navigation controls and similar visual elements that together create a 'look and feel' to match the cultural expectations of the users for that particular domain" (Smith et al 2004 p.70). Mushtaha and De Troyer (2012 p.3) also add that digital cultural markers include "website elements such as colors, color combinations, website layout, data organizing, trust signs, use of metaphor, navigation style, language cues or images". These digital markers are clearly evident on the websites studied for this thesis.

As far as providing an adequate framework for examining the cultural aspects of websites, a body of research in this area has provided evidence to support the fact that consumers prefer culturally adapted websites (Luna et al., 2002; Singh et al., 2004). Snelders, Morel and Havermans (2011) also carried out research to understand users' attitude towards websites that are culturally adapted. Their study which was carried out on the web design of small and medium sized ICT companies focused on German and Spanish users of the company web pages. Their research identified that the website home pages that were adapted to the user's local cultures were considered trustworthy and reliable websites. Luna et al. (2002) also identified that culturally adapted websites reduce the cognitive efforts required from the visitors to process information on the web site, which in turn leads to easier navigation and the development of favourable attitudes towards the website. A vast majority of the research carried out in this area have however concluded that most users prefer websites that have been customised to meet their cultural needs or navigation preferences (Tsikriktsis 2002, Simon 2001). According to Cyr and Trevor-Smith (2004 p. 3), "when web design is not culturally sensitive, there is the potential for exclusion of countries and populations based on accessibility to information that is not culturally appropriate". Quite a number of researchers have identified localisation strategies or frameworks for the adaptation of websites and most of these are discussed below. Most, if not all these frameworks have been based on the cultural dimensions of Edward Hall or Geert Hofstede as discussed above. In some cases it has been a combination of both theoretical frameworks.

Singh and Matsuo (2004) carried out research to understand the cultural values that were embedded in websites. They focused their study on US and Japanese websites from

Forbes 500 list of domestic and international companies with the aim of studying the web as a cultural document. The framework for their study was based on cultural values to analyse the level of cultural adaptation on the websites studied. To carry out the analysis, they used Hofstede's (1980) four cultural values dimensions of individualism—collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and masculinity—femininity and Edward Hall's (1976) high and low context cultural dimensions as literature backing for the study. The conclusion of their research was that they found evidence to confirm that country specific websites reflect national cultures. Their proposed framework for measuring the extent of cultural adaptation on the web could therefore serve as guide for developing websites that are culturally congruent. This research framework is however limited in terms of this research because the framework only focuses on the cultural aspects of localisation and doesn't take into consideration the semiotic elements of a website which also contribute to how or the extent to which a website can be said to be localised.

Marcus and Gould (2000) applied each of Hofstede's culture dimensions to the analysis of localisation practices on university websites. The research was based on the analysis of websites of companies in various sectors such as the national park, university websites as well as several country websites. In this research, they conducted a study on cultural dimensions and global web user interface design based on Hofstede's culture framework. Their research concluded that if cross cultural theory is to become an accepted element of user-interface design, then current practices on website design would need to be changed and new tools developed. Based on a structured cultural focus, Cyr, Head and Larios (2010) looked at the relationship between colour appeal (which colours were preferred by certain cultures) and culture with a focus on "colour appeal in three countries that are culturally diverse and explore possible linkages between colour schemes used in the context of culture, with our three dependent variables of colour appeal, trust, and satisfaction" (p.7). The sample population for the study were ninety participants from three countries, 30 each from Canada, Germany and Japan based on Hofstede's (1981) culture framework. The participants were requested to analyse three versions of the SonyStyle company website to identify colour appeal recognition. Although limited to the study of colours as a cultural attribute, this research was useful in this research for providing a background to the understanding of the role that colour plays and its appeal to the different cultures. Their findings revealed that users would have more confidence in using a website with colour appeal, meaning that the colour scheme was aesthetically pleasing. The main significance in this study is that the colours that users find appealing vary according to culture.

Ahmed et al (2008), in their research explored the local cultural values on Malaysian and British websites selected from the education, banking and tourism sectors. The focus, according to the authors was on "less debated cultures" particularly Malaysia and Britain. In this research, they applied Hofstede's individualism/collectivism, and power distance, and Hall's high/low-context cultural dimensions, and analysed how these cultural values were reflected in Malaysian and British websites. A content analysis of 6 websites was carried out to explore how these local cultural values were reflected in both British and Malaysian websites. They also tried to identify variations between these two cultures by examining three comparable organisations' websites from each culture. The research concluded that there was a need to provide different versions of websites to address the different cultures that exist. They also identified that high power distance and high context cultures value recognition of individual cultures tend to be motivated by admiration and status.

Würtz (2006) carried out a cross cultural analysis of websites from High and Low Context cultures in order to identify the strategies used by each cultural dimension. This study applied Hall's High Context and Low Context dimensions on various McDonald's websites across the works and also analysed cross cultural visual web design using Hall's theory. Würtz (2006 p. 281) identified that "the prominent use of symbolism in HC communication anticipates that images, animations, and other non-textual media will be considered of high importance on HC Web sites". It was also identified in this study that websites created for Low Context cultures are expected to be "richer in text and with fewer occurrences of animations, heavy images, and other effects, to ensure that LC Web sites are kept as practical and direct sources of information". Würtz (2006 p.281) also points out in this research study that priority should be given by creators or designers of the websites to the aesthetic experience of websites in High Context cultures and not only to the informative functions. Aesthetic experience means here that more attention should be paid to how websites are designed and presented considering that in the High context cultures, the users would be trying to decode the 'hidden' messages behind the images and the way that they are presented. This is in contrast with the presentation on the low context culture websites where more information would have to be put on the websites to suit the needs of communication in the low context culture.

Other researchers have focused on cultural contents of websites (Nacar and Bunaz 2011, Vyncke and Brengman 2010, Würtz 2006). Samuel and Gonzalez-Trejo (2010) also carried out a study to understand how companies culturally adapt their websites. Their research was focused on 26 Mexican IT company websites and they tried to apply the

research on cultural adaptation to website content. This research although it provides a good insight into the cultural frameworks used in this research is limited because it focuses only one industry and the Mexican culture. In addition to this research, Singh and Pereira (2005) carried out a research on websites and consumers from five countries (Italy, India, the Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland) with the belief that countries can be defined by the cultures dominant in each country. Their study focused on the front-end level meaning that the focus was on the visual elements that one could easily see on each of the websites such as translation, language options and country specific website options. Their criteria was based on factors such as: the websites being specifically developed for a particular country, the ability to make individuals culturally comfortable which means being able to use a culture that the individuals were familiar and comfortable with, colours used, information provided on the websites and if the symbols used on the websites were reflective of a particular country. In their study, they propose five categories of websites and differentiated website designs from various countries and created a framework using each of Hofstede's and Hall's cultural dimensions. This study is limited in the fact that it is focused on a small number of countries and also sees website localisation as an 'either/or' phenomenon (either global or localised), whereas a 'glocal' approach hypothesizes that both may be present. Their study classified websites into five categories using a website scale of 1 to 5 to reflect their level of globalization. They classed websites into the following:

Standardized websites	These websites have the same web content for both domestic and international users and do not change language for international users. That means that only one website is created for the entire global market.
Semi-	This defines the scenario where only one website is created for the
Localized	global market, however, the website provides contact information about
websites	foreign subsidiaries but little is offered to address the needs of international customers.
Localized	These websites have localised information such as time, date, zip code
websites	and number format, have multiple language options, some pages are
	translated by software, information about company's international
	presence is not displayed on homepage, country-specific website is not easily accessible.
Highly	These have a country-specific website with translations where relevant
localized	for different countries with such websites having a country-specific URL
websites	example is .fr for France and .uk for the United Kingdom. Country-
	specific website is notably visible on the company's homepage and is
	easy to navigate.
Culturally	These websites are completely congruent with the culture of the target
Customized	locale, which implies it is culturally adapted at perceptual, behavioural,
websites	and symbolic levels.

Figure 4: Singh and Pereira (2005) Website Classification

Al-Badi and Mayhew (2010) in their research explored the design of websites for different cultures. This research was carried out by surveys and case studies among internet users, web designers and web production companies. The aim of their research was to create a framework for designing usable localised websites and they also tried to redesign a website using the guidelines of their new framework by comparing the original and the redesigned websites. They concluded that the drive towards website localisation was more because of the financial benefits that a company would get from localising rather than because a company was concerned with the benefits localising would have to the local culture. In relation to this, Cyr and Trevor-Smith (2004) in their research explored issues of user interface design and experience, including culturally preferred design elements. Their research study was conducted through the analysis of websites in Germany, Japan, and the U.S. (30 local government municipal sites in each country). The areas considered for this research were the use of symbols and graphics, colour preferences, site features (links, maps, search functions, page layout), language and content. The conclusion of their research was that there is a need for the localisation of web content. The research also provided significant evidence to support the idea that design preferences differ across cultures and provides ideas on how to create culturally appropriate websites. The main limitation of this research is that only three countries are studied and therefore not a valid sample size. In relation to this research, Smith et al (2004) presented a process model for developing usable cross-cultural websites. In this research they carried out a cultural and semiotic analysis on the websites of all 300 constituent members of the FTSE Eurotop 300 Index to identify the usability of site to global audience of potential investors. The conclusion of their research was an identification of a five stage process model which includes planning the website development process, specifying the context of use, specifying the user and organisational requirements, producing design solution and finally, evaluating the designs against user requirements. Although this research gave a good background into semiotics and its use for the cultural analysis of websites, the process model was not relevant to this research as it was specifically created using the ISO 13407 which is a specific technical certification.

# 3.8 Chapter Summary

In summary, this chapter has discussed the various culture frameworks that are used in business research with a focus on Hofstede's culture dimensions framework as it is the most widely used culture framework in business research. Hofstede proposed a cultural framework constituting of five categories: Power Distance, Individualism/Collectivism, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance and Long/Short Term Orientation. In each of these dimensions, he measured culture based on country boundaries. Hofstede's framework of culture is compared against the GLOBE research work which is a more recent study on culture. The GLOBE research is built on Hofstede's frameworks but developed with the addition of two more dimensions which include gender diversity and family collectivism. The issue of gender equality is one which is very specific to the Oil and Gas industry because this industry is known to be highly male dominated. In view of the two research studies discussed above, relying on Hofstede's study alone would be inadequate, therefore in this thesis, the researcher has used the GLOBE research study in addition to Hofstede.

Using a communicative approach to his research on culture, Edward Hall carried out a research project in 1976 and developed a framework for intercultural communication. In this framework, he categorised culture into Low context and High context communication. Hall's research is different from Hofstede's study because it deals with the communicative aspects of culture and is useful for understanding the communicative aspects and communication styles of the localisation practices in these companies. Culture is represented on websites in various forms which brings about the subject of cultural markers. Cultural markers are elements that relate to any specific culture or group of cultures. On these websites, cultural markers include things like the colours used, the images used on the websites, the language used on the websites as well as the general contents of the websites. These cultural markers are the focus of the analysis in this thesis to provide an in depth understanding of cultural representation on the websites.

## CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

#### 4.1 Introduction

The main rationale for the selection of Multinational Oil and Gas companies for this research was because they are a rapidly growing sector and increasingly have to work across several languages and countries both in terms of doing business and the employees they hire. Also, due to the nature of their operations and the need to have diverse employees from around the world, there seems to be a greater need to translate and localise their language practices than other companies operating globally. Oil and Gas companies, because of their global reach, would be likely to localise their website communication practices. The examination in this study of the localisation practices on the websites is designed to illustrate the extent and nature of this localisation in practice.

Sixteen companies were chosen for this in depth study of localisation practices to demonstrate website features of Oil and Gas companies in terms of HQ locations, size of the company and the areas of operations of each of these companies. The sample companies chosen for this study included established 'major' Oil and Gas companies with headquarters in Western Europe and North America and also included companies with headquarters in Russia, Brazil and Italy which brings diversity to the research. They are also different in size as well as the number of employees they each employ around the world. This section explains the sampling strategies that were used to identify the companies to be studied and what informed the choice of each company in this section. It also provides an overview of all the research methods used for this research along with a background of each of the companies studied for this research, an understanding of the research processes and the rationale behind each chosen research method. The ethical implications of this research and any limitations to the study are also identified and discussed.

#### 4.1.1 The Oil and Gas Industry as a Case Study

The Oil Industry originated in the United States of America and by the 1920s, five of the seven companies that would dominate the industry were American (Boyle 2002). The companies in this industry have successfully thrived in most parts of the world and are continually growing. In the early days, according to Boyle (2002 p. 9), "the fortunes of these companies were based on the demand for oil as a source of energy for the internal

combustion engine and other engines". As demand for oil steadily rose during the first three quarters of the 20th century, so did the number of companies that were involved with producing oil-based and natural gas products (Bandinelli and Gamberi 2011). Oil and Gas companies were chosen as a case study for this research because of the global nature of its business means that they operate in every continent in the world sometimes having operations in several countries in each continent. This inevitably means that they operate across both 'supercentral' and 'hypercentral' languages in the world (De Swaan 2001). Also, because of global reach and operations, the choice of Oil and Gas companies is a good case study to see how the practice of localisation matches up to these global operations. These companies are also seen as a unique source of information as the operational areas of Oil and Gas companies mean that they need to make the locales aware of what their local activities are rather than the practice in the retail industry where companies are primarily trying to sell products on their websites. The world is also now in a new phase of globalisation where there is more focus by Oil and Gas companies on countries like China, India and Russia particularly because since 2008, there has been a recession in the 'West' while there has been continuous growth in the 'BRICS' (Badiru and Osisanya 2013). This new economic situation can make a lot of linguistic and cultural demands on Oil and Gas companies who are not from that region but who want to or are already operating in these countries. This research seeks answers to the extent and nature of localisation practices on the websites of these companies.

Oil companies are mainly divided into two major sectors which are the Upstream Sector and the Downstream Sector. The Upstream Oil Sector is the Exploration and Production part of the business and is mainly involved with the production, searching for underwater Oil and Gas fields and drilling exploratory wells (Ramos and Veiga and Wang 2014 p.7). The upstream Oil and Gas sector includes companies that are involved in all "the operations of seeking for potential underground or underwater oil and gas fields, drilling of exploratory wells, recovery and production of crude oil and natural gas" and generally own assets in the offshore sector (Bandinelli and Gamberi 2011 p.89). The upstream oil sector is also known as "the exploration and production sector" and companies such as Shell and ExxonMobil fall into this category of companies. The Downstream Oil sector is involved with the refining of oil crude, marketing and distribution of oil and gas products (Ramos, Veiga and Wang 2014 p.7). The downstream sector also constitutes of companies that are involved with providing subcontractor services to the Exploration and Production companies such as the operations of crude oil refining, selling and distribution of gas and crude oil products. This sector is composed by a large number of different companies, such as "oil refineries, petrochemical plants, petroleum product distribution firms, retail outlets and natural gas distribution" companies (Bandinelli and Gamberi 2011 p.89). The service providers are part of the downstream sector and are primarily "involved in the process of extraction, transformation of energetic raw material, energy production and chemical transformation" (Bandinelli and Gamberi 2011 p.89). The research was carried out on companies chosen from both the upstream and downstream sectors with the expectation that each sector would provide varied results, which will in turn provide suitable information for a conclusion to this research.

In recent times, the Oil and Gas industry has expanded to include renewables and decommissioning projects and many more due to the development of Oil and Gas resources and the need for abandonment of previously used offshore facilities. When it comes to the classification of companies in the Oil and Gas industry, there have been several classifications such as the example below from Inkpen and Moffett (2011 p.11):

Independent	These companies have all their revenue from either oil and gas production or				
	downstream activities.				
Integrated Oil	This is used to describe large oil and gas companies and is made up of				
Company (IOC)	companies that compete in the upstream, midstream, downstream and				
	maybe petrochemicals sector.				
International Oil	This kind of companies complete across borders and the terms is used to				
Company (IOC)	describe the largest oil and gas companies that operate globally. Examples				
	include BP, Chevron, ConocoPhillips, ExxonMobil, Shell and Total.				
Junior	These are smaller oil and gas companies and are critical for operations and				
	executions in the oil and gas industry.				
National Oil	These are companies controlled by the national government of the country in				
Company (NOC)	which it has most of its operations. Examples include Petrobras, Talisman				
	Sinopec.				
Oil Major	These are the large non-state-owned oil and gas companies which are either				
	publicly traded companies or privately owned.				
Supermajor	This is used to describe the largest oil majors, for example, BP, Chevron,				
	ConocoPhillips, ExxonMobil, Shell and Total.				

Figure 5: Classification of Companies

There have been a number of environmental issues and disasters stemming from the activities of the upstream and downstream oil and gas sectors. Environmental issues in the exploration and production of Oil and Gas products include gas flaring which involves the safe disposal of gaseous refinery wastes (Bahadori 2014). Oil and gas companies have also been accused of not taking extra care to protect the environment and to avoid

pollution such as the incident with the Deepwater Horizon in April 2010 where an undetected influx of hydrocarbons caused a blowout which flowed to the rig floor and caused explosions which killed 11 men and caused an oil spill (Vallero and Letcher 2012). Other disasters in the upstream sector include those affecting offshore facilities such as the BP Macondo well blowout in April 2010 (Badiru and Osisanya 2013 p.30), Oil spills which affect coastal habitats and the eco systems such as the Deepwater Horizon spill in the Gulf of Mexico mentioned above and the Exxon Valdez spill in 1989 (Vallero and Letcher 2012). However, most countries with increased Oil and Gas activities have now put in place measures such as environmental policies to reduce the environmental impact or occurrence of these disasters and to safeguard lives (Papavinasam 2013).

### 4.1.2 Specific features of the Oil and Gas industry

This section explains the reason why the Oil and Gas industry was identified as a suitable case study for this research. The Oil and Gas industry has its own very specific features and qualities which made it a viable industry to focus on for this research study. This industry is also global in terms of its reach and operations around the world. Below are some of the major reasons why this industry was chosen for this study:

- The Oil and Gas industry seems to be unexplored in terms of localisation and translation studies. The researcher could not identify any study that has been carried out specifically focusing on websites or localisation practices of Oil and Gas companies. This area was therefore identified as a gap that needed to be filled.
- The nature of activities in the Oil and Gas industry means that most, if not all the companies operating in this sector are of a global nature with the headquarter locations situated in different parts of the world such as Eastern Europe, America, Africa and so on which brought diversity to the research. Using companies in this sector gives the study a global coverage as it will help identify different website localisation strategies used, cut across different languages, and will also provide an understanding of whether these companies, by having a global reach, are 'global' in the cultural/linguistic sense.
- Oil and Gas industry websites are important for this research because of the fact that
  the websites are not used primarily for buying and selling but rather for promotional,
  commercial, informative and symbolic functions. Oil and Gas industry websites are
  mostly used as a source of information to the company's target audience, used for
  promotions and advertising Oil and Gas products, a source for their employees to gain

more information about other locations where the company operates in and a source where interested people can get annual reports and accounts information. It also acts as a contact and information database for the media which is a different perspective on the primary use of websites.

• The Oil and Gas industry has its associated set of metonyms which are used on company websites. These include the use of working gear, vessels and offshore locations on their websites. The study of these metonyms and how they are represented as iconic symbolic on the various websites was significant in this research as it gave a good insight into how these Oil and Gas companies used iconic images to represent the local. The Oil industry seems to have a particular kind of semiotics, including symbols, iconic images and metonyms, which are a major part of its global communication.

#### 4.1.3 Previous Studies of website localisation research

Previous studies of localisation have been covered in great detail in the literature review section of this thesis. The table below lists out the industries and the different research areas where current research in this area has been focused on:

Industry covered	Researcher (s)					
Retail/E-commerce	Chao, M,C., et al. (2012), Singh and Pereira (2005), Hillier (2003),					
	Wurtz (2005), Lo and Gong (2005), Singh, Furrer and Ostinelli (2004),					
	Fink and Laupase (2000), Maynard and Tian (2004), Okazaki (2004)					
IT	Al-Badi and Mayhew (2010), Cyr, Head and Larios (2010)					
Advertising	González-Trejo (2010)					
Tourism/Education and	Ahmed, Mouratidis and Preston (2008)					
Banking						
Banking	Tsikriktsis (2002)					

Figure 6: List of Industries and Research on Website Adaptation

# 4.2 General Review of Research Methodological Approaches

The main focus for this research was the websites of Oil and Gas companies. Carrying out research online allowed the researcher to engage in research on a worldwide basis and with a low cost (Illingworth 2001). According to Eysenbach and Till (2001), there are three different types of internet based research methods which can be used for analysis. The first type is Passive Analysis; this is the study of information patterns on websites or on discussion groups without the personal involvement of the researcher. The second type of internet based research that can be carried out is called Active Analysis. This is when researchers participate in actual communications online in order to carry out research. The third type is when a researcher makes it known to the online community what he/she is researching, that he/she is a researcher and gathers information through the means of online semi structured interviews, online focus groups or online surveys. For this research, the researcher used the first type of internet based research method called Passive Analysis method. This was because this method provided the researcher with the opportunity to carry out an analysis on communication patterns without any personal involvement of the researcher. Trying to understand the nature and extent of localisation on these websites did not need any communication on any online communities as it was not required to address the research questions.

Quantitative and Qualitative research methods, as discussed in the sections that follow, are two traditional ways of carrying out research which both fall into the empirical research category (Hu and Fan 2011). Depending on the area of research, a researcher can choose to use only quantitative methods, qualitative methods or to use a combination of both methods. These research methods are explained in the sections that follow. For this thesis, the decision was to use a combination of both methods in order to provide in depth results and answers to the research questions. This method is usually known as a mixed-method design or approach (Lapan et al 2012 p.10, Harrison 2013) and has been given many other names including "multiple methods, blended research, multimethod, triangulated studies, and mixed research".

Following the literature review carried out for this research, the table below was completed which provides a general overview of quantitative and qualitative approaches to research that are currently used in the study of website localisation and globalisation. This analysis helps to provide a methodological background for the approaches that have been used for this research.

Types of Research Approach Used	Researcher (s)				
Carrying out website surveys and using	Al-Badi and Mayhew (2010), Singh and Pereira				
individual companies as case studies.	(2005)				
Carrying out research based on Research	Baack and Singh (2007), Marcus and				
Frameworks such as Hofstede's culture	Gould (2000), Ahmed et al (2008)				
framework					
Carrying out studies of a wide number of	Nacar and Burnaz (2011), Cyr and Trevor-Smith				
websites	(2004)				
Content Analysis	Nacar and Burnaz (2011), Ahmed, Mouratidis and				
	Preston (2008), Singh and Baack (2004), Maynard				
	and Tian (2004), Okazaki and Rivas (2002), Cho				
	et al (1999), Halliburton and Ziegfeld (2009), Kim				
	and Kuljis (2010)				

Figure 7: List of Research Methods used

## 4.2.1 Content Analysis

As can be seen from the table above, researchers in this field have used quite a variety of research methods to analyse information relating to their research. The approach that seemed to be most frequently used in website localisation studies is the use of a content analysis but this has been dependent on the nature of the research questions of these studies. Kim and Kuljis (2010 p.374) carried out research in order to introduce the content analysis technique and how it can be applied to web based content. They carried out a case study analysis on blogs in order to identify cultural differences between South Korea and the British website users. They found that the content analysis method was the most suitable method for this kind of research and that it "allows researchers to perform and prepare data at their convenience and to avoid lengthy ethics approval procedures". A content analysis is used in the social sciences to analyse various forms of communications, mostly those that are based on textual data (Vitouladiti 2014).

Content analysis has been classified by researchers in the social sciences as having the tendency to be either quantitative or qualitative in nature (Adams, Khan and Raeside 2014) and its description is usually based on one of these two approaches. Qualitative content analysis goes beyond merely counting words to examining language intensely for the purpose of classifying large amounts of text into an efficient number of categories that represent similar meanings (Weber, 1990) and is "useful in allowing the researcher to present a picture of what the concepts are but it does not help in understanding why ideas or interpretations arose in the first place" (Adams, Khan and Raeside 2014 p.159). Kim

and Kuljis (2010 p.370) also add that qualitative content analysis is "similar to textual analysis in that it is primarily interpretive in nature, and often does not utilise statistics for data analysis". Other researchers posit that content analysis "is an approach to convert more qualitative items such as texts, videos or websites into numerical variables in order to later conduct a quantitative analysis" (Halliburton and Ziegfeld 2009 p.914). On the other hand, quantitative content analysis is "used to make valid and reliable inferences from the data to their context" Krippendorff 1980 quoted by (Kim and Kuljis 2010 p.370). The content analysis method was used for this study but from a quantitative perspective. The main reason for using quantitative content analysis was because, to answer certain of the research questions, such as how much of celebrity representation, local events or promotions etc was present on a website, the quantitative content analysis was more appropriate. The form of content analysis carried out was manual rather than computer aided, because of the nature of the content of these websites. This is because it gave the researcher the opportunity to carry out a more thorough analysis of the websites based on an individual analysis of each of its contents rather than by using software. This was because software would not be sufficient in providing information on the extent and nature of website localisation but would only serve to point out occurrences of relevant key words.

## 4.2.2 Justification of Quantitative Approaches

The quantitative research method is based on the methodological principles of positivism and neo-positivism and is applied for quantitative measurement which requires statistical analysis (Adams, Khan and Raeside 2014 p.159). Essentially, this research method is used to study a research phenomenon which can be measured, surveyed or quantified. This method is used to identify how much and how often there is an occurrence of different events in a research area. According to Gelo et al (2008 p.268), "quantitative research requires the reduction of phenomena to numerical values in order to carry out statistical analysis". Therefore, to fully carry out an analysis using the quantitative approach, data collated needs to be counted and quantified in order to make meaningful conclusions of the data. Data collated needs to be in a numerical form in order to be properly quantified or using for any research using this method of approach. According to Blaxter et al (2010 p.65), quantitative research method "tends to involve relatively largescale and representative sets of data, and is often, falsely in our view, presented or perceived as being about the gathering of 'facts". This tends to add to or increase the cost of carrying out quantitative research and has been seen by some researchers as a disadvantage.

A quantitative research strategy is generally based on "hypothetical deduction and statistical analysis" (Mehmetoglu 2004 p182) and research methods can include things like asking for people's weight or height or for a company's annual income. It was established on analysis of the quantitative methods available that this method was appropriate for some aspects of the research analysis because it provided a good structure to gather background information about the companies, provided a good overview of all the websites to be studied and made it easier to streamline the research questions for the qualitative analysis. The limitation of using quantitative methods was that they were not adequate in providing an understanding of the reasons behind different localisation practices. It was therefore why the researcher decided that it was necessary to combine the quantitative research method with a qualitative approach.

#### 4.2.3 Justification of Qualitative Approaches

A qualitative research can be defined as "an approach that allows you to examine people's experiences in detail, by using a specific set of research methods such as indepth interviews, focus group discussions, observation, content analysis, visual methods, and life histories or biographies" (Hennink et al 2011 p.9). Essentially, this method is used in the research field to understand the "why?" "how?" and "what?" of the research area studied. Creswell (2009 p.22) also describes qualitative research as "a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem". (Blaxter et al 2010 p.65) further adds that qualitative research "tends to focus on exploring, in as much detail as possible, smaller numbers of instances or examples which are seen as being interesting or illuminating, and aims to achieve 'depth' rather than 'breadth'". Almost all the research carried out on the localisation or cultural adaptation of websites have used the content analysis method as a means of gathering information (Singh et al 2005, Baack and Singh 2007), others have also used questionnaires as a means of gathering information (Singh et al 2004). However, the researcher thought that this would be too general to provide the kind of answers that would respond to the research question and therefore decided to follow a different strategy which will be outlined later on this thesis.

There are several approaches that can be used to obtain information while carrying out a qualitative study. In qualitative approaches to research, information gathered for the research includes responses to surveys and is most often of a non-numerical manner as opposed to the quantitative approach to research. According to Creswell (2009 p.22), this involves "emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant's

setting, data analysis inductively building from particulars to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data". Gelo et al (2008 p.268), further add that "qualitative research involves collection of data in a non-numerical form, i.e. texts, pictures, videos, etc". This is particularly relevant as this study was partly focused on the textual aspects of websites such as symbols and signifiers on each of the websites studied as well as the number of times certain images and symbols such as flags and colours appeared on the websites. The main justification for using this approach was that, by treating the websites as texts, systems of meaning consisting of images, written, text and symbols, it enabled an understanding of localisation practices which those studies based entirely on quantitative content analysis did not achieve.

The qualitative analysis was based on a semiotic and cultural analysis of the selected Oil and Gas websites and was a primary source for obtaining culturally specific information about the values of each company studied. Semiotics can be described as "the discipline that connects meaning, meaning making, communication and culture through an understanding of acts of signification" with computer-based signs including "textual cues, images, icons, and sounds" (Smith et al 2004 p.70). Websites can be treated as either 'content' that consists of written words and types of content which can be measured or as 'text' - consisting of signifiers, icons, colours, symbols whose meaning has to be 'decoded' using semiotics. They can also be understood as a semiotic system by means of which companies communicate notions of the global and local. The key methodological justification of this is Koller's (2007) study which applied semiotic analysis to a global industry – banking. Using this approach provided the opportunity to interpret meanings from the websites from both a local and a global perspective with the expectation that the meanings would vary depending on the culture the websites were made for. This semiotic system is the key to getting beyond 'content' to meaning and is what this research explores - as this is the key to the research problem. Using this research method allowed the researcher to collect raw data straight from the websites, analyse them and focus on the main themes which were relevant to this research as well as gain a thorough understanding of the social contexts surrounding the creation of the websites. Using this method was also effective in identifying layers of meaning that were not apparent at the level of 'content' and that would not otherwise have been picked up using a quantitative research approach (DeCoster and Lichtenstein 2007). The qualitative method therefore was used in conjunction with the quantitative method to gain a thorough and informed knowledge of Oil and Gas website localisation practices. Understanding the number of times an element was used on the websites by carrying out a quantitative analysis would not have been sufficient in providing detailed answers to the research question.

#### 4.2.4. The Mixed Methodology Approach to Research

The following reasons provided a backing for the choice of a mixed methodology approach:

- The validity of this method has been tested by a wide number of researchers studying websites (Pollach 2005).
- This method is more able to answer certain complex research questions. As this
  research involved both semiotic and content analysis, this method provided the
  opportunity to carry out a qualitative content analysis of the websites as well as an
  empirical validation through a quantitative analysis of the language and demographic
  details of the websites (Sreejesh and Mohapatra 2014).
- The results were complementary to each other (Lund 2012). In order to carry out a
  quantitative content analysis, the researcher had to first gather the qualitative details of
  the websites to enable an understanding of what was being studied.
- Using both methods provided valid inferences (Lund 2012). By comparing the findings from both research methods, it was easy to come to a valid conclusion.
- It was an opportunity to maximise the benefits of both quantitative and qualitative research methods and to eliminate the deficiencies of using any one of these methods in isolation.
- Issues dealing with intercultural communication are a "mixture of many social science disciplines" (Hu and Fan 2011 p. 555) and therefore it is recommended that more than one research method be adopted in order to achieve a comparatively more complete result.

# 4.3 Sampling and Selection of Oil and Gas Companies for Analysis

Sampling can be described as "the process or technique of selecting a suitable sample for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population" (Adams, Khan and Raeside 2014 p.7). There are quite a few sampling strategies available for use in research and different sampling approaches exist for the qualitative and

quantitative research approaches discussed above. Sampling strategies can be divided into two main groups or techniques: probability and non-probability sampling (Baxter et al 2010, Adams, Khan and Raeside 2014 p.73). Probability sampling includes random sampling which involves every individual or object in the group of interest having equal chances of being chosen for the research study (Baxter et al 2010 p.170). When it comes to the choice of sampling strategies for a quantitative research approach, random sampling is used when there is a defined population for analysis to determine the number and likelihood of an occurrence (Harding 2013). More complex sampling approaches also exist which include systematic and stratified sampling and more focused approaches such as the cluster and stage sampling strategies (Baxter et al 2010 p.170).

With the non-probability sampling approach, this is usually "used when a researcher lacks a sampling frame for the population in question, or where a probabilistic approach is judged not to be necessary" (Baxter 2010 p.170). This sampling approach tends to be the preferred option when it comes to sampling in qualitative research because of cost and time factors (Adams, Khan and Raeside 2014). The sampling approaches include Convenience Sampling which includes sampling the most convenient options, Voluntary Sampling which includes self-selecting the samples, The Quota Sampling method involves deciding at the point of designing the study, how many people or subsets to use as participants. This involves convenience sampling within groups of population, Purposive Sampling which involves hand picking supposedly typical cases, Dimensional Sampling which involves multi-dimensional quota sampling and the Snowball Sampling strategy which involves building up contacts with participants using existing social networks.

As the data to be collected for this research was large, it was impossible to collate data from all Oil and Gas companies that exist around the world or even in one country only. It was therefore imperative to set out a sampling strategy in order to identify the companies that would be appropriate for the research. On analysis of the sampling strategies that exist, the researcher decided to use the Purposive Sampling Strategy as in the case of the websites studied, it had the chances of providing a good selection of companies and websites and allowed the researcher to weed out companies that did not have the sufficient number of websites that could be used for the study, language options that could provide answers to the research questions and in some cases, companies that were simply not large enough to be considered for the research.

The companies chosen for the analysis were Oil and Gas companies some of which are Exploration and Production (E & P) companies and some of which are companies who provide services that are crucial to the operation of the Oil and Gas industry. Studying both E&P and Service companies in the Oil and Gas industry gave the opportunity to look at different types of multinational Oil and Gas companies and in that way determine what their specific localisation needs would be. It also provided the opportunity to identify any localisation strategies used, and to see if these strategies were in any way similar or grossly different. Corporate websites have become an important channel for companies to reach their publics (Maynard and Tian 2004 p.285), therefore, analysing the home page was also an opportunity to assess the multinational nature of these companies based on the countries where they operate. To understand this, it was useful to know the number of global locations each Oil and Gas company has, the number of people it currently employs and where its home country is based. This information was also needed in order to understand what the natural language requirements (in terms of language of origin or office location) would be and what would be the language of choice in communicating with employees and clients based on their headquarter location. Another reason for the selection of these particular companies was because some of them, such as Petrobras and Lukoil for instance, are focused on certain parts of the world such as Eastern Europe and Africa which gives a good picture of what is happening in the industry in general. More importantly, although the main purpose of this was to produce a homogeneous sample i.e. a sample which fulfilled all the criteria of global reach etc., an equally important criterion was to produce a heterogeneous sample in terms of the nationality, origins of the companies – this was to eliminate any bias towards 'Western' companies – particularly to see if there were any differences in localisation strategies between the different types of company.

The companies chosen for this study were selected from a list of over 100 Oil and Gas companies published online on the RigZone website <a href="http://www.rigzone.com/search/">http://www.rigzone.com/search/</a>. The Rigzone website describes itself as "your Gateway to the Oil and Gas Industry" and provides Oil and Gas "industry news and information, careers, company directory, offshore rig data, equipment marketplace, and more". The list of Oil and Gas companies is maintained by Rigzone employees and individuals can register for free to be a member of Rigzone where they can obtain free updates on activities in the Oil and Gas industry. The website claims to provide its users with an "industry gateway full of dynamic, original content and resources that cannot be found anywhere else" (<a href="www.rigzone.com">www.rigzone.com</a>). This source was used because it is a reliable source of current information on Oil and Gas issues and is also a source of accurate information on companies currently existing in that

sector. Although companies can go to the Rigzone website themselves and go through the process of adding their company websites, all the additions are vetted and verified before they go live on the Rigzone website. Rigzone also has sole discretion on the sites that are listed in the directory which means that random companies are not listed on this site.

### 4.3.1 Sampling Criteria

The following sampling process was used for this study:

- The first obvious criterion was that all the companies had to be Oil and Gas companies. This included either Exploration and Production Sector companies or Oil and Gas service companies. Focusing this research on these two main company types in the Oil and Gas industry meant that it was possible to have a comparison of practices in both types of companies. Identifying these companies meant that there was variety and heterogeneity in the research. It also ensured that the main categories of companies in the Oil and Gas industry were represented in the sample to mirror the structure of the industry.
- The Oil and Gas companies used for this study also have their headquarter locations in different parts of the world giving the research a sense of diversity. Although the majority of the companies studied have their headquarter locations in the United States of America and the United Kingdom, there are other companies with headquarter locations in other parts of Europe (Denmark, France, Italy, The Netherlands, Norway) a few with headquarters in, Russia and Brazil which also diversifies the response that is gotten from this study. The table in Figure 8 details the demographic information of the Oil and Gas companies used for this research.
- The size of the company was the next criterion taken into consideration. The companies were divided into categories on the basis of the size of the company, particularly the number of employees and locations the company has around the world. This was because it was the researcher's intention to carry out this research on both large to small and medium companies in order to have a varied view. To identify the companies to be studied, the companies were listed out, as well as all the global locations of each companies and the number of employees they have worldwide as can be seen in Figure 8. The researcher then decided on sixteen (16) companies to

study based on size and global locations out of the initial 20 companies identified for this study.

- The next criterion taken into consideration was that the selected Oil and Gas companies needed to have a web presence. This was mainly because the research analysis was to be carried out on the company websites. Although most, if not all Oil and gas companies have websites, not all of them had sufficient content that could be used for this study. Some of them did not also have country specific websites so using them would have limited the information obtained for this study. The researcher therefore verified that the companies had sufficient number of websites to be considered for this study which was a minimum of five (5).
- A language zone is defined in this research as the main language spoken by one or more countries studied. The researcher verified the language zones that each of these companies operate in by checking their websites to confirm their main area of operations. This was because the target of the research was to cover as many language zones as possible in order to get a good understanding of practices.
- Following on from this, and for the same reason as the last point, it was imperative to identify that there was variety in the language of the Head Quarter location as well as language options available on these websites.
- The researcher verified that each website provides language support by providing language options to website users as without this it would be impossible to study the language differences or similarities.

Companies	Global Website link	Home	No. of	No. of	No. of	No. of	Type of
		country	employees	employees	global	global	company
			2012	2014	locations	locations	
					2012	2014	
BP	www.bp.com	UK	100,000	83,900	26	80	E&P
Bureau	www.bureauveritas.co	Belgium	52,000	61,600	140	140	Service
Veritas	<u>m</u>						
Chevron	www.chevron.com	USA	61,000	64,500	84	84	E&P
Conoco	www.conocophillips.c	USA	16,000	16,000	30	30	E&P
Phillips	<u>om</u>						
Dong	www.dongenergy.com	Denmark	6,400	6,500	5	5	E&P
Energy							
ENI	www.eni.com	Italy	80,000	82,300	85	85	Service
ExxonMobil	www.exxonmobil.com	USA	83,600	83,600	-	53	E&P
Fugro	www.fugro.com	Netherlands	14,000	14,000	60	60	Service
Lukoil	www.lukoil.com	Russia	150,000	150,000	40	40	E&P
OMV Group	www.omv.com	Austria	29,800	27,000	30	30	E&P
Perenco	www.perenco.com	UK	5,000	5,000	16	15	E&P
Petrobras	www.petrobras.com	Brazil	80,497	80,497	27	27	E&P
RPS Group	www.rpsgroup.com	UK	5,000	5,000	123	123	E&P
Shell	www.shell.com	Holland	90,000	90,000	80	80	E&P
Talisman	www.talisman-	Canada	3,700	3,700	-	13	E&P
	energy.com						
Technip	www.technip.com	France	30,000	30,000	48	48	Service

Figure 8: List of Company Data

## 4.3.2 Activities, Strategies and Economics of the Sample Companies

The type of Oil and Gas Company (E & P or Service), the size of the company, language zones and many more are what informed the decisions on which companies to study for this research. It was therefore imperative to understand the activities, strategies and economics of the sample companies selected for this study. Below is a brief introduction of the companies used for this study and justification for the choice of these companies:

**BP:** British Petroleum is said to be "one of the world's leading international oil and gas companies, providing its customers with fuel for transportation, energy for heat and light, retail services and petrochemicals products" (<a href="www.bp.com">www.bp.com</a>). BP started in 1908 and is one of the longest standing exploration companies, currently employing over 100,000 employees and operating in over 20 countries. This company is headquartered in the

United Kingdom and is listed on the New York and the London Stock Exchanges. BP's global reach means that it operates across most language zones and therefore needs to consider localisation strategies. The company currently has 80 subsidiary and country locations around the world and it was identified that BP has several websites in different languages demonstrating its access to different language zones.

**Bureau Veritas:** This downstream Oil and Gas Company was founded in Antwerp in 1828 and is a "global leader in Testing, Inspection and Certification" (www.bureauveritas.com). Bureau Veritas currently employs 52,000 employees in 140 countries worldwide and is headquartered in France. The company is listed on the New York stock exchange and has almost equal operations in Europe, Africa, Asia, Middle East and the American regions. The number of people the company employs also means that this company transcends a lot of language zones and currently has websites in several different languages.

Chevron: Chevron is currently "one of the world's leading integrated companies" (<a href="www.chevron.com">www.chevron.com</a>) and is an Exploration and Production Company. According to the company's website, the company is "involved in every facet of the energy industry" ranging from exploration, production and transportation crude oil and natural gas, refining, marketing and distribution of transportation fuels and lubricants, manufacture and sell petrochemical products; generate power and produce geothermal energy; provide renewable energy and energy efficiency solutions; and develop the energy resources of the future, including research into advanced biofuels. The company is currently listed on the New York Stock Exchange market, employs 61,000 people in 84 countries worldwide and is headquartered in the United States of America. Chevron has websites in different languages probably because the company has to work across different language and culture zones. It has also been chosen for this study primarily because of its size and the fact that this company is one of the 'majors' in the Oil and Gas industry.

ConocoPhillips: This is an Exploration and Production company which is headquartered in the United States of America. ConocoPhillips "explores for, produces, transports and markets crude oil, natural gas, natural gas liquids, liquefied natural gas and bitumen" (<a href="www.conocophillips.com">www.conocophillips.com</a>). The company currently operates in 30 countries and has over 16,000 employees worldwide. ConocoPhillips's common stock is listed on the New York Stock Exchange. This company was chosen for this study first of all because it is one of the Operator companies in the Oil and Gas industry. The company carries out activities across the world and therefore invariably operates across different language zones.

**Dong Energy:** Dong Energy, established in 2006, is one of the leading energy groups involved with procuring, producing, distributing and trading in energy and related products (<a href="www.dongenergy.com">www.dongenergy.com</a>). The company is involved in oil and natural gas exploration and production and currently employs 6,500 people. This company is currently headquartered in Denmark and will shortly be listed on the Copenhagen stock exchange market. One reason why this company was chosen for this study is because the main focus of its activities is in Northern Europe which provides a different perspective to the research. The number of personnel employed by the company and the number of websites, although small, was sufficient to provide a good sample for this study.

**ENI:** Founded in 1953, ENI is a major integrated energy company which is involved with the "finding, producing, transporting, transforming and marketing of Oil and Gas" (<a href="www.eni.it">www.eni.it</a>). The company currently employs 82,300 employees in 85 countries and has been around since 1952. ENI's headquarters is in Italy and the company is currently listed on the New York Stock Exchange. The company operates across a broad group of services including the exploration and production of oil and gas in addition to the provision of services to the Oil and Gas industry. ENI is specific for this study because of its capacity to be both an operator and a services company in the Oil and Gas industry.

**ExxonMobil:** ExxonMobil claims on its website to be "the world's largest publicly traded international Oil and Gas Company" and "the world's largest refiner and marketer of petroleum products" (<a href="www.exxonmobil.com">www.exxonmobil.com</a>). This company has been operational for the last 125 years and is headquartered in the United States of America. ExxonMobil originates from an English speaking country which helped understand language and cultural patterns of companies who already communicate using the language which is considered as the Lingua Franca. ExxonMobil is listed on the New York Stock Exchange and employs over 83,000 people. This is one of the oldest companies in the industry and provided good insight into how more established Oil and Gas companies manage their localisation practices.

**Fugro:** Fugro is a leading Service Provider involved with the "collection and interpretation of data relating to the earth's surface and sub-surface and for associated services and advice in support of infrastructure development on land, along the coast and on the seabed" (www.fugro.com). Fugro was founded in 1962 and is currently listed on the Amsterdam stock exchange of NYSE Euronext. Fugro is currently headquartered in The Netherlands and describes itself as "a large company, consisting of many autonomous Operating Companies" (www.fugro.com). Fugro prides itself in having grown "organically

and through acquisitions" (<u>www.fugro.com</u>) and at the time of this research, employed about 14,000 staff in over 60 countries while carrying out most of its operations in the European/Nordic and African regions. Fugro has the highest level of autonomy for its global locations amongst all the companies studied.

**Lukoil:** Lukoil is an international Oil and Gas company which claims on its corporate website to be the company currently accountable for 2.2% of the global output of crude oil (<a href="www.lukoil.com">www.lukoil.com</a>). Lukoil is traded on the London Stock Exchange and currently claims to be the largest privately owned Oil and Gas Company in the world by proved oil reserves. The company currently employs 150,000 people in over 40 countries around the world. Lukoil is headquartered in Moscow, Russia and is one of the few successful Oil and Gas companies that is headquartered outside the European and American continents. Another reason why this company was used for this study was because most of the company's activities are focused in the former Soviet countries and Eastern Europe which provides a diverse perspective to the research.

**OMV Group:** The OMV group is an "integrated international oil and gas company" with operations in over 30 countries around the world (<a href="www.omv.com">www.omv.com</a>). It currently employs over 27,000 people and is headquartered in Vienna, Austria. The OMV Group is listed on the stock exchange market and currently claims to be Austria's largest listed industrial company. The company focuses on three main business areas which are Exploration and Production (E & P), Gas and Power (G &P) and Refining and Marketing (R & M) and focuses its business activities on the Middle East and the Caspian Region. The focus on these regions gives this research a Middle Eastern perspective and also broadens the research to cover most of the main regions where Oil and Gas operations are currently being carried out around the world. Also, being in the upstream sector, this company provided an opportunity to understand the website communication strategies used by E & P companies.

**Perenco:** Perenco is an independent Oil and Gas company founded in 1975 (<a href="www.perenco.com">www.perenco.com</a>). It currently operates in fifteen countries worldwide and employs 4,000 people which makes it one of the smallest companies in terms of size used for this research. This company, regardless of its size, provided an appropriate comparative case study for comparison against the practices and strategies used by the larger exploration and Production companies in the industry. Although originally from French origins, this company is headquartered in the United Kingdom. The choice of a different area of operation and the main language of the originating country of this company provided a

different perspective to the study of language and culture on websites. The company identifies its main area of focus to be Africa, Mediterranean – North Africa, Latin America, United Kingdom and Vietnam. However, one can tell from a look at the corporate website and major contracts won by this company that most of this company's operations are in the African region (www.perenco.com).

Petrobras: Petrobras is a state owned oil company which has a record of "developing technology to explore and produce oil in deep and ultra-deep waters" (www.petrobras.com). Petrobras is headquartered in Brazil, operational in twenty seven countries and employs over 80,000 personnel. The company is currently listed on the New York Stock Exchange with operations focused in the Brazilian and the South American area. Studying this company provided a different perspective to the mainly Europe focused companies available in the sector. As Petrobras is an E & P company, it provided a good perspective of strategies used by large Oil and Gas companies. Also, as Petrobras is focused on a country which is mainly Portuguese speaking, studying this company provided a different view on language strategies used by Oil and Gas companies in the Exploration and Production sector.

RPS Group: is an international Oil and Gas consultancy company which thrives on the "exploration and production of energy and other resources" (<a href="www.rpsgroup.com">www.rpsgroup.com</a>). It is currently listed on the London Stock Exchange and is headquartered in the United Kingdom. It also currently employs approximately 5,000 personnel and operates in over 100 countries and in six continents. This company was chosen for this study as it is not really known in the Oil and Gas industry and is relatively new in the sector. Another reason why this company was chosen was because a look at the company's website identified that the main focus of the company is in the European continent.

**Shell:** Shell is a "global group of energy and petrochemical companies" with headquarters in the Netherlands. (www.shell.com). Shell is listed on the London Stock Exchange and currently employs around 90,000 employees and operates in more than 80 countries. Shell is an operator in the Oil and Gas sector and operates in both the Upstream and Downstream sectors. This company was chosen for this study as it is invariably associated and synonymous with the Oil and Gas industry. The company is from Dutch origins which gives this research a different language perspective. Although from the European sector, Shell is an Exploration and Production Oil and Gas company which is currently operational in most companies in the world.

Talisman: Talisman is a global upstream Oil and Gas company which was established in 1992 and has its headquarters in Canada (<a href="www.talisman-energy.com">www.talisman-energy.com</a>). Although a fairly new company to the Oil and Gas scene compared to the others used for this study, having the company's headquarters in Canada produced different results for this study particularly in the area of language strategy and management. Canada is one of the multilingual countries identified for this research and this study identified how this was presented on their websites. Talisman, although a relatively new company, is listed on the Toronto and New York Stock Exchanges and currently employs approximately 3,700 people around the world.

**Technip:** Technip is "a world leader in project management, engineering and construction for the energy industry" (<a href="www.technip.com">www.technip.com</a>). Technip operates in 48 countries and has its shares listed on the New York Stock Exchange Euronext Paris Exchange. Technip was established and is headquartered in Paris, France as a service company in the Oil and Gas industry. Studying this company provided a service company perspective to this research. The company has been operational for over 50 years and currently employs 32,000 people. This company therefore provided a sense of diversity to the research, provided a good cross section of company websites for the study and provided a good linguistic perspective to the research.

# 4.4 Framework Building

To provide a research framework for this thesis, it was important to carry out a review of existing analytical frameworks to understand how they tie into this research and also to highlight any gaps in the existing frameworks. The main frameworks reviewed to determine a fit to this research where Hofstede's culture framework, Edward Hall's High and Low Context culture categorisation and the findings from the GLOBE study. Based on the review of these existing frameworks, the researcher identified that the criteria set out in the various existing frameworks do not really deal with questions of semiotics such as what symbols and images are being represented on websites, particularly Oil and Gas websites. This supports previous research on company websites (Koller 2007) which identified similar shortcomings of not finding suitable criteria from the existing cultural dimensions. It was therefore important to come up with a framework which would provide clarity to the main theoretical concepts being investigated and also fill the existing gap for a framework specifically suited the Oil and Gas industry.

As this research studies language and culture as two separate subjects, the researcher decided to build two separate frameworks: the first for the semiotic and linguistic analysis and the second for the culture and design analysis of the websites. The criteria for the frameworks were derived primarily from the existing frameworks of Hofstede, Hall and the GLOBE theory. This was further adapted and supplemented with the addition of criteria based on secondary literature where these frameworks have been used for similar research on websites, as well as specific criteria which are more relevant to the Oil and Gas industry. Also taken into consideration is the fact that most Oil and Gas websites are used for promotion and dissemination of information rather than for retail purposes which is the area on which other research frameworks have been based on. The following frameworks were therefore created to be used for this research.

#### 4.4.1 Semiotic and Linguistic Framework

The semiotic and linguistic framework involved each website being evaluated by language related criteria such as translation, the number of language options available, differences in language used for communication and localisation practices. In order to effectively carry out this analysis, the framework was divided into two main sections based on criteria identified by the researcher which were relevant to the study and similar research carried out by Koller (2007) and Chiaro (2004) on semiotic translation. The intersemiotic framework was mainly based on adapted components created to respond to the research questions while the majority of the analysis in the intrasemiotic translation framework was carried out based on De Swaan's (2001) language classification as identified below:

#### 1) Intersemiotic Framework

- Intersemiotic image analysis of corporate websites with language options.
- Language used on corporate website/country websites French case study.
- Extent of translation and localisation of websites French case study.
- Extent of adaptation of websites to suit local culture and language needs.
- Analysis and comparison of the Francophone websites with the corporate website.

#### 2) Intrasemiotic Framework

- Language options on corporate websites (Crystal 2011).
- Language use on country specific websites (De Swaan 2001).
- Language options on country specific websites (De Swaan 2001).
- Image analysis of country specific websites.

#### 4.4.2 The Cultural and Design Framework

According to Singh et al (2005 p. 132), to study "the web as a cultural document we need a conceptual framework that is grounded in theory, integrates diverse cultural perspectives, is empirically validated, and explains culture-level variation in the depiction of values, beliefs and symbols of a society". Singh and Matsuo (2004) in their research also identified that language and culture were the main reasons for major cultural differences in content and design features of websites. The design analysis section of this research focused on the presentation and navigational features of the websites while the cultural component focused on the information that was included in each website. That is, the type or trend of information included on these websites. Each of the dimensions studied in each component are discussed in more detail in the analysis section of this Thesis.

Following a detailed literature review, it was identified that to understand the localisation practices in the Oil and Gas industry, there was a need to create a framework specifically positioned to respond to the research questions. Most of the components of the cultural and design framework were based on a hybrid following a review of Hofstede's culture frameworks, the GLOBE theories and Hall's High and Low context culture classification. Other components were based on secondary research works which had used these theories as basis for analysis and also based on components that are more specific to the Oil and Gas industry. The main objective was to understand the extent of cultural adaptation on these websites and to possibly class these websites into broader categories that are more relevant to the Oil and Gas industry. The framework used for analysis and their sources are as detailed in Figure 9.

#### **GEERT HOFSTEDE**

Singh (2002) in his research on Power Distance highlighted that websites would place more emphasis on rank or prestige, testimonials and pictures of CEOs). Based on this, the following components were identified:

 Representation of managerial expertise Representation of technical expertise

#### **GLOBE**

Based on GLOBE's framework on Gender Egalitarianism, the following component was identified:

Gender Representation

#### **EDWARD HALL**

Based on Würtz's (2006) cultural analysis of websites, the following components were identified:

- Fully designed website and plain websites
- Standardised website layouts
- Use of animations or multimedia

#### **ADAPTED/ OIL & GAS SPECIFIC**

Components were derived from secondary sources based on Oil and Gas specific requirements:

- Use of celebrities/celebrity endorsements (Koller 2007)
- Country specific website/domain name (Singh and Pereira 2005)
- Grouped or regional website strategy (Oil & Gas specific).
- Representation of local content information (Oil & Gas specific).
- Image building/CSR (Local promotions, Sponsorship of local events, representation of achievements) – (Oil & Gas specific).
- Culturally relevant images and symbols e.g flags and colour (Barber and Badre 1998).
- Image of local iconic locations (Koller 2007).
- Representation of motor vehicles (Oil & Gas specific).
- The use of Company Logos (Shin and Huh 2009).
- Depiction of animals (Oil & Gas specific).
- Use of local office buildings/petrol stations (Oil & Gas specific).
- Use of historical symbols and images (Koller 2007).
- Environmental sensitivity- (Oil & Gas specific)

Figure 9: Derivation of Culture and Design framework from the literature

#### 4.4.3 Procedures Used For Website Analysis

The main stages of the website analysis were as detailed below:

The main unit of analysis in this research was the first page or home page of each company's website. In some parts of the research, it was necessary to go further and analyse hyperlinks which provided more information such as links which lead to local content information and company reports. These hyperlinks gave access to the country specific websites for each company which were also units of analysis in certain sections of

the research. Each company's home page was accessed using their dot.com web address and saved for further reading and analysis. Links to other languages or country websites were also identified from the company home page. Each available link was followed to determine which language or languages was used and to check for links that were available to help people either access other languages or return back to the home page.

A detailed analysis of the home pages and country specific websites of the companies was carried out in order to understand the trends and patterns that exist in the language use of Oil and Gas websites on their internet web pages. The home page in this study refers to the initial page a user sees once the user logs on to the home page or the country specific websites. This process helped the researcher to identify and list out the themes that were showing up on the websites studied. An analysis of all the country specific websites was also carried out and all the websites were viewed page by page. Particular attention was paid to the corporate home page which was the main focus of the research. Analyses were also carried out of the country specific and regional websites.

All the websites studied were classified and grouped according to language regions in order to highlight any variations or similarities in language used. A linguistic analysis was then carried out on the headquarters (dot.com) websites, together with country-specific and regional (sub-national) websites (in the case of countries with more than one language). This analysis was carried out in order to identify the languages which the websites were created in. The dot.com page in this research refers to the main page corporate headquarter site and the site from which users can have access to other country sites.

An analysis was carried out on the websites to identify the semiotic translation strategies used on these websites and the reoccurring themes and methods of translation with the main focus being on Francophone websites. For this analysis, French speaking countries or regions represented amongst the company websites studied were identified mainly through links on the company's main corporate page. A further analysis was carried out to identify the number of French language websites in each region. A comparison of the website content in the local website and that of the main corporate website was carried out. Cultural aspects such as images and local news stories that are relevant to the French culture were identified as well as visual elements that are culturally significant such as colours.

## 4.5 Limitations to the Study

Although most of the limitations to this study have already been discussed in the qualitative and quantitative methods section, it must be noted that one major limitation which the researcher identified is the fact that websites are subject to a variety of changes. As companies keep updating their websites, some quite frequently, it was sometimes hard to keep a track of the images and contents that were being studied at any particular time. The change on the Shell corporate website and that on the Fugro website as are discussed further on in this research demonstrates the fluidity of websites and their non-static nature. However, as the researcher had taken screen shots of all the websites as can be seen in the appendix section, this study provides an accurate picture of the localisation practices at the time this study was carried out.

### 4.6 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues and considerations are one of the most likely issues that will confront any researcher as soon as they begin to consider collecting data for their project and arise predominantly when using qualitative methods of data collection (Baxter et al 2010). For researchers, the main concerns for both quantitative and qualitative research are usually the issues of consent, anonymity, confidentiality, risk and role conflict (Wiles 2013). In the case of this research, the issues associated with research were limited as the advantage of studying websites is that it eliminates the need to invade people's privacy, there was no need for consent as all the materials needed were publicly available to everyone. Using this approach made the research somewhat independent of any individual or company.

# 4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter detailed the research methodologies that were used in this research. A mixed research method was used where both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used to complement each other and to get good answers to the research questions. In this chapter, each of the research methods is explained in detail as well as the justification for each research method. The advantages and limitations of these methods are also discussed and the justifications for the choice of these methods are explained. The qualitative research was carried out focusing on an in-depth study of the contents of both the main corporate websites and the country specific websites. The quantitative research on the other hand was carried out focusing more on the details on

the websites such as the number of language options available on the websites, the languages available and the colours used on the websites as well as the availability of country specific websites. This section has discussed the sampling method in detail and the justification for the choice of the sample companies has also been provided. In this section, the researcher has provided a good background into each of these companies, identified their target markets, the size of the companies, as well as their headquarter locations.

## CHAPTER 5. SEMIOTIC AND LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

### 5.1 Introduction

One major subject areas for analysis in this dissertation is the extent of language localisation on the Oil and Gas websites studied. Language according to Dhir and Goke-Pariola (2002 p. 243), "is the essential human skill that allows us not only to acquire, but also to transmit knowledge from one generation to the other". In relation to language localisation, Gibb and Matthaiakis (2006 p. 670) add that "language is a clear cultural indicator for any nation, and one which must be reflected in any criteria used to evaluate localisation". It is important to study language and semiotics because the combination of these two provides a deeper layer of understanding of the reasoning behind the choice of language and images on the websites studied. It is argued that language generally is known to have two functions: the symbolic and the communicative functions. The first function is the symbolic function which may mean that having a website in the local language symbolises that the company cares for its local customers. The second function is communicative in nature and indicates that "language not only communicates information, but also facilitates the creation of value through the exchange of ideas within the context of this culture" (Dhir and Goke-Pariola 2002 p. 243). According to a study carried out by Kelly-Holmes, she argues that English has a fetish value of a much higher level than other languages, as it symbolises coolness, youth culture, and fashion. In the case of companies, it can be argued that English has a 'cosmopolitan' nature as it can be used based on a communicative function, that is, it is used as a means of communication or as a symbolic value where language achieves value independently of its communicative value (Kelly-Holmes 2000). For this reason, language was seen as an important issue to be discussed in order to get a more in depth understanding of the role, whether symbolic, communicative or both, that it plays within these companies.

According to Luo and Shenkar (2006), Multinational companies due to their global reach and operations are multilingual by nature and therefore have the constant need to operate in and across several languages zones. However, for some of these companies, the solution to the multiplicity of languages that exist within the company might be to adopt the ecumenical language which is English. This is somewhat inevitable if these companies see the language 'problem' as the Tower of Babel – as they will want to get out of it – however this might not be the best solution – multilingualism might be. The choice of English, based on its symbolic nature could be ambiguous as the 'fetish' value of English

could be something positive, signifying that the company has global consciousness. On the other hand, it could be negative, signifying that the corporation does not care about the local population and the language that relates to them. In this chapter, the aim was to gain an understanding of the effects of translation on website designs focusing on intrasemiotic and intersemiotic translation practises. The second section constitutes a case study and a more in depth analysis of the differences that exist when websites are translated. This case study has the purpose of providing some indication of the translation practices by using one language, the French language, as an example. Another aim was to understand the role that English plays in these companies by analysing the extent of the use of English on their websites and to add to this area of knowledge by identifying the translation practices of Oil and Gas companies. The analysis in the following section is based on the semiotics and linguistic framework identified and outlined in Section 4.4.1.

# 5.2 Intrasemiotic Translation Analysis of Websites

In intrasemiotic translations, the companies are expected to have monolingual sites in English, uniformly branded but providing information about specific promotions, products and performance of the local company (Chiaro 2004, Koller 2007). In cases where the websites are not in English, the verbal parts of the websites, including the strapline are expected to be translated and the same visuals should feature in both versions (Chiaro 2004). This means that the same image is most likely going to be used on more than one language version of the websites. To identify these instances, the researcher had to first of all identify websites with different language versions or options before comparing them against each other to identify instances of intrasemiotic translation. The first analysis carried out in this chapter was therefore to identify the websites with language options. Once identified, these websites would then be analysed to understand and identify instances where an image has been used on more than one language version of a website in each of these companies. Thirdly, in the instances where the same images were used, the research would go further to identify if the verbal parts had also been translated.

#### 5.2.1 Language Options on Corporate Home Page

The first observation was that language options available on the corporate home page of each company varied greatly in nature. This sometimes was because of the language spoken in the country headquarters of the company, sometimes because of the region

where the company has most of its operations and sometimes maybe because of the languages which the company thinks would most appeal to the majority of the users of its website. Despite the fact that the majority of the companies chosen for the study originate from countries such as the United Kingdom, the USA, France, Russia, Italy and the Netherlands, an analysis carried out on the main company home pages (the dot.com pages) revealed that all the companies use English as the main language of communication on their websites. Companies like the OMV Group and Lukoil which originate from Austria and Russia respectively use English as the main language of business communication even though they originate from non-English speaking countries. According to Maclean (2006 p. 1382), "the adoption of English by traditionally non-English speaking corporations has become a clearly recognised milestone along their evolution from ethno – to geocentric organisations". In this view, English is being seen not primarily for its communicative function but its symbolic value as a means for companies to identify themselves as having a global significance across the world. Lukoil in using this might be trying to present itself as more focused on the rest of the world than its home country, by using a language that is acceptable by a greater population of the world - English. However, this use of English on a symbolic level in order to be seen as being global also has its own disadvantage as it might sometimes create the impression that a company does not care about its local population.

Although research carried out by Crystal (2011) explains that current trends show that other languages are now becoming important, the results of the analysis carried out on these companies, confirms that this is not the case in the Oil and Gas industry. Evidence from the Oil and Gas websites studied indicates that English still plays a 'hypercentral' role and still serves as the main language of business communication in most companies. The main competition for English according to research carried out by Crystal (2011) indicates that although English continues to lead in terms of having the highest number of internet users, it is likely to soon be replaced by Chinese which has a continuously increasing internet presence in the past years. The number of internet users in languages other than English have also increased in the past couple of years (Crystal 2011). This however has not stopped the growth of English as one of the major players in the language sector particularly because of the symbolic function it plays in the communication strategies of most of these companies. Another possible interpretation of the findings in this chapter could be that the 'global reach' symbolism of the English language might outweigh the communicative as these companies operate on a global level.

Only the corporate home pages of the companies studied were chosen for analysis in this section to get a more in-depth understanding of the language options available to users. The home page is the face sheet or title page of any website (Yamamoto 1997 p.395) and the first thing anyone sees when they log into their website link or key in the company's URL and therefore portrays the values of the company. If the companies want to communicate to the users that they are global in terms of global reach and power, then this would be a reason for putting the company's home page in English, therefore using English as a symbolism. As can be seen from the breakdown, the language of the country of origin of each of these companies is not necessarily the language used on their corporate home pages. The evidence points to the fact that the choice of language is based on the symbolic function of the English language to these companies. This brings up the question of what informs the choice of the main language used on the websites. From the breakdown in Figure 10, it can be seen that nine (9) of the companies studied have their headquarter locations in English speaking countries and by de facto have English as the main language of communication on their home pages. The other companies which are from different countries mostly in Europe and which were expected to provide a wider range of languages to be studied such as Russian, Portuguese, French, Norwegian and Dutch still used English on their corporate websites.

Company Name	Dot.com link	Language of	Dot.com language/ options	
		COO HQ		
BP	www.bp.com	English	English	
Bureau Veritas	www.bureauveritas.com	French	English	
Chevron	www.chevron.com	English	English	
ConocoPhillips	www.conocophillips.com	English	English	
Dong Energy	www.dongenergy.com	Danish	English with Danish	
ENI	www.eni.com	Italian	English with Italian	
ExxonMobil	www.exxonmobil.com	English	English	
Fugro	www.fugro.com	Dutch	English with Dutch	
Lukoil	www.lukoil.com	Russian	English	
OMV Group	www.omv.com	German	English with German	
Perenco	www.perenco.com	English	English	
Petrobras	www.petrobras.com	Portuguese	English with Spanish & Portuguese	
RPS Group	www.rpsgroup.com	English	English	
Shell	www.shell.com	Dutch	English	
Talisman	www.talisman-energy.com	English	English	
Technip	www.technip.com	French	English with French	

Figure 10: Language details of Corporate Home Page

One can see from Figure 10 that not all the companies have provided language options to enable website users to change to a different language. Having language options makes it easy for users to find information in a language they understand and has the potential to increase user satisfaction on websites. Companies such as Shell that are considered to be the major players of the Oil and Gas industry do not have the option for website users of their corporate home page to change to any other language(s). The popularity and success of these companies stem from their global power and reach which seemingly, they try to emphasise by having an overwhelming English presence on their website. However, with the changing language environment, these companies cannot downplay the need to have websites in the local languages of the areas where they carry out operations. Only six of the companies studied had the option to change to another language on their dot.com pages. In almost all cases this was probably because of the need to have a version of the corporate website in the same language as the language spoken in the headquarter location. Two categories were however identified; the first category was the 'smaller' companies, which although they now operate in areas outside their 'home' countries, seem to want to maintain a local connection, as indicated by the availability of a language option on the corporate home page. Examples are Fugro with the Dutch option and OMV Group with the German option. The second category was the 'larger' companies who mostly had multiple language options on their corporate websites and in that way, portray a global image of the company. A few corporate websites stand out from the analysis carried out above mainly because of their choice of language and language options and these are discussed further on in this thesis. A full list of corporate websites studied and their language options can be found in Appendix 17.

#### **Petrobras**

Petrobras is the first company which stands out in this section of the analysis because on the company's corporate website <a href="www.petrobras.com">www.petrobras.com</a>, apart from having an option to change to Portuguese which is the main language spoken by its headquarter location, it also offers the option to change to Spanish. The choice of Spanish as an option on their corporate website can be explained because the main operations of this company are in the Spanish speaking region and in South America where the two main languages are Spanish and Portuguese. By giving users the option to switch to either Portuguese or Spanish on its corporate home page, this company has made their website more user friendly to the users in the region in which it operates. As can be seen on the Petrobras website and the diagram below, the company has operations in countries such as Argentina and Bolivia where they have the majority of their operations. This company also has major operations in Venezuela and Colombia which are all mainly Spanish speaking.

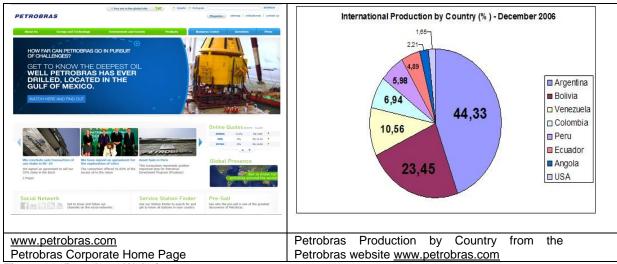


Figure 11: Petrobras Websites

# **Fugro**

Another example used to demonstrate the availability of language options on the corporate home page is the Fugro corporate website www.fugro.com. On the company's corporate home page as pictured below, the web page has been created in English regardless of the fact that Fugro is originally from Dutch origins and is still headquartered in The Netherlands. This is because in most global and local Dutch companies, English is used as the main language of communication by both Dutch and English speakers, with their stakeholders and even within the company. According to a research carried out by Nickerson (1998) on a British company with a subsidiary in the Netherlands, it was identified that English was used in all major communications both written and oral with the implication being that Dutch language speakers had to have some level of comprehension of the English language in order to communicate effectively within the company and the headquarter location. This is supported by an editorial research carried out by Elsevier (2005) where it was identified during an analysis of email communication within an Amsterdam division of a multinational company, that both British and Dutch writers used both English and Dutch, sometimes a hybrid of both languages in company communications. This emphasises the role that English plays in business communication of companies operating in the Netherlands and speakers of the Dutch language.

On the top right hand corner of the web page in Figure 12, there is a small icon which says 'Nederlands'. A click on this link takes one to the Dutch version of the same page which is quite similar in style and layout. These are the only two languages referenced on the company's global home page. For Fugro, there is a clear justification for the use of the Dutch language as an option on the company's corporate website. According to research carried out by Crystal (2006), only 1.7% of total internet users in the world are native

Dutch speakers - this is mainly because the population is small. Dutch is only spoken in the Netherlands and by Dutch-speaking Flanders in Belgium and therefore has a limited number of target speakers in relation to the number of people the company aims to target which is assumedly a worldwide audience. As Dutch is only spoken in the Netherlands, Flanders and some of the former colonies, it is a 'peripheral' language according to De Swaan's (2001) classification and therefore justifiable for it not to be used on the main corporate website. As explained earlier on in this section, English has also been adopted by most major Dutch companies (Nickerson 1998) and countries as the main language of communication globally and therefore is a preferred language of communication which is spoken by a majority of people in the world today. This gives a good indication of the language use of this country and why companies may choose to use English instead on their websites. For Fugro, the choice of English as the main language on their corporate home page not only indicates where they have a huge percentage of their business (in the English speaking sectors) but it also goes to reiterate the idea of the choice of English as a symbolic language which has been adopted to demonstrate global consciousness as well as a language which has been adopted by most of these companies in order to enhance their global reach.



Figure 12: Fugro Corporate Home Page

#### **Bureau Veritas**

According to <a href="www.bureauveritas.com">www.bureauveritas.com</a>, this company was founded in Antwerp Belgium, a Flemish part of the country which mostly uses Dutch as the main language of communication. In Belgium "the most common language listed as the second language used is French, the official language in the Walloon region. Similarly a high proportion of the Belgians list Dutch as the second language used, the official language of Flanders" (Williams 2011 p.377). Although the official main languages in Belgium are French, Dutch

and German (Buyl and Housen 2014), the company has chosen however not to use any of these languages as the main language on its main corporate home page which presents a similar scenario as what was identified on the Fugro main home page. This company, just like in the case of Fugro and their website for Holland, has opted for the use of English as the main language of communication on its main corporate website. English therefore plays a hypercentral role within this company and is used to interact with its clients and employees via its website. Bureau Veritas have only left English as their language of choice and have options to different languages on different country websites. These findings indicate issues in language politics and question the role of French as a major player in the general play of language related issues.

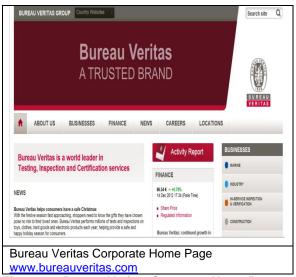


Figure 13: Bureau Veritas Corporate Home Page

French although considered a major language is only spoken in a few countries in the western world and therefore may not be sufficient to meet the company's need of interacting with a worldwide audience. In Europe, French is spoken in France and acts as one of the official languages in Belgium and Switzerland. In Canada, French is the official language of Quebec. There is however also a decline in the global significance of the French language in most companies and the strategies that have been put in place to counter this by the French government (Shelly 1999). According to Cheshire and Mores (1994 p. 453), in Switzerland for instance where French acts as one of the main official languages, the official languages are gradually being replaced by the English language when it comes to business and commercial use, and English is now being used as a second language rather than a foreign language. They further add that Swiss companies choose to use English for business communications because it is cheaper than paying for translation. This probably explains the use of English on this company's corporate site.

#### **Technip**

Technip is originally from French origins but chose not to use French as the main language on its corporate website. This could be because of the declining global significance of the French language and reiterates the symbolic function of languages, particularly the English language. Although French is a 'central' language, according to De Swaan's (2001) language classification, it is no longer considered as being symbolical globally which points to a weakness of De Swaan's classification as it does not take adequate account of the symbolic history of language as in the case of the French language. Despite strategies such as having country wide policies and language preservation committees put in place by the French government to promote this language, it is of greater symbolic significance that the French language is not used on the corporate home page of a French company. English therefore plays a hypercentral role within this company and is used to interact with its clients and employees via its website with French acting as an optional language. As explained in the case of Bureau Veritas, French is only spoken in a few countries in the western world and therefore may not be sufficient to meet the company's need of interacting with a worldwide audience. On websites, it may not have the same symbolic status of instant recognition that is associated with English.

On the Technip website, the company has also highlighted that the majority of their revenue comes from the Americas, Europe, Russia and Central Asia, making these their target markets. Out of the 26 country websites that the company has, 24 are in English which could maybe be expected considering that the main bulk of their business is in the English speaking parts of the world. The only website in French is the French version of the main corporate website and one (1) other website which is in Dutch. Below is a breakdown of Technip's 2011 and 2012 revenues by region as presented on the Technip website <a href="https://www.technip.com">www.technip.com</a>.

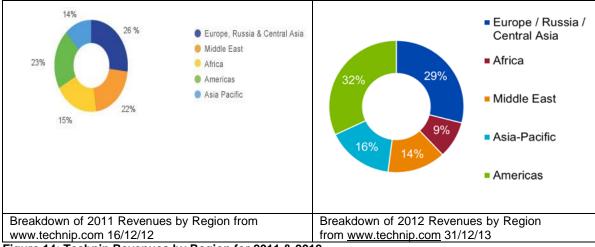


Figure 14: Technip Revenues by Region for 2011 & 2012

#### **ENI**

Italian is the "official language of the Republic of Italy (57.6 million inhabitants), the Republic of San Marino (13,000) and the Vatican City (about 900) and is one of the official languages of the Swiss Confederation, where it is spoken in the Ticino Canton by some 195,000 people" (Tosi 2004 p.247). Despite Italian being the home language of the company, to be seen as being global and considering the role that English plays as a symbol of globalisation, the company has used English on its corporate website <a href="https://www.eni.com">www.eni.com</a> with an Italian language option. As can be seen in Figure 15, excerpts from the ENI company report indicate that a significant percentage of their sales are in Italy in comparison to the rest of the world in total which would justify the use of Italian. Below is an example of the ENI company corporate home page.

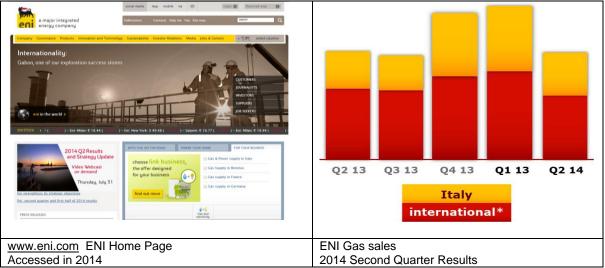


Figure 15: ENI Corporate Home Page

#### Lukoil

Lukoil, a Russian company, has opted for the use of English as the main language of communication on their corporate home page. As this company is relatively new on the global front except in countries in the former Soviet bloc where it has been around a long time and where Russian plays a 'supercentral' function, there are no other major languages in the region which are widely spoken across the world. One can therefore argue their need to use a language which is readily understood by their target users. Lukoil is one of Russia's largest producers of oil and is headquartered in Moscow with Russian as the main language of communication. Although the company is currently operational in over 40 countries in the world, the main focus for this company's business according to their website is in Eastern Europe and in the Former Soviet countries. According to the Lukoil website <a href="www.lukoil.com">www.lukoil.com</a>, "90.6% of 'the' Company's proved reserves and 89.8% of marketable hydrocarbon production are in Russia". However, the

language politics in the areas where Lukoil is operational – the former Soviet countries, is quite contentious with countries such as Ukraine split between Ukrainian and Russian speakers and the Baltic States – which have substantial Russian-speaking minorities. Given these sensitive political issues, the company potentially cannot rely on using Russian as the main language on its websites.

For a more convenient means of communication; it looks like Lukoil decided to use English as the main language on its website despite the many languages spoken in the region. Another reason for this could be because their heavy presence in the Russian region means that they are already well known in that area. Also, as a few other major Russian companies have in recent years 'gone global', it could also be because this company is looking to become more of a global company rather than just an Eastern European based company. According to the Lukoil's website, the company's recent activities have been production drilling at one of the world's biggest oil fields, West Qurna-2, in Iraq. This recent focus on activities outside its known area of operations is likely a reason for the company adopting the 'global Lingua Franca' – English on their corporate website.



Figure 16: Lukoil Corporate Home Page

The choice of English as the main language on the company's corporate home page not only indicates where they have a huge percentage of their business (in the English speaking sectors) but it also goes to reiterate the notion of English as a language adopted by most companies for global communication. The people who mainly use the internet for their daily and frequent business activities are mostly educated people and regardless of location are able to understand and speak English to a certain acceptable degree. This group of people can be regarded as the 'global cosmopolitan elite' – for whom English is the language of 'cosmopolitanism'. This concept of elite cosmopolitanism was proposed by Guilherme (2007 p. 73) as one of the "two types of cosmopolitanism". The analysis has

also identified that different companies use different languages on their websites, with the choice of language based on several factors ranging from the need of the company to reach its target population, the size of the company, the company's target market and even the main language or languages used by the company's employees.

#### 5.2.2 Language Use on Country Specific Websites

Country specific websites can be created in one or more languages depending on the main language or languages of each location. According to Lee (2009 p.2), "websites that avail themselves of different language options soon become accessible to everyone with access to the internet, regardless of their fluency in English, the Lingua Franca of World Wide Web". Crystal (2011) further argues that while English is dominant, other languages are now becoming more significant. Therefore, by increasing the numbers of language options available on the company websites, these companies also increase the potential number of users beyond those who just understand English and thus potentially increase their market share. Having language options virtually opens up possibilities to other language users on a company's web page and makes it more user-friendly. Having identified the number of websites in each country that use the country's main language in the previous section, this section of the analysis focused on identifying the number of country specific websites and the number of language options available to bilingual or multilingual users of the website and those who have maybe found themselves on a different country specific website by mistake.

Following on from the findings in the previous section, it was necessary to carry out further analysis on these websites to understand the role of English, this was carried out in three sections. The first analysis was carried out on the company websites to determine how many country specific websites were available to users around the world. The second analysis was carried out on the country specific websites to determine and identify the language options available. The third analysis was carried out to identify which language or language versions of the websites are more widely used. The language options available to users were used as a proxy for measuring the extent to which these companies have localised their websites on the country and national level. In total, language details of 371 country specific websites and 16 main corporate websites were studied for this thesis. A total of 35 different languages were represented on these websites, with English being the most featured language on both country specific websites and main corporate websites. As expected, Greek, Indonesian, Estonian, Latvia, Croatian and Serbian had only one website each in each of these languages. One other noticeable

feature however is the way bilingual and multilingual countries are represented on the websites with different language versions of the websites most of which are sometimes identical.

This section is a detailed overview of the languages used on the different country specific websites and a detailed breakdown can be found in Appendix 18. According to De Swaan's (2001) theory, a language could be said to be supercentral if the language is used on a regional or multi-country level, these languages are French, Spanish, English, German, Japanese, Russian, Arabic, Chinese, Swahili, Malay, Portuguese and Hindi. English has also established its place as both a hypercentral and a supercentral language. As a hypercentral language, English plays the position of being the main language used in business communication and the general language of communication even among speakers in other language groups. As a supercentral language, English plays a dominant role even in countries where English is not the first language of communication. The analysis in this thesis identified that English had a supercentral function in most country specific and regional websites and is currently used on 204 websites out of the 371 websites studied in this section. This number is unmatched by any other language used on the country websites.

No.	of	Languages
websites		
>50		English (204)
30-49		None
20-29		Spanish (20)
10-19		German (13), Dutch (11), Portuguese (10), Russian (12)
1-9		French (8), Italian (6), Chinese (5), Lithuanian (4), Danish (6), Finnish (3),
		Greek (1), Hungarian (4), Japanese (5), Korean (4), Polish (4), Turkish (5),
		Romanian (5), Norwegian (5), Czech (3), Swedish (4), Slovenian (4), Slovak
		(3), Thai (4), Croatian (1), Estonian (1), Latvian (1), Indonesian (1), Vietnamese
		(3), Taiwanese (2), Serbian (1), Bulgarian (4), Ukrainian (2), Icelandic (2)

Figure 17: Details of Language use on Country Specific Websites

It is obvious from the findings above that some languages, apart from English, are beginning to play a more supercentral role in Oil and Gas companies. Apart from English, Spanish is another supercentral language which is used on a total of 20 websites. French is currently used on only 8 websites and also plays a supercentral role in companies such as Bureau Veritas where it is used on a regional level. Other supercentral languages used on the websites studied included German with 13 country specific websites, Portuguese with 10 country specific websites and Russian with 12 country specific websites. Another

feature that was identified in this research is that some languages which are classed as supercentral such as Hindi, Swahili and Malay do not even make a representation on any of the websites studied and one can argue that this is because they do not have sufficient economic power compared to the English speakers for instance. Speakers of these languages, who in some cases may not have access to the internet, have to either make do with English or depend on their knowledge of a second language if any.

Below is a diagram showing the breakdown of languages on the Shell websites as an example:

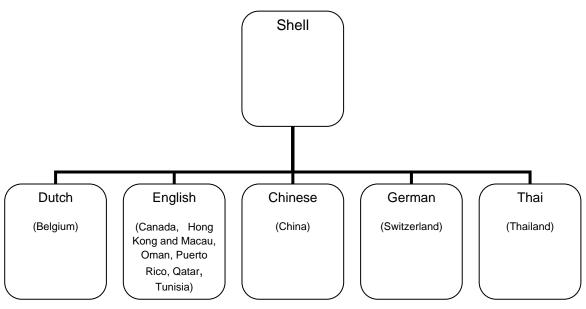


Figure 18: Shell Language Breakdown

It was identified that in some bilingual countries, companies used two languages on one website. Shell for instance used both French and English on its websites for some African countries such as Gabon (pictured in Figure 19 below), Madagascar, Mali and Morocco. According to the Shell website <a href="www.shell.com">www.shell.com</a>, the company only sells its products and does not carry out any exploration activities in these countries which may be a possible justification for the lack of information on these websites compared to the other Shell websites. The use of both English and French on these websites could be because, the target population in these countries – the elite - would likely be bilingual following the history of colonisation in these countries. Websites such as these that were mainly in two languages were not included in the analysis of language used on the websites as they would have caused a duplication.



Figure 19: Shell Gabon Website

Another example is the Bureau Veritas website for Thailand which has both English and Thai on the website. English is used on the most part of the website except the 'Latest News' section which is in Thai. This looks like the company is targeting the local users or expects that the local users would be more interested in information regarding what the company is doing locally. It is ironical however, that the title to that section –'local news' is in English. It is also worthy of note that historically in Thailand, English has always had a prominent role and is still "recognized as the most widely used international language for both academic and occupational purposes" in the country (Sukamolson 1998 p.89). This however, might explain the use of these two languages on the website.



Figure 20: Bureau Veritas Websites for Thailand

Based on the findings above, one can see that having a website in the language of the country the website was meant for, indicates a limited localisation strategy has been put in place in order to meet some of the company's localisation needs. The findings also identified that De Swaan's 'supercentral' language classification is significant for some of

the companies, in that they indicate a degree of localisation, in the sense that they can use the convenience of a central language to communicate with a wide number of people through those languages, should they operate in those language zones. However, it must be noted that this does not signify that the companies have a desire to localise their websites as it can be argued that they are using a convenient historical fact, which is that there are a large number of speakers in those zones who speak these languages to reach the local people.

#### 5.2.4 Language Options on Country Specific Websites

Following on from the analysis of the corporate websites in the previous section to identify the country specific websites and languages used, it was identified that some of the country specific websites had language options which enabled users to switch to a more convenient language. It was therefore important to have a good overview of the language (s) used and how they relate to the main languages used in the target countries that the websites were created for. It was also important to identify the different languages that had been taken into consideration when choosing language options for the country specific websites. According to Gibb and Matthaiakis (2006 p.669), when localising, website "content should be translated to either match the target country or be available in alternative languages for the user to select".

Company Name	No.	Language Groups
ВР	10	Azerbaijan (Azerbaijani Option), Belgium (French, Dutch Option), Georgia (Georgian Option), Mainland China (Chinese Option), Hong Kong China (Chinese Option), Hungary (English Option), Russia (Russian Option), Switzerland (French Option), South Korea (English Option), Norway (English Option)
Bureau Veritas	1	Switzerland (French option)
Chevron	6	Angola (Portuguese with English Option), Bulgaria (Bulgarian with English option), Indonesia (Indonesian with English option), Lithuania (Lithuanian with English option), Romania (Romanian with English option), Ukraine (Russian with English option)
ConocoPhillips	3	China (English with Chinese option), Norway (English with Norwegian option), Poland (English with Polish option)
Dong Energy	1	Norway (Danish with English option)
ENI	12	Austria (English with German option), Belgium (English with French and Dutch options), Czech Republic (English with Czech option), France (English with French option), Germany (English with German option), Hungary (English with Hungarian option), the Netherlands (English with Dutch option), Romania (English with Romanian option), Slovak Republic (English with Slovak option), Italy (English with Italian option), Slovenia (English with Slovenian option), Switzerland (English with Italian, French and Dutch options)
ExxonMobil	3	Canada (English with French Option), Benelux (French with Dutch option), Netherlands (Dutch with French option)
Fugro	8	Austria (German with English option), Brazil (Portuguese with English option), Japan (Japanese with English Option), China (Chinese with English option), Germany (German with English option), Hong Kong (English with Chinese option), Saudi Arabia (English with Arabic option), Vietnam (English with Vietnamese option)
Lukoil	6	Romania (Romanian with Russian and English option), Belgium (French and Dutch options), Lithuania (English with Lithuanian and Russian options), Bulgaria (Bulgarian with English option), Belarus (Russian with English option), Italy (Italian with English option)
OMV Group	5	Romania (Romanian with English version), Serbia (Russian with English option), Bulgaria (Bulgarian with English option), Turkey (Turkish with English option), Norway (Norwegian with English option)
Perenco	5	Brazil (English with Portuguese option), Democratic Republic of Congo (English with French option), Gabon (English with French option), Guatemala (English with Spanish option), Peru (English with Spanish option)
Petrobras	2	Argentina (English with Spanish and Portuguese options), Brazil (English with Portuguese option)
RPS Group	0	
Shell	10	Belgium (Dutch with French option), Canada (English with French option), China (Chinese with English option), Hong Kong and Macau (English with Chinese option), Oman (English with Arabic option), Puerto Rico (English with Spanish option), Qatar (English with Arabic option), Switzerland (German with French option), Thailand (Thai with English version), Tunisia (English with French and Arabic options)
Talisman	0	
Technip	3	Brazil (English with Portuguese option), China (Chinese with English option), Spain (English with Spanish option)

Figure 21: Details of Country Specific websites with language options

The country specific websites were therefore analysed to identify instances where websites had been created with language options. Figure 21 details the total number of country specific websites each company has along with the number of language groups that are available. One can see that most of the optional language links are mostly to the language of the country of origin of the company. This is in cases where the country specific website has not been created in the language of the country it was made for. It can be seen that Talisman and RPS Group had no country websites with language options therefore not allowing the users freedom to switch between languages they are more comfortable with. ENI had the most significant number with 12 out of their 16 country websites having language options for users. In total, 83 websites with language options were identified in the analysis and this number includes websites with more than one language version of the site.

The analysis identified instances especially with multilingual countries, where the major languages used in the country had been represented on the websites. It was also important to identify the language provisions (if any) that had been made available to all these users on these country specific websites. In Canada for instance, companies operating in Quebec are required by law to have websites in the French language and therefore, companies operating in this region would have to do this mainly because it is a requirement of the language policy in these countries (Martin 2011). As all the companies that were analysed who had offices in Canada did not operate out of an office in Québec, there was no specific requirement on them to have their websites in both English and French. However, majority of these companies had websites in both languages. Another example of a multilingual country is Switzerland where there are up to three main languages which are "French, German, and Italian, with Romansch added as a national language" (Johnson 2013 p.132). In Switzerland, German is spoken in Schwyzerdeutsch (Swiss German) dialect by about 70% of the population, French is spoken by about 20% of the population, Italian is spoken by about 10% of the population and Romansch-spoken by 1% of the population (Dhir and Goke-Pariola 2002). However, it should be noted in the case of Switzerland that the Swiss German dialect, which is a variation of German, but spoken in a particular dialect form which differs significantly from 'standard German' is only present in spoken form which explains why the language is not represented on the websites for Switzerland. Also, according to the language policy of Switzerland, Romansch is smaller in status and does not have the same recognition as German or French and will therefore most likely not have a presence on the corporate websites (Grin and Korth 2005). Other examples of multilingual countries include Belgium where the country operates in more than one official language.

It was identified that the Lukoil website for Belgium took into consideration the fact that the company has a multilingual language system. On the country home page, there is the option of either using the French version of the site or the Dutch version. Although both websites have exactly the same design and possibly the same content, it is encouraging to see that both language groups have been considered. A screen shot of the website can be seen in the figure below. Another observation from the Lukoil website was that the Romanian website had the option of changing to either the Russian or English version of the website. The choice of Russian here seems to be mainly because of the language spoken in the company's headquarters location.



Figure 22: Lukoil Belgium Website

The BP Belgium website also follows in this same pattern and although the main website is in English. The front page has the option to either visit the French version of the website or the Dutch version of the website giving the users the option to use the website in one of the two main languages used in the country. This company has probably decided to use English on their website because, despite being an English company, there is a conflict between the status of the French language and the Dutch language in Belgium mainly due to the desire of some in the Flemish speaking part to separate from the French speakers.



Figure 23: BP Website for Belgium

The Bureau Veritas website for Switzerland also acknowledges the multilingualism of the country and has language versions of the websites in both French and German although there is no representation of Italian on the website which is expected considering the minority role that Italian plays in the language policy of this country. Also ExxonMobil websites for Canada which identifies with the fact that the country has multiple official languages and reflects this on their website by having language versions of their website in both English and French as seen below. By doing so, the company is simply taking into consideration the language needs of the country, that is, choosing a language based on the symbolic needs of the country rather than because it is required by law or country policy to have websites in both languages as they do not operate out of Québec. It was therefore important to identify how these companies take the different language zones present in these countries and reflect them on their websites. The Chevron website for Canada, ConocoPhillips website for Canada and the BP website for Canada are in English only with no French option, however they are still included in the figures as both French and English are considered official languages in Canada although there is no specific requirement for both languages to be evident on the websites except the companies are operating out of Québec.



Figure 24: ExxonMobil Website for Canada

It was identified on some of the language options of websites that the information present were most times not as detailed as the main corporate website. An example is in Figure 25 of the French language version of the Bureau Veritas Website for Switzerland where the aim of creating this website is somewhat defeated as the French language option does not contain sufficient information for its target users. Another example is the Fugro Saudi Arabia website where the Arabic version of the website does not have sufficient pictorial content compared to the main site in English. However, it can be argued that these differences in style might be attributed to the cultural preferences of this country.

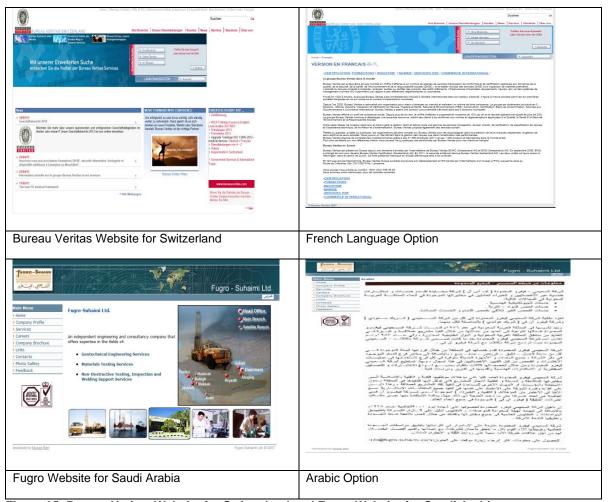


Figure 25: Bureau Veritas Website for Switzerland and Fugro Website for Saudi Arabia

The breakdown of languages used on these websites indicates that English still plays a major role both on country websites and websites with languages options. Of the 83 language option websites studied, English was used as the optional language on 26 web pages; followed quite closely by French which was used on 15 optional pages. Some languages were also identified which had only been used as optional languages and not on the main country website for any of these companies. One of these languages is Arabic which was used as an optional language on the Shell country website for Oman, Tunisia and Qatar and also used as an optional language on the Fugro website for Saudi Arabia. A breakdown of languages used on these optional pages can be seen below:

No. of	Languages	
websites		
>20	English (26)	
10-19	French (15)	
1-9	German (1), Arabic (4), Spanish (5), Italian (2), Chinese (5), Dutch (7), Portuguese (4),	
	Lithuanian (1), Hungarian (1), Slovenian (1), Russian (3), Norwegian (1), Vietnamese (1),	
	Polish (1), Czech (1), Romanian (1), Slovak (1), Georgian (1), Azerbaijani (1)	

Figure 26: Language Breakdown on Optional Websites

#### 5.2.5 Image Analysis of Country Specific Websites

As identified in the previous sections, all the companies studied had language options in varying numbers. Therefore, as a follow up to the findings in the previous section, all the country websites were further reviewed to identify instances where the company has used the same images on several language versions of their websites regardless of regional or cultural semblance. This analysis included both the main corporate websites as well as the country specific websites for each company with the intention that the results of this analysis would identify instances of intrasemiotic translation of images on the Oil and Gas websites studied. The results of the findings are as follows:

# **Bureau Veritas**

On analysis of the Bureau Veritas websites, it was also identified that the company has instances where it has used the same image on more than one country website. As can be seen from the table below, the image used is one of a man fully kitted in protective gear. As the face of the individual has not been shown, this can be classed as a signifier as there is nothing specific about it. This image therefore actually fits into any culture as one cannot say for certain by looking at the picture exactly where the person is from. However, people can identify with the 'standard' range of metonymic signifiers for the oil industry such as the protective gear, helmets and pipelines and work ethics that are apparently on display and this can be identifiable by people all over the world as it sends one unique message. This image was used on a number of websites with no relative culture or language which could justify the choice of image.

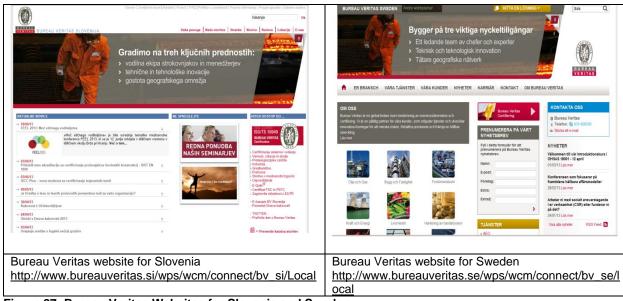


Figure 27: Bureau Veritas Websites for Slovenia and Sweden

#### **OMV Group**

The analysis of the OMV Group websites highlighted that the company had used the same image for the country specific websites for Austria, Czech Republic, Slovenia and Serbia. Again this looks like the same images have been targeted at a particular region and the strap lines are the same. The German slogan when translated into English says 'Fill up now. More performance!' and on the website for the Czech Republic, there is a direct translation of what is on the German website. It is noted however that, when examined in more detail, the images used and the contents of the websites are specific to the country the websites are made for as they reference local promotional events and local news. The image in itself is somewhat a global metonymic signifier for the oil and gas industry as it is not distinct or culture specific in any way but an image of a muscular fuel pump that looks somewhat like a human hand holding a fuel pump. The image could work on any country website so one cannot say that it is culture specific. Also worth noting is that, in semiotic terms, this might fit with the desire of the companies to portray themselves as 'human' as the oil pump is portrayed in human form.

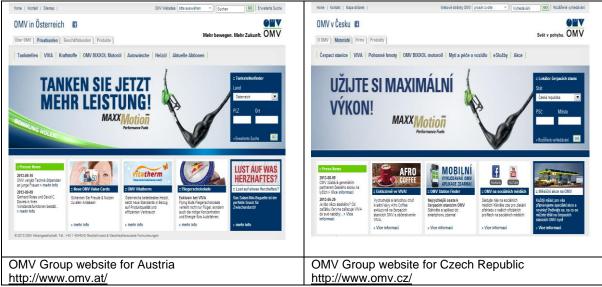


Figure 28: OMV Group Websites for Austria and the Czech Republic

# **Petrobras**

Petrobras on their websites also have a few instances where they have used the same image on quite a number of their websites. With Petrobras, they have used the same image as that on the corporate home page on the country specific websites for the United States of America and Brazil. As can be seen from the variety of country websites sharing this image, one can see that there are no similarities in culture between the countries using the same image. However, what these countries have in common is the fact that a global metonymic signifier is understood by all users of the websites regardless of their cultures. What is particularly significant here is that this company has used the same

signifier on the USA and Brazilian websites despite the fact that it is a Brazilian company and one would expect a unique website for Brazil. The oil well depicted in the image is in the Gulf of Mexico so the researcher decided to seek out more contextual information surrounding the choice. Although Petrobras currently carry out the majority of its operations in Brazil, according to its website for Mexico, the company has operated in the natural gas exploration and production in the Cuervito and Fronterizo offshore blocks of Mexico since 2003. The clue to the choice of this image is found in the text close to it where it says 'Get to know the deepest oil well Petrobras has ever drilled'. The image is prominent and therefore important to the company. This may be because deep underwater drilling in the Gulf of Mexico has been very controversial since the Deepwater Horizon disaster in 2010. On the left hand side of the website where it says "WATCH HERE AND FIND OUT", the researcher went further to watch the video in order to gain more understanding of the website and identified that the language used on the video is English which reinforces the significance of English in this company.

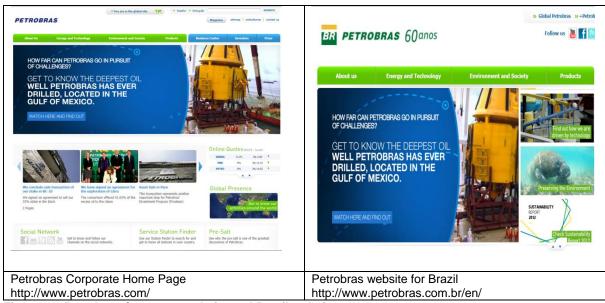


Figure 29: Petrobras Corporate website and Brazil website

# Shell

On the Shell website for Canada, the company has used the same image for both the French and English versions of the website. Neither the straplines nor the contents of both websites have been modified to suit their audience and one is simply a direct translation of the other. Although the same images have been used, this does not demonstrate intrasemiotic translation. The company has however tried to connect with the Canadian public and probably deal with opposition by considering issues that would be relevant to both the English speaking and French speaking Canadians. Examples of these are by

putting a picture of a woman as the 'face behind the operations' and referring to the oil sands on their website which is an environmentally sensitive subject in Canada.

An example of the variations that can occur when a website is translated is as seen below in the presentation of a website with its two different language versions. In the example used below, the websites with the two language versions use identical designs regardless of language. The researcher would like to classify this type of language versions of the website as a "uniform website". This means that although the contents of the websites might sometimes differ, the structure and design of the two websites are identical.



Figure 30: Shell websites for Canada

The second set of website variation identified are those for the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia where the same image has been used. A trend has been identified there as all these countries are from the Eastern European region suggesting the possibility that the contents of the websites and images have been specifically designed for target users in this region. Here these companies have used some examples of central languages with small number of speakers and represented these languages on their websites. There is a standard layout on all these websites, the images are the same and the websites contain translations of standard texts.

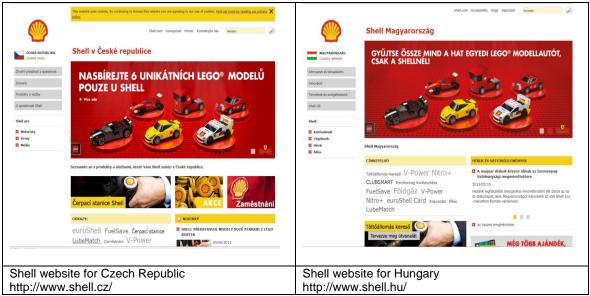


Figure 31: Shell Websites for the Czech Republic and Hungary

#### **Technip**

The next set of websites studied was the websites for Technip and the findings were as discussed below. The first set of image showing two employees has been used by Technip on their website for Angola, France, India, Nigeria and the United States. The image used on these websites is a standard image of a man and woman in hard hats which is one of the metonymic signifiers of the Oil and Gas industry – a metonym of exploration. The fact that the same images and strap lines have been used on a wide variety of countries which have nothing to connect them culturally or linguistically, shows that these signifiers belong to the 'global metonym' range of signifiers. It is however noted that although the main image is standard, one of the subsidiary images does show black people which are presumably local Angolan employees and the only image that could align this website to the Angolan culture and people.



Figure 32: Technip Websites for Angola and France

In summary, one can see that the overall strategy used by these companies is the use of standard or global metonymic signifiers on one or more of their websites to promote the work the carry out and to promote the company's image as a 'human' company. The images used on more than one website have not been relevant to any specific culture and therefore somewhat justifiable to be used on more than one website. It was also identified that the set of websites where the same images were used were not necessarily for countries of the same culture or language as the image or images used on these websites could relate with any culture.

The initial analysis carried out to identify the availability of language options on the corporate home page identified that the companies varied in their choice of language based on influences such as the areas where they have the most number of operations, the language spoken by their headquarter location and possibly the desire to present the company to outsiders as being global. It was identified that all the companies used English as the main language on their corporate home page although six of these companies had language options to change to the language spoken at their headquarter location. Petrobras, although it has English on the corporate page, has the option to change to two additional languages. This highlighted the role that English plays in these companies and the fact that it is still considered as the main language of communication in most multinational companies.

The language used on country specific websites were varied, however it was also identified that English still played a supercentral role in these companies as it was used on 204 of the 371 websites studied. Although English still plays a major role in the choice of language options of these countries, it was identified that more languages had a representation such as Estonian, Latvian, Icelandic and many more as can be seen in Figure 17. These languages are classed as 'central' languages by De Swaan and the use of these languages on the company websites indicates that the company websites have been localised to a certain degree. The country specific websites, just like the corporate home pages also had language options available on the sites. Only two of the companies studied – Talisman and RPS Group - did not have any options on the country specific website for users to change to a language they were probably more familiar with.

# 5.3 Intersemiotic Translation Analysis

In 'intersemiotic" translation, the language, including the contents, as well as visuals differ on each website. The analysis in this section was limited to the corporate websites of the companies studied in order to efficiently manage the number of websites studied. It was expected that for a company website where intersemiotic translation has been carried out, each language version of the corporate websites would have its own specific contents and images. This is in contrast to intrasemiotic translation where the same images are most likely to be used. Torresi (2008 p.68) carried out a research on the issue of intersemiotic translation and how it is applied to print advertisements. In her research, she identified that intersemiotic translation is "a particularly effective instrument when the very image, not only of a given product but of a whole brand and the values it aspires to embody, must be adapted to different target cultures". This concept or definition also applies to the intersemiotic translation of these Oil and Gas websites.

An argument in favour of company's using intersemiotic translation is that according to Hall's high and low context culture classification, in low context communication most of the website messages would be direct, in what is said. In high context communication, contextual factors (such as layout, images, appearance in the case of written communication) would play a more important role. So, if the target culture is high context, we would expect intersemiotic translation, if the company has understood the differences. Therefore, one would expect that in intersemiotic translation, the companies would have to have a significant part of the information that would normally be expressed verbally in low context cultures, expressed non- verbally as is the case in high context cultures (Torresi 2008 p. 67). To be classed as having had intersemiotic translation, the researcher had to identify that the companies had attempted to adapt content to a different communication style.

# 5.3.1 Image Analysis of Corporate Websites with Language Options

An analysis was carried out on the company websites with language options for each company to identify the differences in the use of images and also to identify instances of intersemiotic analysis as described in the previous section. As the researcher is only bilingual in English and French, it was not possible to carry out a detailed analysis of the written contents of these websites so the main focus was on the images used and the strap lines. At the point where the preliminary analysis was carried out for this study, out

of the sixteen companies studied for this research, only six of them had language options on their websites. This had however changed by the time this section was being written in June 2014. When the preliminary analysis was being carried out in the first quarter of 2012, the main Fugro corporate website was in English language with an option to change to the Dutch language version of the website. This is no longer the case as the company no longer has a Dutch language version of their corporate website and only has the English language version. This could be the result of several factors, one of which is the recognition of the global significance of English and the role it plays in companies particularly in the Oil and Gas industry. The old and current versions of their corporate websites can be seen in Figure 33 below. This therefore reduces the number of companies to be analysed in this section to five and they include Dong Energy, ENI, OMG Group, Petrobras and Technip. The findings from the analysis can be seen in the sections that follow.



Figure 33: Fugro Corporate Website

# **Dong Energy**

The Dong Energy corporate website is in English with an option to change to the Dutch language. Below are examples of both language websites for Dong Energy:

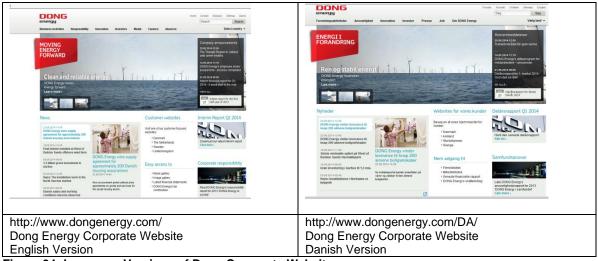


Figure 34: Language Versions of Dong Corporate Website

One can see from the images in Figure 34 that the company has used the same image for both language versions of their corporate website. The full suite of images used on both websites is also the same. A review of the information contained further down of the website indicates that there has been a literal translation of the English version of the website to the Danish version. This was confirmed by undertaking a sample translation of phrases using Google Translate. Even the smaller images used further down on the websites have not been changed. The analysis therefore identified that, in this example, there has been no intersemiotic translation done at all on the websites and the Danish language version is simply an identical version of the main corporate page content wise.

#### **ENI**

The ENI corporate website which was in English and its Italian language version were analysed to identify any instances of intersemiotic translation.

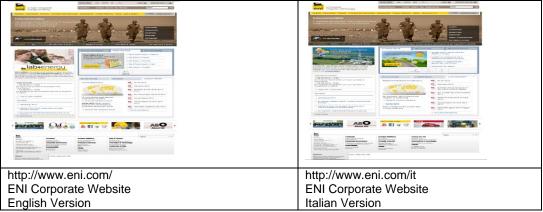


Figure 35: Language Versions of ENI Corporate Website

It can be seen from the images of both language versions in Figure 35 that the main image used on both websites are the same which is the image of personnel in work gear. This has not changed on both language versions of the websites. However, if you scroll or look further down on the page, it is evident that some of the icons and contents have been swapped around or changed to suit the Italian users of the website. The strap lines on both websites are the same and have not been changed which indicates some level of intersemiotic translation.

#### **OMV Group**

The OMV Group corporate website was analysed in order to identify instances of intersemiotic analysis. The main corporate page for this company is in English language with a German version of its corporate website which would be most suitable for local users of the website. By the time this section of the analysis was carried out, the company had changed the image on its website which was used for analysis in other sections of

this research. The analysis in this section was therefore carried out based on the image on the website as at June 2014. The analysis was carried out on both the English and German versions of the corporate website and the findings are as below:

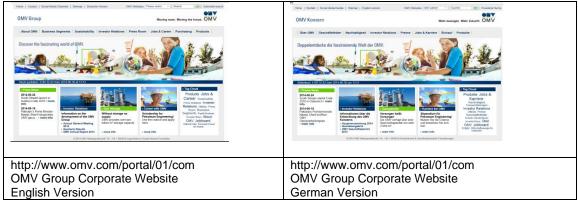


Figure 36: Language Versions of OMV Group Corporate Website

The analysis of the websites as can be seen from the table above identified that the images used on both versions of the language were exactly the same. The image on the website is static and the strap lines have not changed in both versions of the website. There does not seem to be any intersemiotic translation on these websites and it simply looks like the company has carried out a literal translation of the text on the main corporate website in order to provide its local users with the equivalent of the information that other English users would have access to on the websites.

#### **Petrobras**

The main corporate website for the company is in English but the company has Spanish and Portuguese language options and versions of its websites for other users. All three websites are analysed in this section to identify any instances of intersemiotic translation.



Figure 37: Language Versions of Petrobras Corporate Website

As previously seen on the other websites analysed, the images, structure and content of the websites remained the same despite the company having three different language versions of the corporate website. The images have not been changed or reformatted in

any way and the strap lines remain the same through all three language versions of the websites. There is no evidence of intersemiotic translation on these websites at all and both the Spanish and Portuguese language versions of the website seem to be a direct translation of the text on the main corporate website which is in English.

# **Technip**

An analysis was carried out on the corporate website to identify instances of intersemiotic translation. The Technip main corporate website is in the English language, however, there is the option of changing to the French language version.

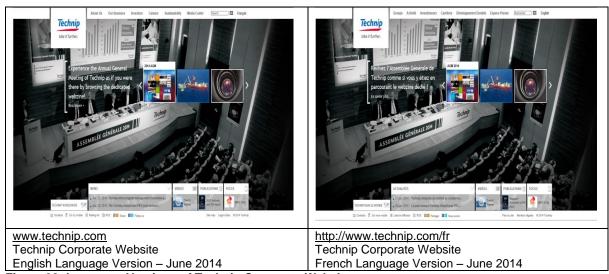


Figure 38: Language Versions of Technip Corporate Website

The Technip corporate websites were re-analysed in June 2014 and as can be seen in Figure 38 and it was identified that both websites still had the same images on both the English and French Language versions of the corporate website. The language versions each have the same suite of five images on the corporate website, the same strap line and definitely no change in the contents of the website. Therefore, there was no identification of intersemiotic translation registered on these websites.

The analysis in this section identified that by carrying out intersemiotic translations on their corporate websites, these companies are somewhat demonstrating that they are paying attention to the cultural needs of their users and therefore could be said to have achieved a limited level of localisation on their websites. These companies might also be sacrificing something on the symbolic level by having the same symbolism, which is their corporate identity, portrayed on all their websites. The analysis carried out on the country specific websites with language versions identified instances where there has been an intersemiotic translation and it was identified that quite a few country specific websites shared the same image regardless of culture and language. The second analysis carried

out to identify intersemiotic translation was carried out on the corporate home pages to identify instances where there had been intersemiotic translation on the language versions of the corporate websites. It was also identified in that analysis that almost all of the websites studied had no demonstration of intersemiotic translation. The websites seemed to be a literal translation of the main or English language version of the website with sometimes no changes at all recorded in the contents of the website.

# 5.4 Comparison of Language on Corporate Website and Country Specific Page

The main analysis in this section was to identify the differences, if any, that exist between each company's corporate website and their country specific websites. These differences included areas such as design, language, presentation and many more. According to Hillier (2003 p.2), when multilingual websites have to be created for a range of audiences, it would involve "more than translating the text from one language to another", it requires an in depth knowledge of the target culture which the website is aimed at. This is a limited case study on the French and English language versions of the websites only which might enable some wider conclusions to be made on language use in Oil and Gas companies. The analysis in this section was limited to the companies that had websites in both French and English and to countries that had French as their main language of communication. An analysis was carried out on all the corporate home pages and their country specific websites for Francophone countries. In total, twenty-six company websites were analysed to give the researcher an understanding of what measures had been taken, if any, to translate the country specific web pages to suit the target culture or country. The aim was to determine if the country specific websites are just a direct translation of the corporate home page as had been identified in analyses carried out in previous sections. It was also expected that the presence of local material which was not just a direct translation of material from the HQ website was an indication that the company allowed some degree of autonomy in determining the content of local websites to its local subsidiaries. Additional information collected from these websites included any instances of website information that would appeal more or that was specific to members of a specific Francophone group and similarities and differences between the English and French versions of the websites.

The researcher focused on the following criteria for analysis:

- Similarities in layout.
- Similarities in language.
- Direct translation or not.
- Identify if website content is adapted to the French culture or to any culture at all.
- Identify if navigational features remain untranslated.
- Identification of any specific textual or visual elements that are designed to specifically appeal to French-speaking audiences.
- How the Web content reflects the cultural values of different Francophone markets.

# 5.4.1 French Language Overview

French is the third largest of what is known as the Romance languages in terms of first or native language speakers and is "an official (or co- official) language in 53 states (of which there are 22 in Africa), most of which form, what is called in French la Francophonie, the community of French- speaking people" (Igboanusi and Pütz 2008 p.235). The French language is also one of the official and working languages of the United Nations alongside English, Spanish, Dutch and many others (Van Els 2001). In Europe, the French language is spoken in France, Belgium, Switzerland and Luxembourg. France accounts for nearly half of the world's total of native French speakers (Battye, Hintze and Rowlett 2003 p.2). According to Marley (2004 p. 30), "in France, linguistic unity has long been seen as synonymous with wider national unity, with the result that the other languages of France have been under- mined to the point of near extinction, and are now seen by many as irrelevant anachronisms, despite flourishing movements to promote several of them". This has changed considerably and in France now, it looks like the French language is losing its symbolic function and is going through a changing phase as more and more people tend to communicate in English. According to Shelly (1999 p. 310), "there is a sense that French is menaced both from within and from without by English, which is gradually corrupting the vocabulary and syntax of the language while at the same time usurping its international role in political, economic and cultural affairs". This indicates the pressure on the French language as English becomes increasingly dominant in France.

Following the decades after World War II and the economic and technical advancements that took place, the French language policy was seen as an initiative to defend the country's national identity shaken by the country's loss of its overseas colonies, reduced

role in the geopolitics of the post war world and the fragility of the economy (Shelly 1999). The French government, in order to promote the use of the French language, set up legislations in 1972, 1975 (the Loi Bas-Lauriol), 1986, and 1994 (the Loi Toubon) focused on enriching and purifying the language, defending the rights of French speakers by requiring the use of the language in the public domain (Shelly 1999). The government also set up several committees and agencies in the bid to keep the French language 'alive' and this includes the initiation of about 200 non-governmental agencies and associations which are devoted to the protection and promotion of the mother tongue (Shelly 1999). In relation to the use of the French language in companies in France, the government instituted a law known as the *Loi Toubon* which mandates companies to use French – that is, prevents them from using any other language, and most especially English, in a number of contexts including "official government publications, advertisements, public broadcasting, workplaces, commercial contracts and all sorts of government-financed bodies" (Saulière 2014 p.224). This indirectly means that companies in France would be mandated to produce their documents including websites in French.

Switzerland has been hailed as a successful example where several languages have equal official language status, after "the Swiss constitution of 1848 declared German, French, and Italian as the 'national' and presumably co-equal languages of the Confederation" (Pap 1990 p. 114). In 2000, German, French and Italian were declared official languages with Romantsch as an additional official language which can be used only for the purpose of communicating between the government and Romantsch speaking citizens (Grin and Korth 2005). Although German is the predominant language of communication in this country, a study by Murray et al 2000 (quoted in Grin and Korth 2005) identified that the preferred language of communication by most Swiss nationals was English, closely followed by French before German.

Belgium also has a significant number of French speakers with the three main official languages being Dutch, French and German (Buyl and Housen 2014). In the country "the Dutch-language area corresponds to almost 60 per cent of the Belgian population (approximately 6 million speakers) and the French-language area corresponds to 40 per cent (approximately 4 million speakers) whereas the German-language area only counts some 75,000 speakers" (Jacobs and Tobback 2013 p.408). The Dutch language area is commonly called the Flanders, the Belgian variety of Dutch is often referred to as Flemish and the French language area is commonly known as Wallonia (Jacobs and Tobback 2013). In each community, the language of instruction in schools is the language of that particular region; therefore, based on education, the Germans would have the lowest

number of speakers in the country (Buyl and Housen 2014). This puts the French language in a good position within the country's language policy.

Luxembourg is "a founding member of the European Union (EU) and one of the most multilingual countries of the union" (Kingsley 2013 p. 533). The country is located between Belgium, France and Germany and is often referred to as 'triglossic' because of the three languages which have official status - French, German and Luxembourgish (Horner and Weber 2008, Kingsley 2013). According to (Battye, Hintze and Rowlett 2003 p.1), the French language "also enjoys a privileged position by virtue of its status as official language, that is, a language used in government, administration and education, at national, regional or local level". However, recently, there has been a lot of political tension between the Dutch speakers and the French speakers (Jacobs and Tobback 2013). Also, in Luxembourg, spoken functions are carried out in Luxembourgish while written functions are carried out mainly in French and German which partly explains why French was chosen as the EU working language (Horner and Weber 2008).

In 2011, over 11 million people in Canada reported the French language as their mother tongue. According to Gorter, Zenotz and Cenoz (2014 p.86), "Canada has traditionally been home to many different ethnolinguistic groups that predate the arrival of European explorers and settlers by many thousands of years". As a result of this, there are quite a number of languages used by the residents in Canada. However, due to this colonial history, the English and French languages have been positioned as being superior to the other indigenous languages (Haque and Patrick 2014). In Canada, French and English are the official languages adopted in the country and both languages have equal status in most federal establishments although English is more recognisable on the national level and French in some regions in Canada (Holmqvist 2011). However, French has been declared as the official language of Quebec (Martin 2011), the area which has the largest number of French speakers in Canada. In the Province of Québec, French-speakers and English-speakers have seen themselves endlessly competing for services in their own language (Gorter, Zenotz and Cenoz 2014). This is also despite the fact that the language protection laws only require businesses with an address in Quebec to display their web content in French (Statistics Canada 2012) and the protection of the French language by legislation since the late 1960s through the provincial Charter of the French Language enacted in 1977 (Gorter, Zenotz and Cenoz 2014). According to Gentil and Séror (2014 p.19), "the Official Languages Act (OLA, 1985), along with the Constitution Act, 1982, provides an overarching legal framework for language policies in Canada". This language policy is concerned with language use in federal institutions and between federal citizens.

In Africa, French is also widely spoken in quite a few countries and has been identified by some researchers as one of the products of colonisation (Anchimbe 2014, Daoud 2010). Other researchers see the choice of the French language as the first or second official language in any African country as "not only promoted by the government as a symbol of power and prestige, but also meant as a token of anti-Anglophone attitudes and ideologies" (Igboanusi and Pütz 2008 p.240). In North Africa, French is the official language in Congo, Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia. In Tunisia, the French language is predominant and is also used as a second language despite the fact that an estimated 99% speak Tunisian Arabic (Al-Khatib 2008). However, in this country, "French is so rooted in the socioeconomic fabric of Tunisia that it is considered necessary for having the simplest office job or running a neighbourhood grocery store" (Daoud 2010 p.9). In Morocco, following independence "opted for a policy of Arabization, by which they meant replacing French, the language of the colonizer, with Arabic, the language of tradition and 'authenticity'" (Marley 2004 p.29). This was in order to demonstrate an independence from the Western influences following independence however; this has changed in recent times. In actual fact, various researchers have identified that the French language has an 'elite' status in Africa and is widely "used by intellectuals or educated elites for academic or cultural purposes (Battye, Hintze and Rowlett 2003 p.1-2) as well as being necessary for "social and professional success" (Marley 2004 p.29). French has automatically become the country's official language due to the lack of a concrete language policy and dominates vital sectors such as administration, education, business and the media (Ennaji 2005).

In Congo, French remains an official language since independence and is used for Government business and education (Woods 1994). In Zaire, the elite status of French is also identifiable in that the language is seen as "mythical, mystical, even mystifying function: since it is a sign of being knowledgeable, it is a magic key to social prestige and power" (Rubagumya 1990 quoted by Igboanusi and Pütz 2008 p.237). It is also considered as an official language in African Francophone countries such as Madagascar, Gabon and Ivory Coast where it plays an official role. In Cameroun, English and French are the recognised official languages (Anchimbe 2014). In Asia, there are small communities of French speakers in India and in the Middle East (Battye, Hintze and Rowlett 2003 p.6).

This large percentage of people speaking the language indicates that the language is still a major language, and thus an analysis of Francophone websites would provide a good indication of corporations' attitude to world languages other than English and give a clearer picture of the worldwide translation practices in these companies. Taking into consideration that the French language is spoken in every continent of the world and the added fact of it being the second language of the researcher, it was identified that this would be the best language to focus on for an in depth semiotic analysis of the websites. Having established the variety of French language speakers across the world in the previous section, the following section focused on all the websites that are in French regardless of location around the world.

#### 5.4.2 French Websites Content Analysis

The first step in the analysis of the Francophone websites consisted of identifying the country links on each company's corporate website to determine which Francophone countries were represented in the different Francophone regions identified for analysis. This included countries in Francophone Europe, Canada (French speaking), Africa and French speaking countries in the American, Caribbean and Polynesian Islands. Once the target websites had been identified for analysis, each French language country website was further examined for country specific website content and compared against the company's corporate home page to identify any similarities and differences. Local country website content that was available in both English and French was also compared to determine the quality of information displayed in each language and the similarities and differences inherent in each language version. Not all the companies studied had Francophone websites and were therefore inevitably excluded from this section of the analysis. These include websites for Dong Energy, RPS Group, OMV Group and Petrobras.

FRENCH SPEA	KING MAI	NO. OF WEBSITES IN AREA			
Francophone	Europe	(France,	Belgium,	Luxemburg,	16
Switzerland)					
French Canada	(Quebec)	1			
Francophone A	frica (Gabo	9			
French Caribbe	an Islands	0			
French Polynes	ian Islands	0			
Total					26

Figure 39: Oil and Gas websites displaying French language web content

In the Oil and Gas industry generally, Europe has a larger market than other Francophone regions which is explainable by the market interests these companies have in this region. In Francophone Europe, the analysis identified only 16 websites in the Francophone region which were in French and only 9 websites with specific content in French for their target website users in Francophone Africa. Companies like Petrobras in the African

Francophone region, had websites for Benin and Gabon but these were in English with no French versions of the website and therefore the websites could not be used for the analysis. None of the companies studied had websites for the French Caribbean and the French Polynesian islands. This is likely because of the size of the target market in these areas and the fact that these areas are not necessarily a target market for these companies. In the Canadian region, the analysis also identified that only one of the Oil and Gas companies studied had created a French website for their Canadian website users in recognition of Canada's official bilingualism.

## **ENI Websites Analysis:**

ENI had three websites in the Francophone Europe region which were the websites for France, Belgium and Switzerland. In French Canada, the ENI website for Canada was in English with no option to switch to a French version and therefore could not be analysed. ENI had no French website for Africa, the Caribbean Island and the Polynesian Islands.



Figure 40: ENI Global Website

As seen in Figure 40, the first noticeable difference between the two websites is that the structure and layout of the websites are different. The main corporate page does not have any slides or animations but a fixed main image on its home page. This is in contrast with the country specific web page for Belgium which has five slides, some of which are pictured below with various images on the slide show. The website for Belgium is definitely not a direct translation of the main corporate page, as explained previously; there is a lot more textual content and images on the website for Belgium. Most of the navigational links at the top of the main image on the page have been translated on this website to French with the exception of the tab for "Products & Services" which has been left in English.

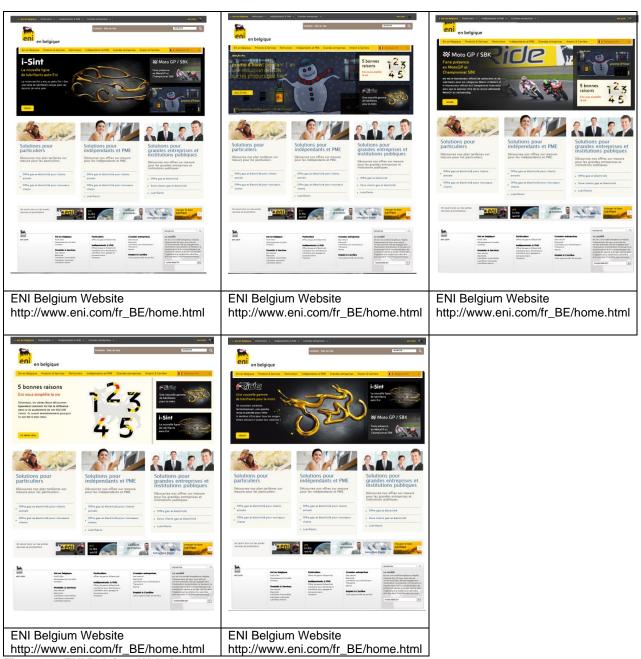


Figure 41: ENI Belgium Websites

On the ENI websites for France, when one clicks on the link to go to the ENI France country page, they are initially taken to the English version of the website with the option of changing to the French language version of the site. As can be seen in Figure 42, the website for France has been created in the same format and layout as the website for Belgium with five picture slides on the main page. Likewise, it does not have a lot of ressemblance to the main country page apart from the fact that the company logo is on the same spot on both websites. The contents on this website seem to be mostly a copy of what is on the website for Belgium and it looks like the contents on the Francophone websites have been standardised across the board. As was seen on the country website for Belgium, most of the navigational links at the top of the main image on the page have

been translated on this website to French with the exception of the tab for "Products & Services" which has been left in English.

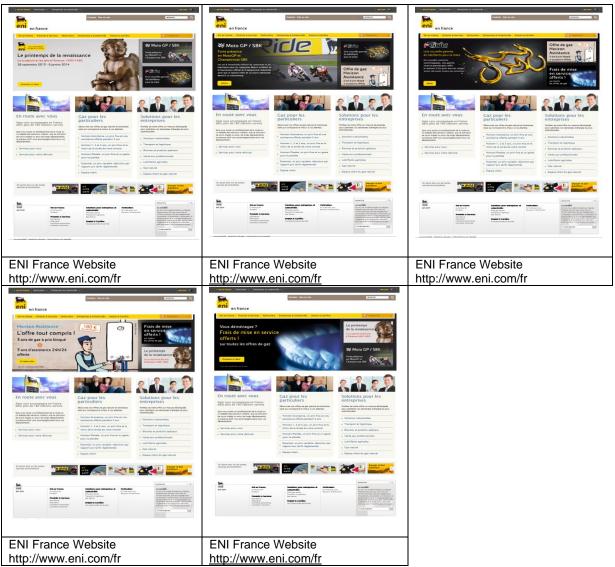


Figure 42: ENI France Website

On the ENI website for Switzerland, the website has been completely translated into French despite there being two other language versions of the website. The layout, image and contents are almost the same as the other two websites previously analysed. The language on the website is French and it is not a direct translation of the main corporate website. As was seen on the other Francophone websites, most of the navigational links at the top of the main image on the page have been translated on this website into French with the exception of the tab for "Products & Services" which has been left in English.

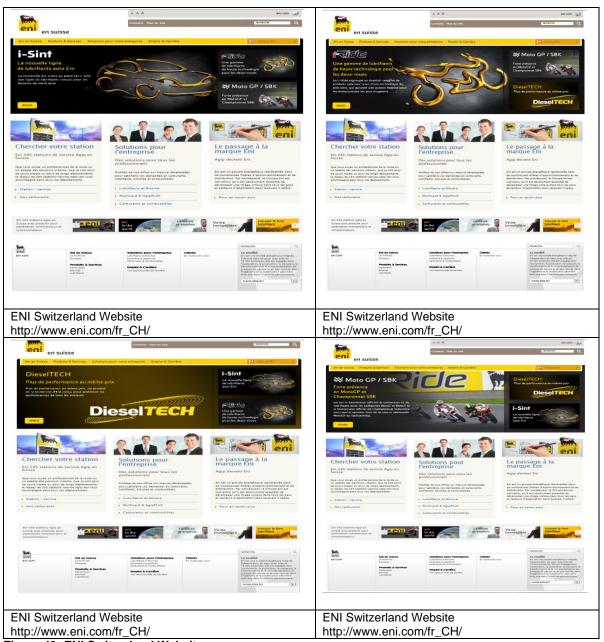


Figure 43: ENI Switzerland Website

One can see firstly that with this company, there seems to be a standardisation of images and content across their Francophone websites. However, even though they have used the same images and in some instances the same content on their websites, this company has made certain references of adaptation to the countries the websites were made for, such as the name of the country it was made for on their website, in order to make it country specific. This indicates a limited adaptation of the websites towards glocalisation where the company maintains a global image by keeping all or most of the country websites in the same layout and format with the contents adjusted to reflect the country the website was created for. That is, the company has maintained some limited degree of localisation and standardisation across a language zone while retaining its

corporate symbolism. Another point that stands out in this analysis is the fact that on all three websites, all the navigational tabs have been translated apart from the tab for "Products & Services" which has been left in English. This might relate to the fact that, in the business world, increasingly some business terms or anglicisms have been imported into foreign languages – a trend which has been debated by researchers such as Grigg (1997). Hurn (2009 p.302), further adds that, "the French have tried, albeit without great success, to suppress the use of anglicised words which have come into wide usage in France, by replacing them with more Gallic equivalents, (e.g. computer, ordinateur, chip, puce, etc.), particularly in the computing and internet world". The findings in this secction indicates that this has not necessary worked. Therefore, one can say that by keeping the tab for products and services in English, this company is assuming that most people are fluent in English and will find it easier to understand what their products and services are if this tab is kept in English. Also, according to a research carried out by (Martin 2011 p.267), it was identified that by combining English used as a global language with 'Frenglish' product names, slogans and culturally relevant imagery, Web advertising forges consumers' identities both locally and globally". Another point to add here is that the use of Anglicisms or English in product titles and business terminology might be partly because of convenience and partly because of the fetish value of the English language. This helps the researcher conclude that this company is using a glocal website strategy.

## **BP Websites Analysis:**

Amongst the Francophone country websites available for discussion, BP had a significant number of websites which were used for analysis although it had none in the French Canadian region, Francophone Africa, the French Caribbean Island and the French Polynesian Islands. In the Francophone Europe category, BP had Francophone websites for France, Switzerland and Belgium and these are discussed below.

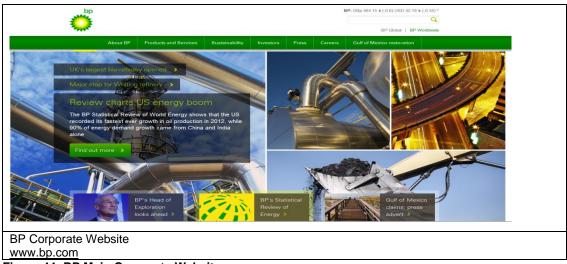


Figure 44: BP Main Corporate Website

As can be seen when comparing the Francophone websites against the main corporate website, the first thing one can see is that the websites differ in terms of design and structure. The main corporate website is mainly filled with images while the Francophone websites have a mix of images and texts on the websites. The language used differs as the main corporate language is in the English language while the websites used for analysis in this section are all in French. The websites, as can be seen, are also not a direct translation of what is on the corporate website and also differs in content from the different other Francophone websites. That is, no two of the Francophone websites have the same image or text on their main country websites. Although the images on the Francophone websites have not necessarily been adapted to suit the French culture, the text on these websites have been made specifically for the country. Overall, the analysis identified that this is in the same category of 'limited localisation' as the ones already discussed above.

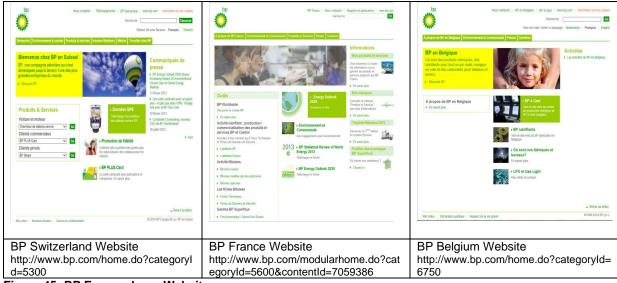


Figure 45: BP Francophone Websites

On the country website for Switzerland, not all the navigational features have been translated to French. The section for "Investor Relations" has been left in English even though every other navigational tab has been translated. This is however not the same with the other Francophone websites as all the navigational tabs have been translated to French. The colour scheme also remains the same as the other websites and as the main corporate page. This reiterates the issue of Anglicism which was earlier identified in the ENI website analysis. The so-called "Toubon Law", named after the former French Minister of Culture, whereby since 1994 foreign expressions should be translated into French on commercial products and in advertising, is still extant (Hurn 2009 p.303) and one can see that most of the marketing information has been left in English.

The analysis in this section identified that these websites overall, displayed a limited level of localsation. It was observed that there was a uniformity on the country websites in terms of layout although this uniformity does not relate with what is evident on the company's main corporate page. It was also identified during the analysis that although most sections of the website had been translated, not all the navigational features had been translated into French. There was clearly a mix of both French and English on some of the websites allowing English the opportunity to maintain a supercentral position in these countries.

#### **ExxonMobil Websites:**

This company had only one Francophone website which could be used for analysis. In French Canada, ExxonMobil had no website that was qualified to be used for analysis and this was the same for Francophone Africa, the French Caribbean Islands and the French Polynesian Islands. In Francophone Europe, only one website was suitable for analysis and this was the country specific website for France as pictured below.

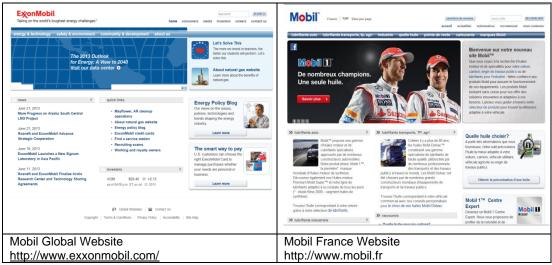


Figure 46: ExxonMobil Global Website and France Website

Both websites pictured in Figure 46 are in English and French respectively and do not share the same layout which suggests that two separate templates have been used for the creation of these websites. Although the colour schemes remain the same for these two websites, one can clearly see that the French website is dominated by the use of celebrities who although are not French are being sponsored by the company on their Formula 1 car racing sport campaign. While the main corporate page seems to have more textual content, the country website for France not only has textual content which is in French, it also has an image slide show. The content on the website for France is specific to the location although some of the images used have been repeated across other country websites.

## **Fugro Websites:**

Fugro had only one Francophone website which could be used for analysis. In French Canada, the French Caribbean Island, the French Polynesian Islands and Francophone Africa, Fugro had no website that could be used for analysis. In the Francophone Europe region, there was only one website in French which was suitable for analysis and this was the country specific website for France. The Fugro website for Belgium is in English with no option to change to the French language and therefore could not be used for the analysis in this section. This was the same for the website for Canada where there was no option to change to a French language version of the website.

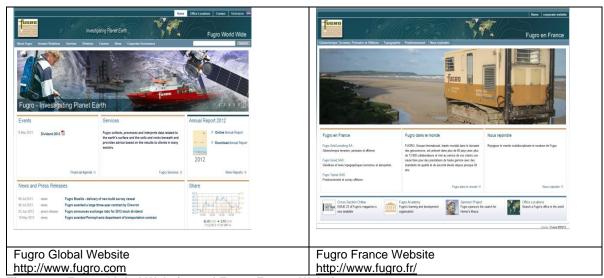


Figure 47: Fugro Global Website and Fugro France Website

The Fugro Corporate website is in English with the option to change to Dutch which is the language of the company's headquarter location. The website for France is in French but with no option to switch to the language of the global headquarters which is somewhat understandable as the main target on this website should be the French speaking audience. The immediate observation while looking at these websites is that the website for France seems to have been created on the same template as the corporate website as they both have very similar layouts. Although featuring different images, the two websites have images of equipment on both websites therefore demonstrating the company's expertise in the sector. The colour schemes also are the same, as are the positioning of the logos on both web pages.

The information on the website is a combination of specific information about the Fugro office in France and also describes what the company does as a whole. This is however not a literal translation of the corporate website. One can also see that the tabs at the top right part of the two websites are also different. The main corporate home page has tabs for the office locations (which lets people know the places where the company operates),

the contact details for the company, and a link to the corporate language of the company as mentioned above. This gives users of the websites the opportunity to use either of the two languages, which the company apparently sees as important. On the country specific website for France, the websites have two links at the tab at the top of the web page. Both links take the user back to the corporate home page. It is clear on comparison of the two websites that it is not a direct translation from one page to the other as the two websites are not in the same format and do not contain the same stories. The navigational links on the website are also all in French with no English on the main corporate website. In summary, from the analysis of the Fugro websites, one can see that the English language seems to play a hypercentral role and the companies have not taken into account the fact that other Francophone countries would identify more with websites in their local language apart from on the Fugro website for France.

## **Shell Websites:**

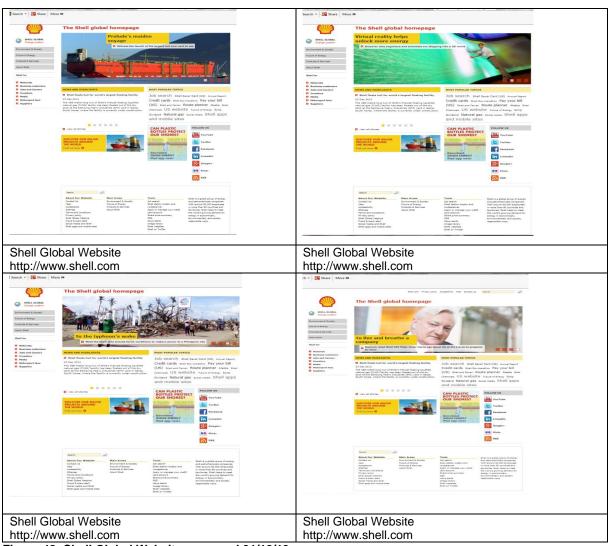


Figure 48: Shell Global Website accessed 31/12/13

The Shell websites are important for this analysis, as a good number of Francophone country websites across the world are represented. According to the Shell France website <a href="https://www.shell.fr">www.shell.fr</a>, Shell France started with the creation of the Royal Dutch Petroleum Company in the Netherlands. In France, the Group RD/S and Deutsch de la Meurthe combined in 1922 to create the Société des Pétroles Jupiter and in 1948 the Jupiter Petroleum Society became what we know now as Shell France. This makes France one of the founding countries for this company and a country where the company still has a reasonable level of operations. However, the company has gone on since then to expand to other Francophone countries in both Africa and Canada as discussed below.

In French Canada, Shell had the country website for Canada that could be used for analysis and in Francophone Europe, the country websites for France, Belgium, Switzerland and Luxembourg. In the Francophone Africa, the French Caribbean Island and the French Polynesian Islands regions, there were no websites suitable for analysis.

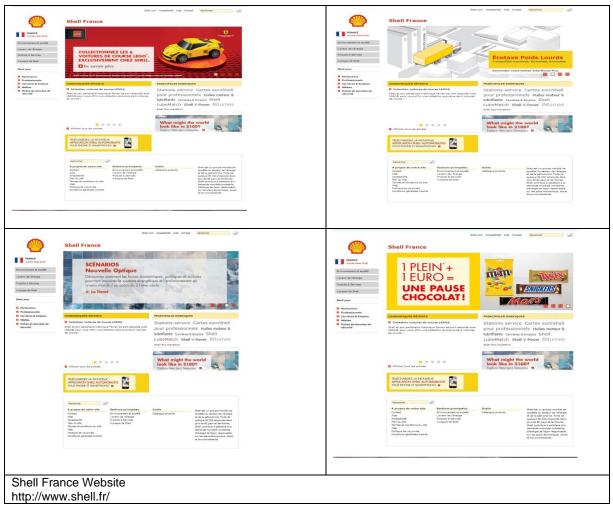


Figure 49: Shell France Website accessed 31/12/13

In the first set of websites in Figure 49, one can see that the Shell corporate website and the Shell website for France are both patterned in the same way and have the same layout. The images come as a set of 4 image slide shows on both websites and the images on the country website for France are not the same as those used on the company's main corporate home page. The language on the website is French with all the contents and navigational features translated into French. The country website for France is not a direct translation of the main corporate page and contents have been modified to suit the country it was made for.



Figure 50: Shell Belgium Website accessed 31/12/13

The Belgium country website for Shell pictured in Figure 50 is the same as the Dutch version. In fact, when a user clicks on the link or types the link to the Belgium country specific website <a href="www.shell.be">www.shell.be</a>, the user is initially directed to the Dutch version of the page with the option to change to the French option of the page. This is somewhat understandable as Belgium has a slightly higher number of Dutch/Flemish speakers compared to the French speakers (Vogl and Hüning 2010). However, the company seems to have represented the main languages spoken in the country. The French version of the website is in French with images on the website which are specific to Belgium and not the same as the images on the main corporate web page. The structure and layout of the web page is quite similar to the websites for France and the corporate websites only that with the websites for Belgium, there are only two boxes of texts/images under the main image on each page. Apart from that everything else seems to be the same in terms of layout and logo position.

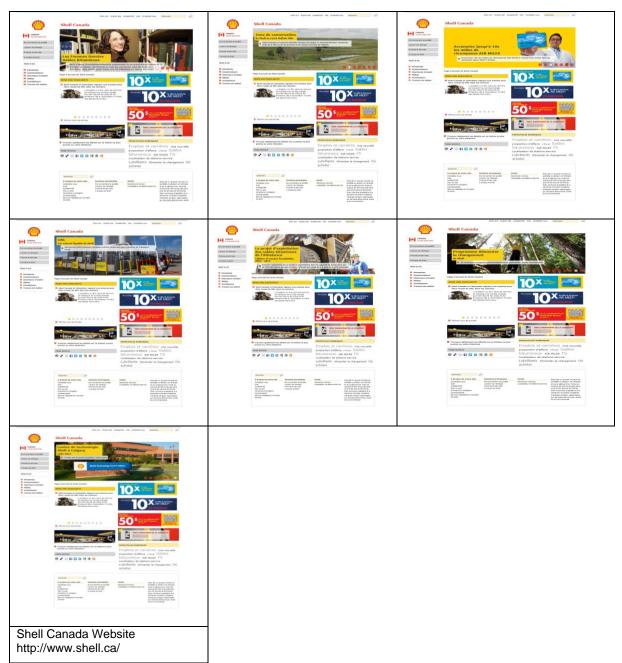


Figure 51: Shell Canada Websites accessed 31/12/13

Although there are a few images on the Shell website for Canada as pictured above, an analysis was carried out on each image to identify any differences or similarities that may exist between this website and the corporate website. The first thing that is noticeable with the website for Canada is that when a user visits the country specific website for Canada, they are immediately taken to the English version of the website. There is however the option to change to the French version of the page. On the positive side, it shows that the company acknowledges the multilingualism of the country. However, that one is immediately taken to the English version of the page indicates that English is the company's preferred language of communication with users in that region. The second

most noticeable difference is that the website for Canada has more images than the company's corporate home page. As it stands, the main corporate page has four images on its slide show while the website for Canada has a total of seven images which is almost double that which is on the corporate page. The website for Canada also has more detail in its contents than the corporate website and is not a translated version of the corporate website although some things like the location of the company logo on the website remain the same.

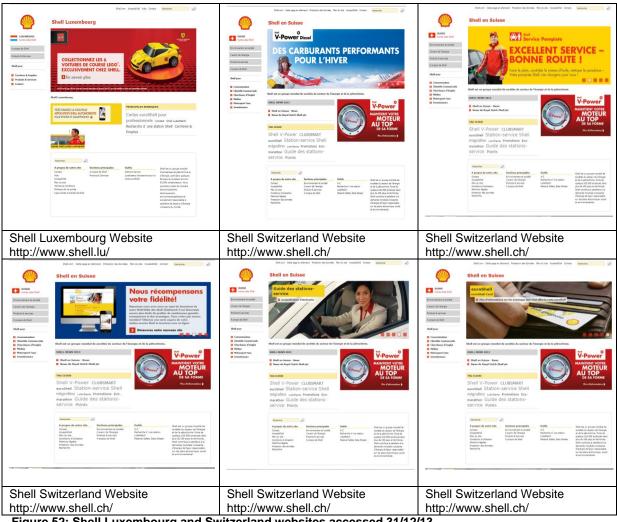


Figure 52: Shell Luxembourg and Switzerland websites accessed 31/12/13

The Shell Luxembourg website, as shown in Figure 52, is in French. French is the official language of Luxembourg despite the country having two other main languages. Compared to the corporate website, it has no animations on it and the website seems quite basic. The structural layout is the same as the corporate website and the company logo is also situated in the same position as in the main corporate website. All the texts on the website are in French and although the text on the website does not necessarily tie into the country's culture or have anything specific to the country, it is not a translation of the corporate home page. The Shell Switzerland websites also pictured in Figure 52 are quite significant as they are the only Francophone website with the exact same layout as the corporate website. The website has the same number of slides as the corporate website and the logo also remains on the same position as the main corporate website. The website is in French and is not a direct translation of what is on the main corporate website.

In the African Francophone region, although Shell has a website for Gabon, the website is in English and therefore does not qualify in this section of the analysis. There are however websites for Madagascar, Morocco and Mali as pictured in Figure 53 below which are both in French and English, that is, sections of the website are in English, while other sections are in French. Apart from the logo of the company being in the same position as the corporate home page, there are hardly any other similarities. These set of websites as pictured below have no images on them at all compared to the company's corporate home page. The websites are filled with text which as described above has been split with only four paragraphs of the whole website in French while everything else has remained in English. This looks more like a page which gives a brief overview of the company's activities in that country rather than an actual website. This indicates that because the target audience in these countries are not considered to be economically important, then the main purpose of websites in these countries is solely for communication purposes. The analysis in this section therefore highlighted that there seems to be a hierarchy even amongst the 'limited localisation' category based upon the limited analysis of Francophone websites in this section. Some of the websites show a degree of difference in content and layout from the corporate homepage, others less so. For those countries 'lower' in the hierarchy, lower in the sense that they have less significant economic power for the company, there is localisation, but the content of such websites is basic, resembling a 'reduced' version of the full corporate website. Overall, with the comparison of the Shell corporate website with other Francophone websites, one can observe that there is some attention paid to local languages on country specific pages. English has also not been used as a fall back or hypercentral language on this company's websites.

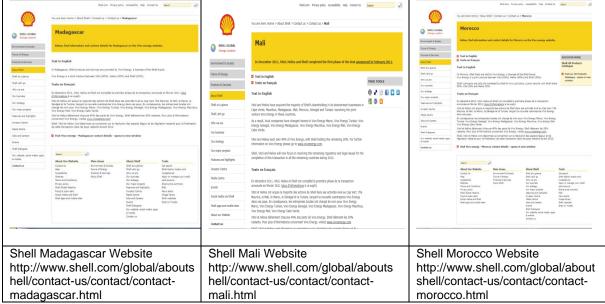


Figure 53: Shell Madagascar, Mali and Morocco websites

# **Technip Websites:**

A different analysis was carried out on Technip as it is a French company and the main corporate website has both French and English versions. The first comparison was therefore carried out between the English version of the corporate home page and the French version of the corporate home page. The second comparison was then carried out between the English version of the corporate website and the Francophone country websites.



Figure 54: English Version of Technip Corporate Home Page

The first point worthy of note is the fact that when one goes to the link for the Technip corporate home page <a href="www.technip.com">www.technip.com</a>, it takes one to the English version of the corporate home page regardless of the fact that this company is a French company. It then gives the option to change to the French version of the website. This initially indicates that English has a symbolic function on these websites and the company as a whole in the quest to be seen as being 'global'. The hypercentral role of English in this company, despite the company being French, and thus having a major supercentral language as its 'home language' reflects a recent trend in the languages being adopted by French multinational companies. It is also a reversal of language politics to see that the French speakers have recognised the symbolic dominance of English over the French language and also brings to light the political issues that might arise as a result of this acknowledgement. Secondly, animations are used on both websites with the options of five different images or slides as pictured above. One can see that apart from the last image in each set as per Figures 53 and 54, all other images used in the animations are the same, with the French version being translated to French to suit the audience.

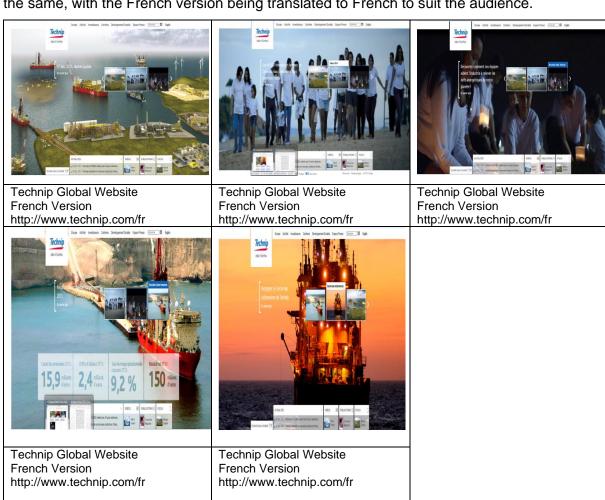


Figure 55: French Version of Technip Corporate Home Page

The second analysis on the Technip websites was carried out between the French version of the corporate home page and the local website for other Francophone speaking countries. The initial analysis revealed that the Technip Canada website was in English with no alternative or option to view a French version of the website therefore this local website could not be used for the analysis. This was also the same for the Technip website for France which was in English with no option to view a French version of the website. These findings were quite surprising considering that this company has its headquarters in France. One can however argue that the French version of the corporate website covers France, however, the French version of the corporate website is not localised in any way apart from language to suit the French users. There was therefore no Francophone website to be used for analysis amongst the Technip websites apart from the corporate home page. This trend in the choice of language for the Technip websites can be explainable from their market shares and revenues which is discussed in the next section on the role of English in these companies.

The only website Technip have for the Francophone region is the website for France. The first obvious difference between these Technip websites is that the templates used are different. The global website has more content and design than the local website for France and the layouts of the two pages are evidently very different. The Global website has three sets of slides on the home page as pictured above while the website for France has one static image on its first page. The global website for Technip and the local website for Technip France are both in English. This company has left the language on the local page for France and the main corporate page in English as it is a French company and is headquartered in France.

#### **Bureau Veritas Websites:**

Amongst the Francophone country websites available for discussion, Bureau Veritas had a few Francophone websites that could be used for analysis. In the Francophone Europe region, the company had country websites for France, Belgium and Switzerland. In French Canada, Bureau Veritas had no country website for Canada that could be used for analysis. In the Francophone Africa region, the company had websites for Algeria and Benin Republic which were used for analysis. The findings on these websites are as discussed below:

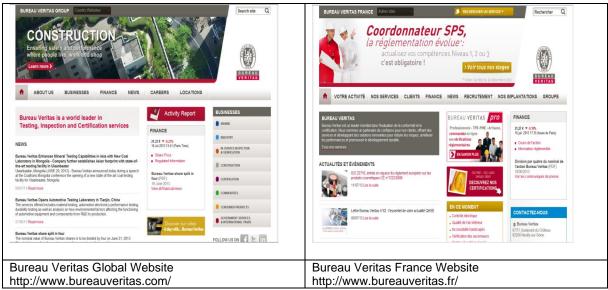


Figure 56: Bureau Veritas Global Website and France Website

As can be seen on the global corporate website for Bureau Veritas and the local website for France, the templates and the layouts for both websites look the same with the logo presented on the same side. English is used on the corporate home page while French is used on the website for France. In terms of translation of the web pages, both websites do not necessarily have the same content and the website for France is definitely not a direct translation of the corporate website in French. The images used on the country website for France are general images and do not necessarily tie into the French culture.

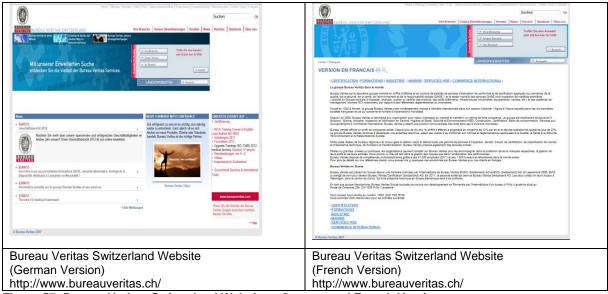


Figure 57: Bureau Veritas Switzerland Website - German and French Version

On the local websites for Switzerland, the websites come in two versions: the German version and the French version as can be seen in Figure 57. The German version is where anyone who types in the link <a href="https://www.bureauveritas.ch">www.bureauveritas.ch</a> will be immediately taken to

before having the option to change to the French version of the website. Although the German version is not discussed in this analysis, the layout of the German version of the website is quite similar to the corporate website in terms of design and structure of the website. There are hardly any similarities between the French version of the website and the German version. When comparing the French version of the website and the corporate home page, the major observation is that the structure of both sites are completely different from each other. One can also see that the French version has no images at all and lacks any sense of attraction to website users. This places this website in a lower position in a hierarchy within 'limited localisation', as although the company has carried out a limited localisation by translating content on their websites, there are no culture specific images or anything else that can be attributed to the use of a localisation strategy. The French version of the website although in French does not have anything on it that is relevant to the culture of the target people of Switzerland. Instead the caption on the text reads "Le groupe Bureau Veritas dans le monde", this means "The Bureau Veritas group in the world' and true to its heading, this section discusses and gives an overview of the company and its activities worldwide. There is also a few paragraphs at the bottom of the page titled "Bureau Veritas en Suisse" which means "Bureau Veritas in Switzerland" and gives a brief overview of when the company started, what it does and the address of the company in Switzerland. Other than that, there is nothing specifically on the country page that discusses the company's activities in Switzerland. The only main thing that differentiates it and gives any inkling that it is a website for Switzerland apart from the language are the contact details for the Switzerland office.

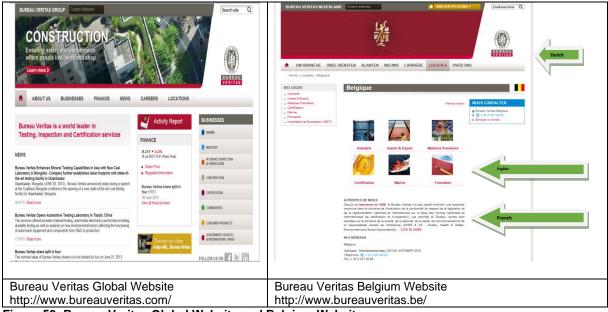


Figure 58: Bureau Veritas Global Website and Belgium Website

The Bureau Veritas website for Belgium seems to have drawn on the multilingualism of the country. First of all, when one clicks on the link to the Bureau Veritas Belgium page www.bureauveritas.be, the user is immediately redirected to what looks like the Netherlands website and which actually states at the top of the page that it is the web page for the Netherlands. This company has also used a combination of Dutch, English and French on their website for Belgium. The strapline and all the options at the top of the page are in Dutch, the text under the strapline and for the options under the strapline are in French. The options that one can click to inorder to go to other sections of the website are in English. They have therefore managed to use three languages on this one website therefore creating some kind of linguistic hybrid on their web page. The layout of the website for Belgium in comparison to the corporate website is completely different with the only resemblance being the fact that the company logo is on the same point as it is on the corporate website. The only text that is in French has no particular reference to the company's activities in Belgium but instead discusses the company as a whole. The only cultural reference to the Belgian culture or community apart from the Belgium address of the company on the page is the country's flag. Apart from that nothing else identifies it to the country.

The African Francophone region for Bureau Veritas is serviced by their website for France which acts as a regional website for all the African Francophone websites. The website has different sections for the different countries it covers as seen in the examples in Figure 59 below for Algeria and Benin Republic. The websites although being an offshoot of the website for France are different from the France version in terms of structure and layout. The images used although similar between the two Francophone countries are different from the images used on the website for France. In comparison to the main corporate page, the African Francophone country websites listed below are not exactly similar in layout they do however have the logos situated in the same position on all the websites and the website is in French. The websites for Algeria and Benin Republic are almost a mirror image of each other with the textual contents of both websites related to the countries they represent. The office addresses of the company in the two countries are also listed so that it is easier for their local users to know how to contact them which gives a sense of accountability. In summary, one can see that Bureau Veritas have localised their websites to a high level. However, a typical case where translation issues and miscommunication can occur is the website for Belgium. On some websites, one can also see that websites for some languages have been more localised than others as was seen with the website for Switzerland. The hypercentrality of English is also evident on these websites.

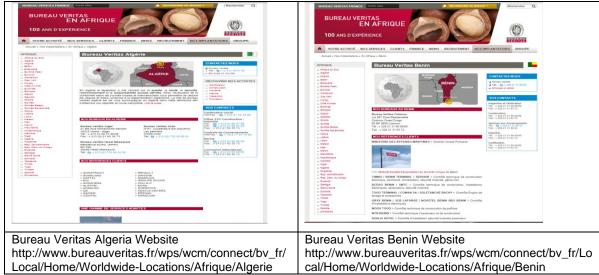


Figure 59: Bureau Veritas Algeria Website and Benin Website

## **Lukoil Websites:**

Lukoil has no website in Francophone Africa or any other Francophone countries from the group of websites studied apart from its Belgium website which is in Francophone Europe. This was therefore the only unit of analysis for this company and provided sufficient insight into the company's practices in this area. Lukoil is quite unique in that in all the websites that have been studied so far in this section, it is one of the few companies where the main language for the Belgium site is in French. Once a user clicks on <a href="https://www.lukoil.be">www.lukoil.be</a> which is Lukoil's country specific website for Belgium, they are redirected to the French version of the website. The company however acknowledges the multilingualism of this company and has made provisions for the user to change to the Dutch version of the website.

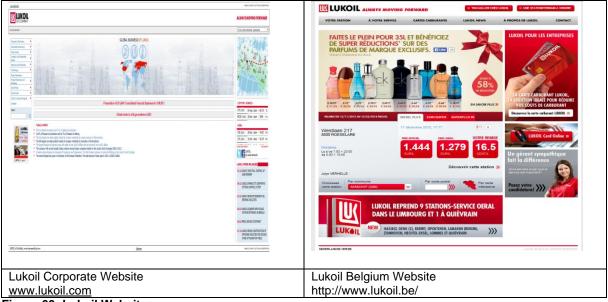


Figure 60: Lukoil Websites

In comparison to Lukoil's corporate website pictured in Figure 60, there is a high level of localisation on the website for Belgium. There are more vibrant and colourful images on the website for Belgium and a lot of country specific promotions. The website is also in French and there is really a sense of autonomy in the creation of this website. The layout of the website is completely different also from the corporate home page. The Lukoil Belgium website is not a direct translation of the main corporate web page and as can be seen from the images below, the promotional images on the websites are specific to Belgium. In summary, one can see from the analysis carried out on the Lukoil websites that the Francophone country website is different in terms of content and layout from the main corporate website. In actual fact, as seen from the images above, there actually seems to have been high level of localisation particularly in the creation and presentation of the Francophone website. The language is in French and the contents of the website show that the company has deliberately made the website specific to the country it was created for.

#### **Perenco Websites:**

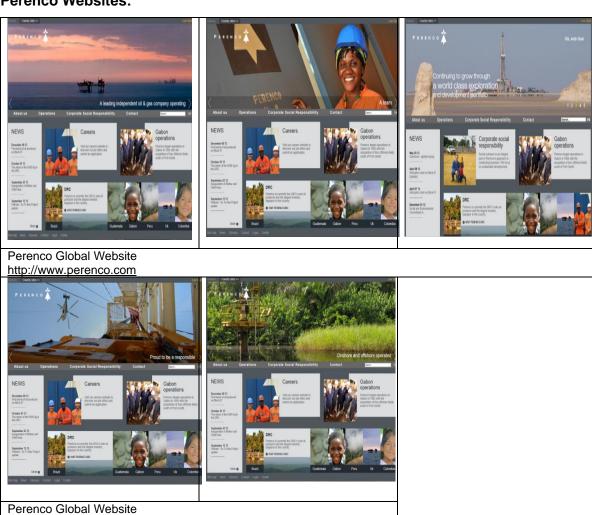
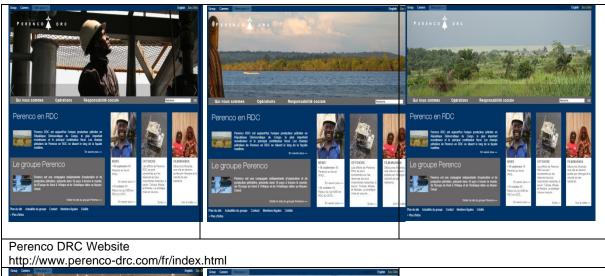


Figure 61: Perenco Corporate Website

http://www.perenco.com

For Perenco, there were a limited number of websites to be analysed as there were no websites for Francophone Europe or any other Francophone websites in other regions. The only websites available for analysis amongst the Perenco websites were the websites for Francophone Africa which are the Democratic Republic of Congo and Gabon. In Figure 61 are images from the Perenco corporate website which are used for comparison with the French language websites. As can be seen from Figure 62, the Perenco website for the Democratic Republic of Congo is in English when the country in fact has French as the official language (Woods 1994). The English version of the website however has a link to a French version which is exactly the same layout and a direct translation of what is on the English version of the site. The French version is used for the analysis in this section. As mentioned before, the French version of the website is completely translated into French and one can also see that the content, such as the images and information on the websites, though limited, is relevant to the people of the Democratic Republic of Congo.





http://www.perenco-drc.com/fr/index.html

Figure 62: Perenco DRC Websites

The website pictured below for Perenco Gabon also present some relevant facts. Firstly, one can see that the layout is the same as the layout for the Perenco country website for the Democratic Republic of Congo but different from the main corporate main page for the company. It looks like a specific layout or template has been made for the corporate website with another layout made to be used by all the subsidiary locations therefore suggesting a higher level of localisation. The company logo on the website is however in the same position as the main corporate home page. The images on the websites are different on the two websites however; they all follow the same theme which is the representation of the African community, metonymic signifiers such as offshore rigs and a helipad and the local landscape/environment. The website for Gabon has also been completely translated to French in order to respond to the needs of the target users of the website.



Figure 63: Perenco Gabon Websites

To summarise the observations of the analysis of the Francophone websites available for these Oil and Gas companies, one can see evidence of limited localisation within which a hierarchy has been identified. For companies that have limited localisation on their websites, some parts of the websites have been translated and in some cases the layout has also been changed to suit the target population. In instances where there is a higher degree or level of localisation, most of the websites have been completely translated and the contents and images on the websites created specifically for the Francophone countries they were created for. It is also noticeable that there seems to have been a separate design template created for the country specific websites and another created for the company's corporate home page - this could be a type of localisation strategy used by this company.

The symbolic role of English is present on these websites as is seen by the presence of anglicisms in some of the company's business terminology and by some of the companies studied choosing not to completely translate all their navigational features. The navigational tab for Products and Services was left in English on some of the Francophone websites studied. One can also see that on the Francophone websites, there has not been a direct translation of the main corporate website in any of the examples studied above and the websites seem to be created independently. There actually seem to have been a high level of localisation on the Francophone websites as they have more images, more graphics and much more content that is relevant to the target country.

In relation to the content of these country specific Francophone countries, Europe again comes out as the area which is most represented on these websites. This could be because most of the websites studied are in Francophone Europe; it could also be an indication that the companies have more business interests in Francophone Europe. There was only one French Canadian website studied in this section and the site offered cultural content that would specifically appeal to French Canadians and people in that region. Culturally adapted material for Africa was evident in the images used on the websites and in some of texts which showed patterns of being specific to the African culture. There were no websites to be analysed for the French Caribbean and French Polynesian regions.

The analysis in this section also identified that the companies seemed to have a global strategy in the layouts of their websites. This means that the companies largely use a standard layout or standard elements, with a limited degree of localisation, depending on the area the website is made for and the company the website belongs to. However, the images and contents on most of these websites were localised to suit the target country it

was created for. Language on these websites was also changed to French to suit the Francophone audience the websites were made for in most cases. As discussed earlier at the start of this section, some of the Francophone country websites could not be analysed in this section because the companies had chosen to use English as the language on the website. This brings us to the analysis in the next section and the role that English plays in these companies.

# 5.5 Chapter Summary

In conclusion, one can see that some of the companies studied like Shell and Bureau Veritas have taken translation and localisation further by having websites for 80 to 90% of all the countries they operate in and in relevant languages. These companies have invariably taken localisation to a new level where the target population and their languages are taken into consideration and viewed as a major factor in their success globally. These companies somewhat demonstrate that they have an understanding of the needs of their target group and refuse to acknowledge the fact that English is believed to be the global language of communication. At least by having multiple options they demonstrate that, even though English is widely spoken, there is also room for other languages to operate on an international scene. It was also identified that although some companies did not localise on a linguistic level, they localised on a visual level and through the information that they presented on the websites for the different local areas and countries. An example is the website for Perenco in Francophone Africa where the images used on the websites tell most of the story and relate to the culture the website was made for.

Another discourse that was identified in the course of this analysis was that in certain parts of the world, formal localisation seemed to be low. Instead, another element comes in which shows that the companies are concerned about the people as the companies seemed to reflect concern about their employees, the environment and sponsorship of local charity events on their websites. For a French company, for instance, operating in a non-French speaking country, there would be the need to put the fact that they are concerned about the local people at the forefront of their websites in order to be accepted by the local populace. There were therefore instances where environmental issues were brought to the fore front on the websites particularly when operations when in Africa or areas which are prone to environmental issues.

It was also identified in this research that there was a huge difference in terms of how many websites were made for each Francophone region. The majority of Francophone websites for these companies were for Francophone Europe, very few for Francophone Africa and none at all for the Francophone Caribbean region. A few reasons for this could be firstly, that the companies do not have a major financial business interest in these areas and therefore do not see any need to invest in localising for these regions. The second reason could be because of what Crystal (2011) identified in his research about the world's internet use where Africa and the Caribbean region have one of the lowest numbers of internet users in the world and therefore access to the internet is usually a problem in most cases. The number of internet users in the African and Caribbean regions are however increasing so companies may have to change their policy in the near future. However, in terms of current economic calculations, localising for these regions might not be a priority at present. In the African region it was identified that the translation strategy used on most of the Francophone websites were not as detailed as on the other websites. On some of the websites as identified in the earlier sections, English and French were used on a singular web page showing that the company had no interest in creating a standalone website for the French language whether because the language does not play a significant role within the company or simply to save costs. In the Canadian region, it was identified that the websites were a direct translation of the English websites in most cases.

One can see that while some companies preferred to use intersemiotic translation, others preferred the use of intrasemiotic translation. This difference was probably due to the target audience of each company being widely different and the need of each of these companies to reach a larger number of people. Other reasons for this could range from the size of the company, availability of resources and knowledge in the area of localisation. However, it is worthy of note that the use of intersemiotic analysis, while maintaining the same global structure of the websites, point towards a glocal strategy. That is, that the companies are trying to promote their global image by keeping the same structures and formats while promoting the local by changing the images to suit the particular country location the website is made for. There were very many instances where the companies had kept a global strategy by standardising the pictures and images they have used on the websites and the languages used. These same companies also included local news stories, languages and images on their websites to create an impression of being local.

It was also interesting to see how multilingual websites had been created for countries like Switzerland, Belgium and Canada where there are more than one official languages and how this difference has been accommodated on the websites. According to Martin (2011 p.281) "English is being absorbed into the French lexicon, creating a hybrid localised variety. In this respect, Francophone audiences online, as many Web users worldwide, are being addressed as both global and local consumers. This dual 'glocal' identity enables them to belong to a global community while experiencing the brand through their own cultural lens". One can also see from the analysis that a lot of companies seem to depend on the use of English on both their corporate websites and most of their country specific websites. A lot of the companies studied had language options so users can switch to other language versions of the website which makes it easier for people to use the website. It was also identified that while translating, some companies pay attention to language politics and consider the fact that some countries are multilingual and this is reflected on their websites. The use of regional websites for language groups and geographical groups was identified and it was noted that the language that was mostly used on these regional websites was English. These findings indicate that English is playing a symbolic role as well as a communicative role in these companies.

# CHAPTER 6. CULTURAL AND DESIGN ANALYSIS

## 6.1 Introduction

This chapter details information on the cultural and design features of the websites studied with the aim of understanding the degree and nature of localisation on these websites. It also provides a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the websites studied and sets the scene for the more detailed analysis carried out in the sub sections that follow. An analysis was carried out to determine the number of country specific websites (if any) that each company has, the language that each company uses on its main corporate website and the website design strategies that are used on the different country websites. The analysis carried out on all country specific websites was based on the visual communication (content) features on these websites. According to Würtz (2006), "visual communication on websites is expressed through layout and the use of images, photographs, and animation". Eristi (2005-2009 p.121) further adds that "Visual information, images and symbols are the elements consisting of logos, pictures, graphics, photographs, videos, animations, and simulations that cultural meanings and information can intensively be formed".

The visual analysis involved both cultural content and design features of the websites. According to (Robbins and Stylianou 2003), generally, content features such as the images and texts used on websites are used to create a corporate image and help strengthen relationships with a corporation's constituent groups. This would maybe be the same with the design features of these websites and this is what the analysis in this chapter also sought to identify. There are some aspects of websites which were expected to be interpreted the same way across cultures (emic) and some aspects which were expected to be interpreted differently in different cultures (etic) (Abraham 1996). The research as presented in this chapter attempts to define what these emic and etic aspects of the websites are. For the companies who adapt communication on their websites to suit the local cultures, this research aimed to identify and understand how and what strategies they used to achieve this. The initial analysis was a review of all the websites studied to identify content and design features which were then used as a basis for analysis. The analysis was carried out based on the framework identified in Section 4.4.2 which is a hybrid of theoretical frameworks of Edward Hall, the GLOBE researchers, Geert Hofstede and the researcher's adapted criteria to suit the Oil and Gas industry.

# 6.2 Availability of Country Specific Website/Domain Name

Having a country specific website is an indication of the extent of the localisation and would give a good insight into how each company has localised its websites to meet the needs of their various users. It also demonstrates an attempt by the companies to make the websites easily accessible to the users. Evidence that websites are localised could be said to be in the ease of access to other language and country specific sites. The first analysis was therefore to check for the availability of country specific websites and their accessibility through their own URL. A country specific website in this context refers to websites that have domain names that are specific to the country within which they are operating and mostly also specific to the local language for which they were created for. According to Hillier (2003 p.4), "when different language versions of a site are presented separately, they usually have their own domain name". It was therefore expected that there would be different language versions and some country specific domain names. The analysis was carried out to identify the number of websites for each company that had URLs modified to match the specific country. The findings are as listed in Figure 64 below.

The analysis identified that the company with the most number of country specific websites was Shell with 54 websites, closely followed by Bureau Veritas with 45 websites. ENI and the RPS Group have only one each out of its country specific websites having a country specific URL. Lukoil, on the other hand, despite not having a very large number of country websites overall, had the highest number with all its country specific websites having their own unique URL which is specific to the country. It can however be argued that the Lukoil websites all have a URL because the company only operates in a strategic number of countries, according to its website, and therefore has limited cost in terms of number of websites. Overall, the Lukoil websites, Shell websites and Bureau Veritas websites indicated a limited degree of localisation.

Company Name	No.	Countries		
BP	2	Georgia, Germany		
Bureau Veritas	45	Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Chile, China, Colombia, Croatia, Czech republic, Denmark, Ecuador, Estonia, France, Finland, Germany, Greece, Hungary, India, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Mexico, the Netherlands, Norway, South Korea, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, Thailand, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom, Venezuela, Vietnam		
Chevron	11	Angola, Australia, Bangladesh, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Indonesia, Lithuania, Romania, Thailand and Ukraine		
ConocoPhillips	6	Canada, China, Norway, Australia, Poland, United Kingdom		
Dong Energy	6	Denmark, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Sweden, Norway, Germany		
ENI	1	Spain		
ExxonMobil	14	Canada, Germany, Egypt, France, United Kingdom, Poland, Finland, Sweden, Turkey, Russia, Mexico, USA, China, Thailand		
Fugro	17	Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, China, Egypt, France, Germany, Hong Kong, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Pakistan, Singapore, United Kingdom, Vietnam, Japan		
Lukoil	8	Ukraine, Romania, Belgium, Lithuania, Bulgaria, Belarus, Serbia, Italy		
OMV Group	11	Austria, Czech Republic, Germany, Hungary, Slovakia, Romania, Slovenia, Serbia, Bulgaria, Turkey, Norway		
Perenco	6	Brazil, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Guatemala, Peru, United Kingdom		
Petrobras	2	Argentina, Brazil		
RPS Group	1	The Netherlands		
Shell	54	Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, Czech Republic, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Guam, Hong Kong, Hungary, Iceland, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, Luxembourg, Malaysia, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Philippines, Poland, Puerto Rico, Qatar, Russia, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Korea, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, Thailand, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom, United States, Venezuela, Vietnam.		
Talisman	1	United States		
Technip	1	Portugal		

Figure 64: List of Country Specific Websites

Another observation in this analysis is that there does not seem to be a preference for the creation of country specific websites for any particular country or region. The majority of the countries with country specific URLs are in the European area which is not surprising considering that Europe is the most linguistically diverse continent. However, considering the linguistic diversity, one would expect the companies to have a country specific website. The analysis identified that there does not seem to be any trend that is easily identifiable or any trend which tends towards a strategy that is particular to the industry. The strategy of each of these companies and the areas where they carry out the majority of their business definitely has an impact on the number of websites they have and even the country websites they choose to create. This analysis leads to the next section which is aimed at identifying whether this country specific websites are also language specific. If they are, then it shows a company's commitment to localisation to some extent.

# 6.3 Grouped or Regional Website Strategy

The findings from the website analysis revealed a trend towards companies creating websites for language zones or 'locales' as they are known rather than for countries. According to Singh and Pereira (2005), global companies were most likely to use countries as a basis for segmenting their target markets. However, this research identifies that the boundaries for this segmentation, especially in the Oil and Gas industry, are gradually changing towards the use of language as a basis for segmenting markets. According to Dor (2004), "speakers belong to a language zone on account of their linguistic preferences, regardless of whether their language is the national language of the nationstate they live in". In some cases, internet end users were all grouped under the same language regardless of geographical locations and cultural similarities. Companies sometimes use a variety of language strategies in order to reach their target population and one of these is the use of a singular language or website to reach a target group of people. This may be because of the size of the company, the fact that the product type across the regions is the same and the economic implications of creating multiple websites when the companies can create a single website for several countries (Shin and Huh 2009). This research does not cover the effectiveness of this method or the usefulness of this strategy to the companies; however, it identifies instances where this strategy has been used on these websites.

The analysis identified that In the process of trying to localise, companies seem to adopt three possible strategies: the first strategy is the use of language zones or common

languages on websites. The main possible motivation for using this first strategy could be the economic, which means that the company can use one singular website to serve several countries who share the same language as it might be far too expensive to localise into every single language spoken in a country. The disadvantage of this is that spoken languages have variations; and a singular language on the grouped websites would have to be the 'standard' written version of the language. Also, the grouped websites would most often than not have no culture specific content but just include general information. The second strategy is that the companies might have country specific websites with the possible motivation being the intention to localise websites to suit the target users. The advantage of this is that each country will have a dedicated website which would most likely suit its language and culture needs. The main disadvantage of this is the cost that the company would incur in order to create websites for the different language groups and cultures. The third and final strategy is a combination of the first and second strategies. As a result of these differences that might exist on company website strategies, it was therefore important in this research to identify instances of a grouped or regional website strategy on the company websites.

Some countries have language policies and a certain language or languages which are recognised as the main language for business communication. In Switzerland for instance, four languages (Italian, Romansh, French and German) are recognised, in Belgium three languages (French, Dutch and German) and in Nigeria, although three languages (Igbo, Yoruba and Hausa) are identified as the main languages, these languages are mainly used in written communication while English still plays the role of being the main language of communication in official settings. The choice of English as the main language of communication on most of the websites studied is presumably for economic reasons as the majority of the website users will speak and read English rather than the other languages.

The findings from the grouped website strategy can broadly be categorised into two main categories. The first category is an example of the first strategy discussed in the previous section which consists of the websites grouped according to language and the second category consists of the websites grouped according to location. As detailed in Figure 65, some specific websites have been used by some of these companies as a singular website to cover particular countries, regions, language zones and continents in some instances and the reasons for using this method may vary according to company.

Company	Regional/Language specific website address	Language on site	Areas covered
Exxon Mobil	http://www.mobil.com/AP-English- LCW/default.aspx	English	Asia Pacific
RPS Group	http://www.rpsgroup.com/Australia-Asia- Pacific.aspx	English	Australia and Asia Pacific
Fugro	www.fugro.sg www.fugro-africa.com	English English	South East Asia and Malta Africa
BP	www.bp.com/middleeast	English	Middle East (Oman, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia)
	www.bp.com/africa	English	Africa
Bureau Veritas	www.bureauveritas.com/fr	French	Covers French speaking areas both in Africa (Algeria) and Europe
	http://www.bureauveritas.com/wps/wcm/connect/bv_com/Group/Home/Worldwide-Locations/Middle_East/	English	Bahrain, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria and the United Arab Emirates
	http://www.bureauveritas.com/wps/wcm/conn ect/bv_com/Group/Home/Worldwide- Locations/Africa/	English	All African countries
	http://www.bureauveritas.com/wps/wcm/connect/bv_com/Group/Home/Worldwide-Locations/South_East_Asia#	English	South East Asia (Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam)
	www.bureauveritas.com/ar	Spanish	Covers Spanish speaking areas in South America e.g. Argentina, Bolivia, Paraguay)
	www.bureauveritas.com/au	English	Covers New Zealand, Fiji, Australia
	www.bureauveritas.com/in	English	Indian site covers Sri Lanka, Bangladesh
	http://www.us.bureauveritas.com/wps/wcm/connect/bv_usnew/local	English	Bureau Veritas US page services North America (Barbados, Bahamas, Bermuda)
Technip	www.technip.com/en/middle-east	English	Covers Iraq, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, UAE and Dubai
	www.technip.com/en/asia-pacific	English	Covers China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand
Talisman	www.talisman- energy.com/operations/latin_america	English	Peru and Colombia
	www.talisman- energy.com/operations/north america	English	Canada
	www.talisman- energy.com/operations/north_sea	English	Norway and the United Kingdom
	www.talisman- energy.com/operations/south_east_asia	English	Papua New Guinea, Indonesia, Malaysia, Vietnam and Australia
	www.talisman- energy.com/operations/other_areas	English	Algeria, Kurdistan Region of Northern Iraq and Poland

Figure 65: List of Regional Websites

In the first category, one can see that a few websites have been grouped by these companies according to a linguistic criterion as can be seen from the examples in Figure 66. The company Bureau Veritas group all their French speaking country websites under one website www.bureauveritas.fr regardless of which continent they are on. This website is the country specific website for France and automatically acts as the target website for all Francophone countries including countries like Algeria, Benin, Congo, Cote d'Ivoire and Benin Republic which are in a completely different continent with different cultures entirely. The sole reason that one can see for grouping these websites on to the website for France is the fact that these countries share the same language. Another example of this is still with the same company where they use their country specific website for Argentina which is in Spanish to service Spanish speaking counties in South America such as Argentina, Bolivia and Paraguay. Here also, one can see that the main reason for grouping these websites under this single website is because of their shared language. The contents of the websites are very generic and not particular to the countries they cover. If anything, they have more information about Argentina which is the country for which it was specifically created for.

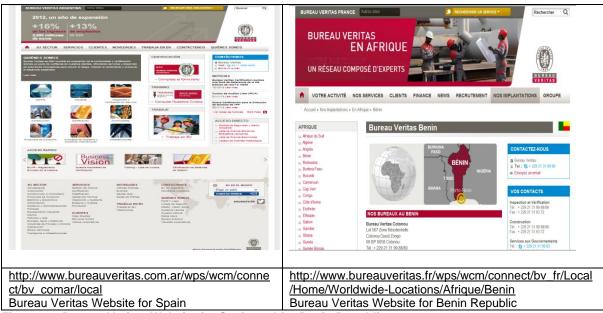


Figure 66: Bureau Veritas Website for Spain and for Benin Republic

In the second category are companies that group their websites according to regions. Oil and gas companies generally tend to divide the world up and their global operations into regions based on factors such as language zones, proximity or closeness of location and similarities in work operations/business carried out in the region. In cases where operations are in one region, the companies may want to use a single language which they consider 'common' to that region as the main language on the regional websites. As can be seen in Figure 67, some companies have also grouped their website based on

proximity or closeness of location. Fugro operationally groups its area of operations into six regions (Africa, Europe, Middle East & Asia, North America, Oceania and South America). However, on the web, this company has grouped all its African countries under www.fugro-africa.com and all its South East Asian countries under www.fugro.sg with English used as the main language of communication on both websites. The other regions that are not covered in this grouped strategy have individual websites for most of the countries in each operational group. This indicates that the choice of a grouped website strategy is not based on the company's operational strategy but most likely on the proximity or closeness of the countries in each group. In this way, proximity or closeness of location takes priority over linguistic or cultural reasons for grouping the company websites. The choice of English language on these websites clearly does not take into consideration the fact that not all African countries have English as their main language and South East Asian countries also have languages that are specific to each of them. The main issue here is that in some of these countries, English is not spoken by everyone, nevertheless, these companies may believe that some or all of the economically powerful citizens of the country, that is the educated and middle class, will speak English. This brings about the symbolic dimension of English as a 'cosmopolitan' language spoken by a 'global elite' particularly in some African countries. Basing the groupings on proximity also explains why there are no specific cultural references on these grouped websites.

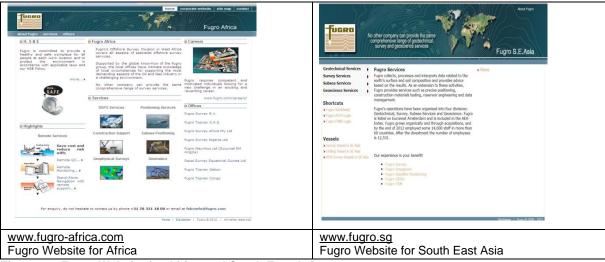


Figure 67: Fugro Website for Africa and South East Asia

# 6.4 Fully Designed Websites and Plain Websites

The analysis in this section was carried out in two sections with insights from secondary research carried out by Würtz (2006) which involved a cross cultural analysis of websites from Hall's High and Low Context cultures. Low context culture websites were expected to be richer in text with few images while high context websites are expected to have more

images and fewer texts. The focus of this thesis was therefore to discuss the extent of localisation based on these design features and the logic behind the choice of designs.

The first section focused on 'plain' websites and the second focused on fully designed websites. By 'plain' websites, the hypothesis was that there are two categories of websites – those which contain all the design features which one would expect of the 'full' corporate website – the other is a 'reduced' version of the former, lacking many of the features of it. The hypothesis in this section was that the reasons for employing the latter was that it would be seen as a form of localisation, but the reason for the 'reduced' version of the website could be a combination of cost and the significance of the local areas covered i.e. they are not considered of sufficient value to merit a 'fully localised' version. The design of any website plays an important role in how users interact with them and with the company. According to Fan and Tsai (2011 p. 1144), "website design refers to the interface channel and environment through which the user and the computer exchange information, in order for the user to view, search, and input information". It was therefore important to identify strategies used on the websites to encourage user participation and interest.

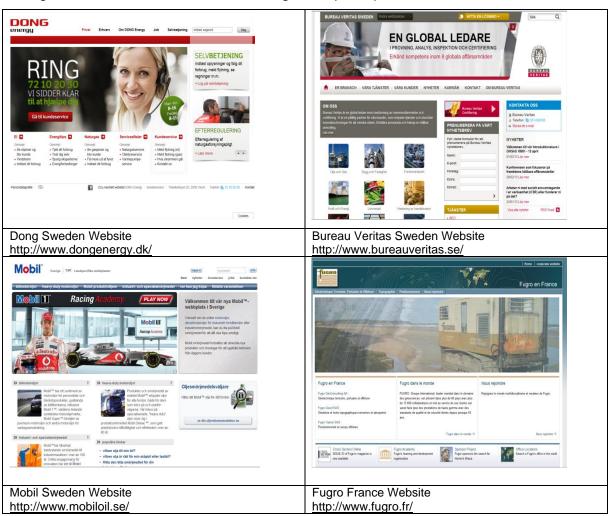


Figure 68: Sweden Country Websites for Dong Energy, Bureau Veritas, Mobil and France

In the first category, it was identified that over 80% of the websites had a balance of texts and images. As can be seen in Figure 68, over 50% of the home page is covered with different set of images, some of which have cultural references, meaning that the images or content had elements specific to that country and some of which do not relate to the culture at all. The second category of websites studied were those with few or no images where it was identified that 20% of the websites had little or no images on them and about 5% had no images at all. This was in contrast to other websites created by the same companies which were more elaborate. Figure 69 shows two Shell and Chevron websites which demonstrate the major disparity that can occur between two country websites from the same company.

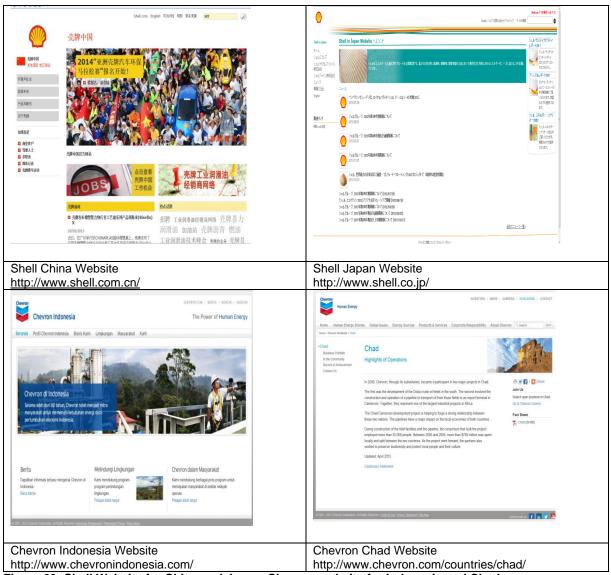


Figure 69: Shell Website for China and Japan, Chevron website for Indonesia and Chad

Figure 69 is one example which negates the concept that the companies may be localising because of economic reasons. Japan is strategically important to Shell's operations as according to <a href="https://www.shell.com">www.shell.com</a>, a number of the company's largest customers are Japanese

companies. Shell has also been operational in Japan for more than a century and one would therefore expect that the website would have more features on it. However, it should be noted that as Japan is a high context culture, this might explain the reason behind not having many images etc. on the website. The other example which is the Chad website for Chevron also indicates a huge difference in the level of website content as opposed to other websites. These findings generally point to the fact that most of these companies do not want to spend money on creating websites for countries where they do not have a lot of investment or capital interests which would correspond with the first strategy identified in the previous section.

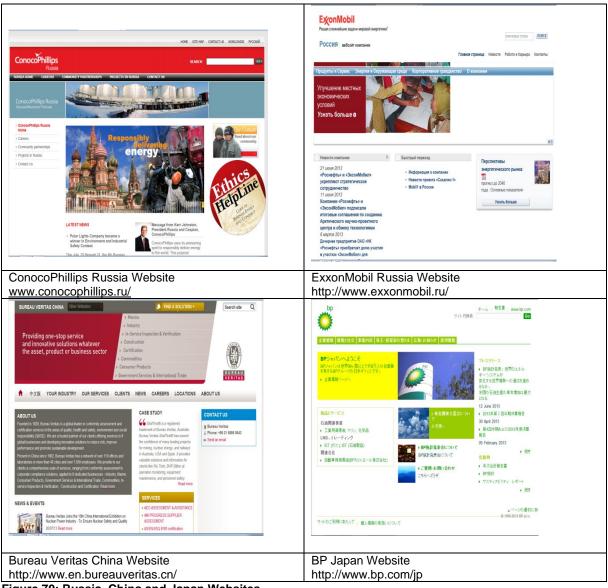


Figure 70: Russia, China and Japan Websites

For Shell, the websites for some of the African countries (Gabon, Madagascar, Mali and Morocco) and Japan, which are all from the high context culture category had no images at all on the country websites. This ties in with the expectation of websites in the High

Context Culture. However, from an economic perspective, these African country websites compared to the Shell websites for other African countries such as Nigeria and South Africa where the company has a huge operational base shows a huge difference which can only be attributed to the operations element of their website strategy. In Nigeria, Shell is continually discovering and producing Oil and Gas from the Niger Delta and Deep-water reserves (<a href="www.shell.com.ng">www.shell.com.ng</a>) and it currently has major projects going on in Nigeria such as the Bonga Exploration Project. In South Africa, Shell has been active since 1902 according to <a href="www.shell.com/zaf">www.shell.com/zaf</a> and apart from being involved in involved in "the Retail and Commercial Fuels, Lubricants and Oils, Chemicals, Manufacturing and Upstream Exploration", currently co-owns one of the largest refineries in Africa.

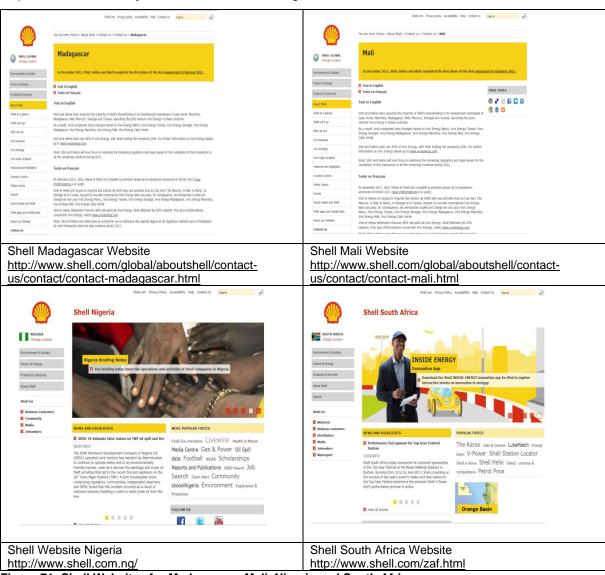


Figure 71: Shell Websites for Madagascar, Mali, Nigeria and South Africa

The websites for Shell Nigeria and Shell South Africa (Figure 71) both have elaborate images on them and slide shows with various images to make it appealing to the users. This demonstrates the differences that can exist when a company has operational interests in a certain area. It also highlights that the expectations based on Hall's High and Low Context culture categorisation do not necessarily align with what is applicable in the Oil and Gas industry as the main focus seems to be on the economic relevance of the particular country.

# 6.5 The Use of Standardised Website Layouts

This section focused on instances where the companies have maintained a standardised website layout on all their country websites. Website layout "means the organization of content and images in web page, it is a design component that can be described as a cultural factor" (Eristi 2005 - 2009 p.121). Website layouts, if localised, can be adapted to meet the cultural needs of target cultural users and used to a company's advantage. According to Eristi (2005-2009 p.121), "features like position of buttons, flow direction of page either horizontally or vertically, and page layout balance of the design (symmetrical/asymmetrical) etc. as a whole make up the cultural quality of page layout". It then goes without saying that if companies adapt these features on their websites, they will appropriately meet the needs of each target country. Some companies use the layouts of their websites as a means to maintain a standardised global and unified structure in various countries. According to Boudreau and Watson (2006 p.35), "global design/global content implies centralized corporate development with one group developing a single web site for all countries". By having a standard global website layout, these companies are able to maintain the global image of the company while changing the text and contents on each country specific websites to suit the local audience. There are, then, seemingly two forces at work in this - on one hand, the imperative to retain a standard layout throughout all the company websites which is primarily determined by the desire to promote a unified corporate identity, and on the other hand, the imperative to move away from this to allow adaptation of websites to suit the relevant cultures of the websites they are created for. This indicates a 'glocal' phenomenon on these company websites.

The analysis in this section was carried out in two parts. The first part involved studying trends of layout standardisation across the different country specific websites. The websites were analysed to identify instances where layouts had remained the same across countries with variations in content to reflect particular local issues and issues that are

sensitive to the companies. The second part of the analysis was carried out to determine the trend towards standardising images on the websites across the different country specific websites.

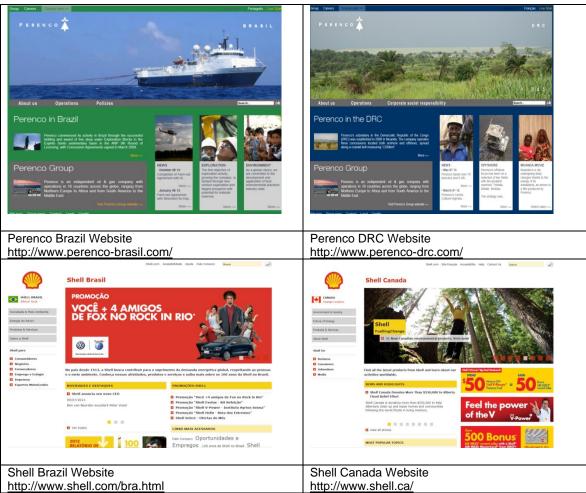


Figure 72: Perenco and Shell Websites

In the examples in Figure 72 which are websites for Perenco and Shell, one can see firstly that the websites are very similar in structure and the layout is the same for most of their websites. The structure of the website has been designed in such a way that text does not overlap, there is a sense of space and white space is also used constantly to highlight where a particular text or group of information ends and where the other begins. The texts also seem to be grouped into visible or sometimes invisible boxes which give it a very structured layout. The fact that the spaces are highlighted in white makes it easier for one to know which text belongs to which section. It can be seen also that there is less ambiguity, an attempt to make things as clear as possible and the websites are easy to navigate. This finding is similar to Würtz's (2005) findings during her analysis of McDonald websites and what she classed as a logical, linear thinking pattern.

The analysis revealed that websites for most of the companies studied have the same layout which shows the preference of these companies to preserve a standard global way of presenting themselves and their global corporate identity. Out of the companies studied, websites for Perenco, OMV Group, Shell, Dong Energy and Petrobras all have the same layouts across the different country sites. The first set of websites chosen for analysis are the Perenco websites which present a good example of how companies use the same layout while changing the contents to suit the particular country. Despite the fact that there is a standard blurb on both pages giving an insight into the company's business, the websites seem to have been adapted to suit the specific countries they were made for. The images, news stories and texts on each of these pages have been modified to suit the target country. On the second set of websites which are for Shell, one can see that they have the same format although language, content and news stories have been varied to suit each country.

According to Shneor (2012 p.357) "more collectivistic societies may be content with standardized service formats serving large groups of people. Such cultures may be less demanding in terms of having market-specific sites dedicated to their own group". One major observation from this analysis was the fact that most of the companies studied retained the same layout regardless of whether the website was created for a low or the high context country. This shows that the trend in Oil and Gas industry websites is not towards any particular culture but looks more like the company's deliberate decision to keep the layouts the same across the board is to show some uniformity through the company. It is also less expensive and time consuming to have these standardised formats which are slightly modified to suit each specific country. Culture is therefore not a major factor in determining whether a standardised website layout is used or not. It seems the most important factor is the desire to retain a standard layout for purposes of corporate identity, and possibly for economic reasons. Within this standard layout, however, the companies maintain smaller boxes which are 'filled up' with locally relevant text and images in order to reflect local content. The layout structures used could also be a big advantage to these companies as according to Würtz (2006 p. 282), "logical, linear thinking patterns would imply linear navigation throughout the site, with a consistent layout throughout the pages of the site, thus promoting a structured and timesaving quality".

The second analysis was carried out to identify instances where the companies have standardised the images used on their websites. That is, instances where they have used the same image on different country specific websites. Different companies use different images on their websites and while some go on to have website images and symbols that

are relevant to the culture of the target users of the websites; some just use standard images for all their websites. This research tried to identify and understand images were used and how they were used in each location.

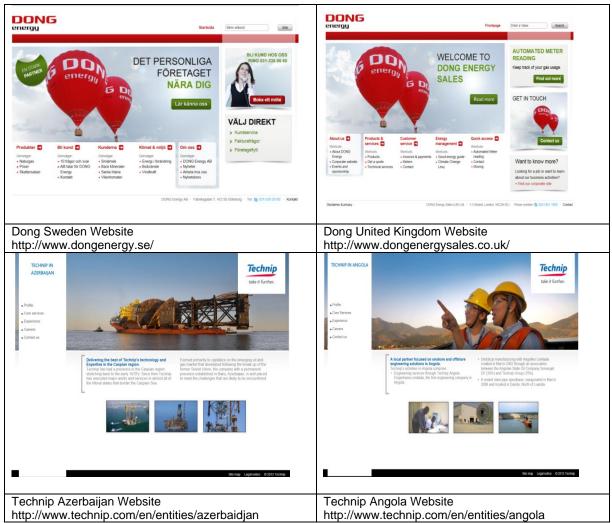


Figure 73: Technip and Dong Websites

As seen in Figure 73, some companies displayed the tendency towards the use of a particular image across their different country specific websites. Dong Energy for instance, had the same image on their websites for Sweden and the United Kingdom. Technip had more instances where they used one particular image across several countries. The first example is the image used on the Technip Azerbaijan country website which is also used on the websites for Finland and the regional website for the Asia Pacific region. The second image on the country specific website for Angola pictures two workers on a worksite and this image is also used on the country specific websites for France, India, Nigeria and the United States of America. One can see from this last set of image representation on the various country websites that the images are not particular to any specific region or set of countries but seem to be used randomly among the company's country websites. According to Halsall (2012), for the corporate media, including corporate

websites, brand symbols and logos, communication artefacts such as company reports and documents, and advertising campaigns, cosmopolitanism can be conceived of as the necessity for the corporations of projecting a corporate image as a world citizen, which can be seen to have two dimensions: the global reach of the corporation, and its sensitivity to the national and local cultures in which it operates. The combination of both the global reach of these companies and the local sensitivity to the people the websites are created for was termed as "glocalization" by Koller (2007) in her study of the branding strategy of the HSBC bank.

#### 6.6 Colour Use on Websites

This first part of the analysis was carried out on all the country specific websites in order to understand and identify specific cultural features. This involved an in depth analysis of all the websites studied for areas such as colour use, logos, local news and local promotions. One of the main criteria in this section was to identify the differences in how colours are used and applied on these websites across the diverse cultural groups studied. According to De Bortoli and Maroto (2001), colour is the first thing that you notice or see when you access a website, even before you can understand which language is being used or what the message says. Colours on websites can be said to have two levels of symbolism: the first is a culture-specific symbolism and the second is a global or corporate symbolism.

The first level of symbolism is global which refers in particular to the use of corporate colours to symbolise the corporate identity of a company and to differentiate it from others. According to Caivano and Lopez (2012), colour is a global symbol which renders the identity of an institution visible. Aslam (2006) further adds that colour induces moods and emotions and helps companies differentiate themselves from their competition, thus helping them build an identity. In the case of colours used on corporate websites, there could be a variety of reasons for each company's choice of colours. Colours play an important part in communicating a company's identity, therefore; the choice of colours could be based on the need to maintain the company's corporate identity by choosing and using colours that are identifiable with the company. Choice of colours could also be based on the desire to adapt colours to suit the local colour preferences of the company's target locations. Caivano and Lopez (2012 p.11) provide a good example of how colour can affect a company and coincidentally, they use one of the companies studied – Petrobras as an example. According to their study, the Brazilian company Petrobras, has green and yellow as its main colours and these colours also make a clear reference to the Brazilian

flag. When these colours were introduced in the Argentine market, the company had to make what these researchers call a 'chromatic change' to include blue – which is the colour of Argentina and also the colours used by the company that held the best position at the time – YPF in order to stay competitive and relevant to the new market they were venturing into.

The second level of symbolism is the cultural/ local element – which is where colours take on their specific symbolic meanings within cultures based on historical and in many cases religious symbolism. Colours have different meanings in different cultures (De Bortoli and Maroto 2001), (Cyr and Trevor-Smith 2004), for instance, De Bortoli and Maroto (2001) identified that orange in Asia is positive, spiritually enlightening and a life-affirming colour, while in the United States it symbolises road hazards and traffic. It is evident therefore that different colours mean different things in different cultures. There are traditional colours that are linked to certain contexts. For instance, in most cultures, white symbolises purity and is the traditional colour used at most weddings (De Bortoli and Maroto 2001). Kim and Kuljis (2010 p. 257), also mentioned in their research that "in Japan, white is a colour that implies death whereas in Egypt it indicates joy". The colour black on the other hand symbolises evil, death and funerals in most cultures while blue is usually associated with wealth, trust, and security while grey is associated with strength, exclusivity, and success. Orange on the other hand denotes cheapness in some cultures (De Bortoli and Maroto 2001). Cyr and Trevor-Smith (2004) for instance, in their study identified that Canadians have a stronger preference for grey colour schemes and Germans show a stronger preference for blue and also tend to be more sensitive to unappealing colours. Green on the other hand "is often connected with environmental issues, but it is also the colour of an American dollar bill – and the colour of Islam" Mantua (2007 p. 1). Cyr and Trevor-Smith (2004 p.15) in their research also found that the Japanese use the colour red twice as much as do Germans or Americans and Japanese websites use other colours such as yellow, green, blue or purple more than the expected use of a large percentage of red.

To further understand the impact and uses of culture, it was relevant to refer to the colour chart below from Barber and Badre (1998). This colour chart has been used as the basis for many studies carried out on colours and how it ties into culture especially on websites. Using the colour-culture chart below as a basis for analysis, this research focused on country specific websites of five countries as listed in the chart (China, Japan, Egypt, France and the United States). The analysis was carried out in two parts. The first was a detailed analysis of all the websites to determine the trends in colour use while the second

was an analysis to determine to what extent the companies had adapted the colours used on their websites to suit the local colour preferences and culture.

Color	China	Japan	Egypt	France	United States
Red	Happiness	Anger	Death	Aristocracy	Danger
		Danger			Stop
Blue	Heavens	Villainy	Virtue	Freedom	Masculine
	Clouds		Faith	Peace	
			Truth		
Green	Ming	Future	Fertility	Criminality	Safety
	Dynasty	Youth	Strength		Go
	Heavens	Energy			
Yellow	Birth	Grace	Happiness	Temporary	Cowardice
	Wealth	Nobility	Prosperity		Temporary
	Power				
White	Death	Death	Joy	Neutrality	Purity
	Purity				

Figure 74: Symbolic Associations with Colour (Barber and Badre 1998)

#### 6.6.1 Corporate Colour use on Websites and Images

The first part of the colour analysis was a detailed review of all the websites to find out similarities in colour schemes and the use of the corporate colours. It was important to this research to know if the colours that are used vary across regions or countries or if the colours used remain the same throughout the country specific websites. It was also important to know if the colours used were mostly synonymous with the corporate colours. This is because, corporate colours if localised, can take on local meanings and symbolisms on company websites. The corporate colours referred to in this section are the colours that are synonymous with the company such as colours that feature on the company's logos. According to Eristi (2005-2009 p. 121) "color is one of the elements with varying meanings among cultures, and culture can be clearly reflected in a web site through use of it" and in web page design, "color should be selected with regard to satisfaction and expectation of user and the significance of the color to him/her". However, it seems that the symbolic, branding function of colour might take precedence over the 'local' cultural symbolic function for most oil and gas companies. From all the websites studied, 99% of the websites mainly featured company colours on their website and only 1% of websites featured colours that were not synonymous with the company but more specific to the culture. This finding points towards the importance of the branding function and the likelihood that company headquarters would provide a colour scheme to each local company or country who then create their local web pages in accordance with the

colour standards/template provided by headquarters. This template is then sometimes updated with specific local content and pictures to reflect the local culture.

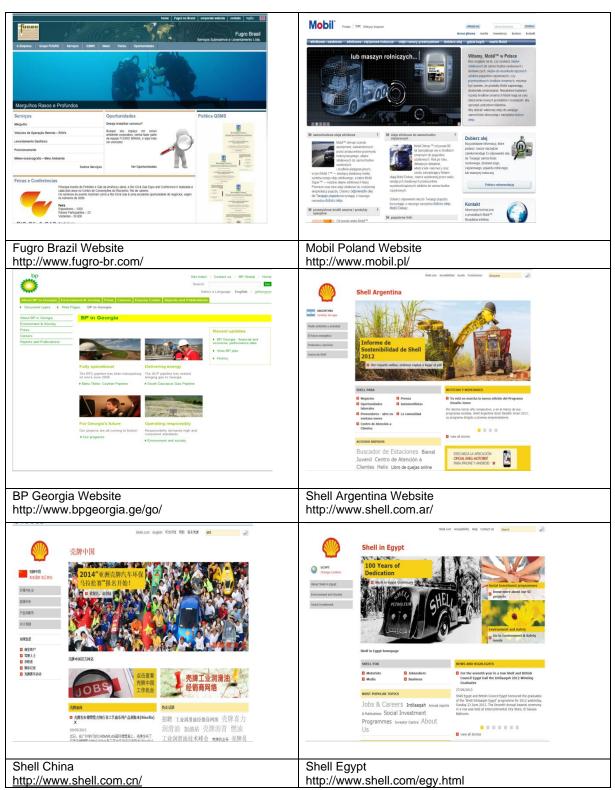


Figure 75: Cross Section of Websites

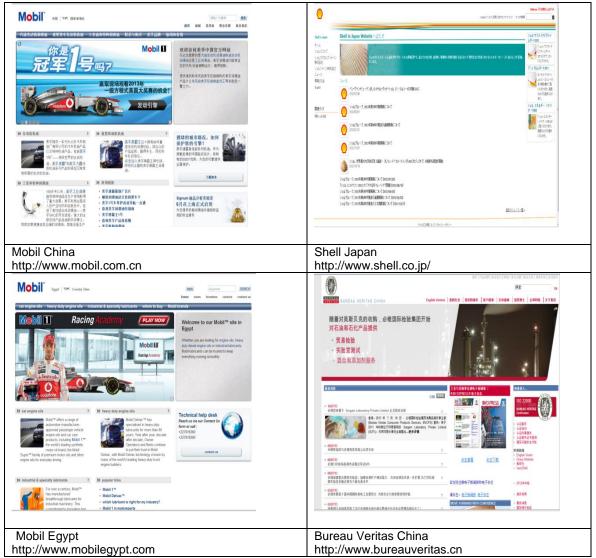


Figure 76: High Context Country Websites

An analysis was carried out on websites from the High Context and Low Context culture category and these included websites from Egypt, China, Japan, France and the United States of America (Figure 76 & 77). These websites had a few prominent colours on the home page and no colour in particular stood out from the rest. On websites of both High Context and Low Context cultures, the colours used on the websites related to the corporate colours rather than a conscious attempt to localise the website's colours to suit the culture.

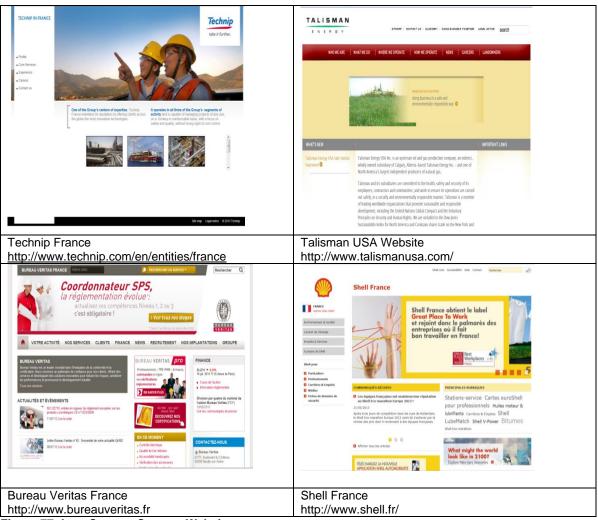


Figure 77: Low Context Country Websites

The findings in this section align with previous studies on colour use on websites (Kim and Kuljis 2010, Chao et al. 2012) which found that the colours used on websites were not culturally customised but were used for different purposes as required by the company. For these companies, the uniform, symbolic branding function of colour takes precedence over others and there is a standardised use of corporate colours across the websites whether in the high or low context country websites. One can therefore conclude that the use of a standardised template and colour scheme indicates that these companies want uniformity in the presentation of their websites. This desire to have a standardised website clearly indicates that the companies still want to be seen as global companies by maintaining their global standards in their colour schemes while maintaining the local nature of the company through the contents of the websites. This is however expected considering the importance of visual identity and corporate image to any company operating at this multinational level. For these companies, communicating with a global audience and having a recognisable colour scheme helps in the promotion and recognition of their business and corporate identity by a global audience.

# 6.7 The Use of Company Logos

According to Shin and Huh (2009 p.289) "even when corporations adopt a localized approach, they still want to maintain a consistent brand image and unique identity across the world". Logos are a means to promote this brand image and to allow consistency among all the websites and can refer to a variety of graphic or typeface elements, ranging from logos that include word marks or stylized letter marks, to logos that include pictorial marks (Henderson and Cote 1998). Most companies spend a lot of money and time on the creation of their company logos and therefore see it as an important design feature on their websites - both locally and globally (Van Riel and Van Den Ban 2001). Logos are instantly recognisable when used in a variety of spheres and can add or make a huge financial impact in any company's promotional activities as well as serve as a symbolic feature on websites (Balmer 1998). Logos generally are a commercial marker of a company's identity and would normally be used to present the image that the company wants the stakeholders to see (Van Riel and Van Den Ban 2001). However, if the logos are the same or standardised throughout all the country specific websites, then the companies are still trying to maintain a global image.

The first analysis was carried out on all the websites to identify how many had the company logos on them. All the country specific websites for each company were analysed in this section and it was identified that over half of the country specific websites had the company logo on them regardless of location while the other half had no representation of a company logo. As for companies like Shell, logos are a major part of their branding and this was demonstrated on their websites. However, some other smaller companies may not have seen the logo as a 'selling' feature on their website on country websites because these logos are not instantly recognisable. The location of the logos on each of the companies differed and was more specific to the design pattern of the company website. The Chevron websites for instance featured the company logo on the left hand corner of each country specific site as can be seen from the Chevron web page listing in Appendix 8. The Fugro and Perenco websites also had the company logo on the top left hand side of each of its country specific websites. For these websites mentioned and even for the websites of the companies that did not use logos on all their websites, the logos were a fixture on all of their websites and was used as a symbol which everyone or most people could identify with.

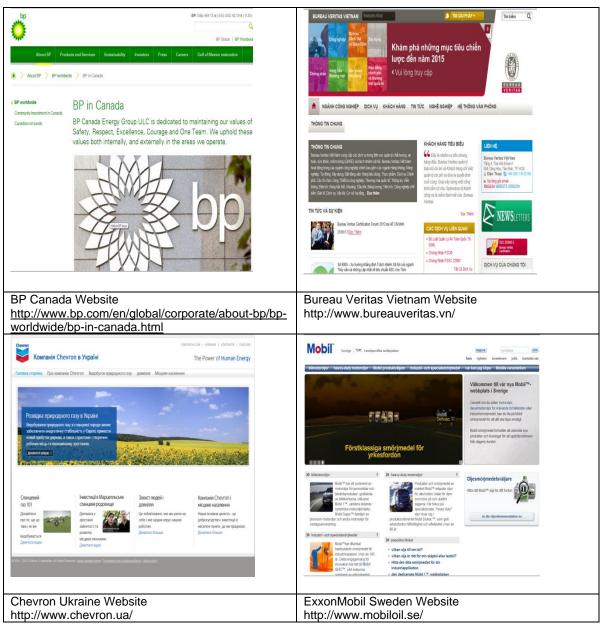


Figure 78: Cross Section of Websites

The second analysis was to identify ways which these companies use their logos on websites. For major multinational companies such as Shell or ExxonMobil, instant recognisability could act as one of the main elements of symbolism present on the websites as their company logos are known globally and are instantly recognisable by any regular user of their products. For a company like BP, for instance, who changed their logo in line with their desire to be known as 'beyond petroleum', a chief element in the semiotics of the brand is how the logo symbolises certain values of the company and also paints a picture of how the company wants to be seen globally. The logos came in different forms ranging from logos which were actual images and some which were a more elaborate representation of the company name. For instance, on the BP website in Figure 78, one can see that a picture of the logo is on the main page alongside a photo of a building and

what looks like an image of the logo on the side of one of BP's office buildings. Therefore apart from demonstrating a global reach through the use of its logo, the company may also be displaying local sensitivity by using the image of an office building that people can identify with locally.

An intriguing discovery while analysing these websites was that some companies translated aspects of their logos to suit the particular country which the website were made for. The logos used on the Lukoil websites for Bulgaria and Belarus for instance had been transliterated to suit the target culture and language. Almost all languages possess a written form and symbols of various kinds are used to represent the language. For instance, while English uses the Roman script, Japanese, Chinese, Russian and Korean use the Cyrillic alphabet (Large and Moukdad 2000). In the analysis, it was identified that some companies had modified the logos on their websites to use the scripts that pertain to the country the websites are made for. Examples are the Lukoil Belarus and Bulgaria websites pictured below where it is presumed that as a Russian company, the logo would originally have been in the Cyrillic alphabet, with the company coming up with a Roman alphabet version when they went global. However, in countries which share the Cyrillic script, the company has retained the original logo which is culturally understood. Also worthy of note is the fact that Lukoil is one of the largest oil companies operating in Bulgaria and currently has most of the petrol stations and a refining presence in the country. This presence in Eastern European countries, together with the importance of having the company name comprehensible in the local language is therefore important.



Figure 79: Lukoil Bulgaria and Belarus Websites

Another example was the Fugro website for Saudi Arabia (Figure 80). As can be seen, the name and logo of the company has been slightly adjusted to tie in with the culture of the target country. Arabic employs a non-Roman Script and is used by "Farsi, Kurdish, Malay and Urdu" (Large and Moukdad 2000 p.50). To present a website that is culturally acceptable and understood by these users, the company decided to use the Arabic script and also to help promote the company's identity as it is fairly new in the area.



Figure 80: Fugro Saudi Arabia Website

In both examples mentioned in this section, simply using the company names as written in the Roman alphabet would not have worked as it does not fit or make sense in the language or the culture of the country the websites were made for. This finding ties in with existing literature by Chan and Huang (1997) who identified that when it comes to brand names, there are limits to standardisation because of the nature of some languages, which because it is so different, companies have to modify the company names in order for it to be understood by the users.

#### 6.8 Representation of Local Content Information

Local content is a huge factor in the Oil and Gas industry in recent times and is very relevant to this research because it is now a legal requirement for operating in some countries. According to Tordo et al (2013), policy makers in these countries are trying to obtain the greatest benefits for their economies from the extraction of these resources by designing policies such as the local content policy. The aim of having a local content policy in place is mainly to extend and expand the benefits of Oil and Gas activities for the national economy (Esteves, Coyne and Moreno 2013). The analysis of website features on this site therefore identified instances where this concept of local content was demonstrated. The main focus was on how companies have demonstrated their activities to improve the lives of the local population in the areas they operate specifically relating to the regulatory local content requirements.

A company that demonstrates distinctly the implementation of local content requirements on their websites is the Shell country website for Qatar. As discussed earlier in this section, there is a lot of pressure on Oil and Gas companies to localise their activities, to employ local staff and to demonstrate their achievements in the country in which they want to do business. As seen in Figure 81, the Shell Qatar website has a separate section for what it calls 'qatarization'. Although this research was carried out on only the country home pages, it was important to click further to understand what the company was trying to represent in this section. As the name 'qatarization' implies, this section led to a full page displaying what the company's current development activities are in Qatar and what the company has put in place to train local staff. For Oil and Gas companies to operate in certain countries such as Qatar, there is a need for the local content requirements to be met and this explains why the company has put a lot of emphasis on displaying this on their website. However, it was ironical that despite the emphasis on trying to make things more localised; this website was presented in English rather than in Arabic.

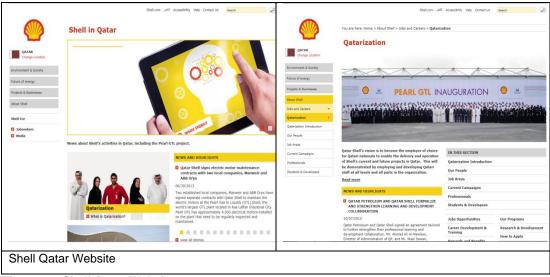


Figure 81: Shell Qatar Website

# 6.9 Representation of Achievements in Local Area

The analysis of the websites identified that the companies are divided between representing their companies as having a global reach and representing themselves as being locally sensitive. On the local front, the company's activities and achievements in each area were represented on the country specific websites. This included the representation of new offices that the companies have started up, fundraising events, and

the number of people who have been employed by the company in the area. The hypothesis here was that companies which have represented their activities in each specific location on the country website had carried out a limited level of localisation. Another reason for trying to represent local achievements on country websites could be that these companies were aware of having an image problem, that is, that they are being perceived as a global oil company which comes into a country and exploits the resources, possibly creating problems for the country e.g. in the case of Shell in the Niger Delta. By demonstrating the company's achievement in each location, the companies were letting the target users feel like the company identifies with them and is contributing to improve their lives and communities. Oil and Gas companies are particularly sensitive to this now especially with some countries like Nigeria, Angola and Norway insisting on 'local content' and requesting that companies demonstrate what they have done in their country and the strategies they have employed to improve the lives of its citizens. In this section, all the country specific websites were again looked at individually for evidence of representation of company's achievements.

The examples in Figure 82 demonstrate how these companies have represented their local achievements and the work that they are carrying out in the local areas. The Shell Ireland website for instance highlights the Corrib gas project which is currently taking place in Ireland and provides information to the locales on the project and what is involved. The BP Norway website also highlights what it has been doing in Norway, the welcome text on the Norway website reads 'BP's investment in Norway continues to grow. Through new offshore projects and by extending the life of existing fields BP's plans reach out to 2050". This type of content on websites is more informative as the company was mainly trying to let the locals know the activities of the company, what the company's current strategy is and what their long term plans are for the community. The ConocoPhillips website for China highlights what it has done in the local community via different links to news stories on the main country page. An example is the news link with the heading 'ConocoPhillips commits RMB 1.5 million to support Sichuan earthquake recovery efforts' along with other news stories showing the organisational changes that are taking place within the company. The second type of content identified on their websites was more promotional based and more likely linked to CSR. In this way, the company is providing both promotional and informative news stories to the locales in order to present a positive image and reputation to the local website users.

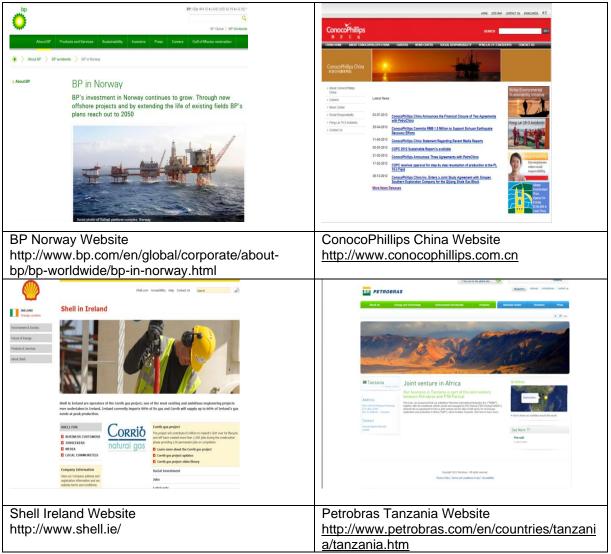


Figure 82: Cross Section of BP, Conoco, Shell and Petrobras Websites

The findings revealed that the representation of news stories on the website is not limited to a particular region or set of countries but seemed to be a strategy to promote the company's activities in each location. In line with findings from this research, some areas got more attention than others and not all the websites featured local news stories. However, even 'basic' websites like the Shell Gabon website which had no images or pictures, had information on the company's activities in Gabon. This could mean that to this company, appearing to be local is an important factor to how they do business in that environment and being perceived as local in that country is important. In terms of the localisation hierarchy identified in this research, although such countries are fairly 'low' in the hierarchy for localisation (as measured, for instance, by the fact that they only have a 'basic' website), they are quite 'high' in the local sensitivity hierarchy, because, presumably, if their reputation in these countries is bad, it may not be possible for them to operate there. These companies therefore have the need to pass on as much information

as possible to the locals about their activities in the county in order to create a positive image.

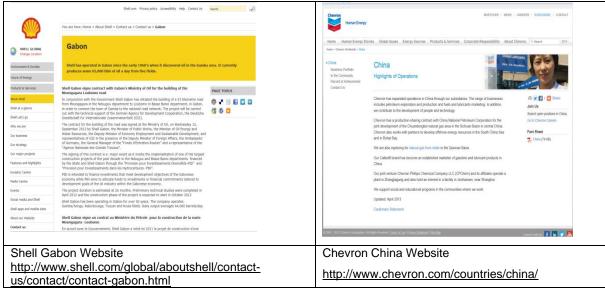


Figure 83: Shell Gabon and Chevron China Websites

In terms of the theory of the hierarchy of localisation identified in this research, the number of companies outlining their activities in that country or region outweigh by a large margin the number that do not outline their activities in the region. Representing the work a company has carried out in a particular country or area on the company's website is a way of showing the local community that it is helping and adding value to their lives. Also, due to the negative image and notion of insensitivity that these companies have in some countries, the companies want to show that they are sensitive to the environments they operate, that they are taking measures to improve the community or country as a whole and they also want to show themselves as being locally sensitive by demonstrating an affiliation to the local people on the company web pages.

#### 6.10 Local Promotions

The analysis on all the country websites focused on promotions that are particular to the target country and promotions entered into with other companies which were only specific to the target country. An example is the OMV Group website for Hungary which highlights a promotion that the company is offering whereby, any one purchasing a particular product gets a bottle of Red Bull. The Shell Luxembourg website also highlighted an offer which was on for every customer to receive a bottle of Coke. These offers related directly to the marketing and sales of petrol products.

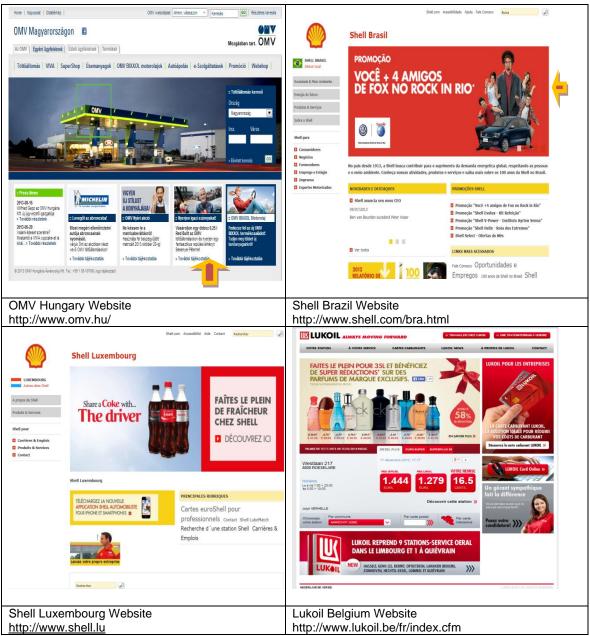


Figure 84: Cross Section of Shell, Lukoil and OMV Group Websites

It was identified that for companies such as Shell and OMV Group, the promotions on the country specific page were particular to people in the target country, which demonstrates that the company's promotional activities are targeted. Another example was the Lukoil website for Belgium where there were promotional offers for Calvin Klein perfumes on purchase of Lukoil products. This is however in line with marketing principles as according to research carried out by Shneor (2012 p. 356), "firms may develop sufficient familiarity with the local culture to be able to adapt its marketing practices and communications to local needs" and this proved to be no different when it comes to localisation of websites.

# 6.11 Sponsorship of Local Events

The analysis in this section was to identify how the companies represented the work they had carried out in target areas on their websites, ranging from sponsorship of events in the local area and sponsorship of educational activities. It was identified that most of the companies represented specific promotion events carried out locally, whether through images or textual content on their websites. A distinct observation was that most of the sponsorship events organised by these companies were centred on sporting activities and events which introduce the subject of corporate sport sponsorship. Global sport sponsorship has been defined by Amis and Cornwell (2005 p.2) "as an investment in an individual, event, team or organization with the expectation of achieving certain corporate objectives in multiple countries". According to Amis and Cornwell (2005 p.2), Sport sponsorship has "been used, among other things, as a perceived mechanism for overcoming some cultural and linguistic barriers, providing direct access to local media, and providing corporate hospitality opportunities". This gives a background and provides the rationale behind the choice of the Oil and Gas sector. It can be seen that although most of this research which these authors refer to or which are used as the background of their study are in the retail industry, their findings relate to the Oil and Gas industry.

Sports has a 'glocal' symbolism in that, on one hand, motor sports, for instance, are global in significance - they are carried out everywhere and are associated with global brands and companies. On the other hand, they are local as they are also played by national teams or individuals with national affiliations therefore representing a good example of 'glocal' symbolism. Motor sport can therefore be said to be the 'ideal' type of 'glocal' symbolism for the Oil and Gas industry as not only is sports played around the world, it also has symbolic associations with an elite product – cars. Apart from this, motor cars as a symbol in the Oil and Gas industry, combine technical elements such as engineering and also use a product of the Oil and Gas industry – petrol/oil for its operations.

The fact that Oil and Gas companies primarily provide sponsorship of sporting activities and competitions might also serve to explain the reasoning behind why most of the celebrities used on the company websites are from the sporting industry (motor racing to be precise). According to Amis and Cornwell (2005 p.2), "sport has been lauded by practitioners and scholars for its ability to both transcend national borders and achieve local resonance". This is because of its ability to transcend both the local and global cultural spheres. These companies have seemingly capitalised on this symbolism of the

sporting industry and used it to penetrate the local markets and to give a sense of being locally relevant. The choice of the sporting industry could also be because the industry "represents one of the most significant remaining institutional sites for popular cultural recognition and acclaim of exceptional performance and prowess, if not the most prominent context in which the deeds of participants continue to retain authenticity" (Smart 2005 p.9).

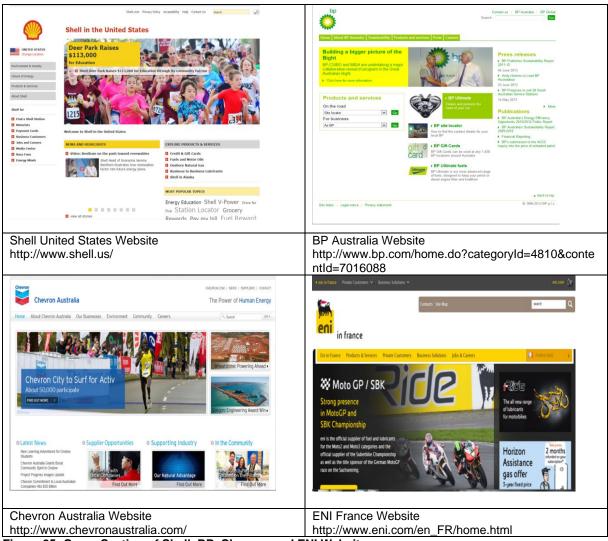


Figure 85: Cross Section of Shell, BP, Chevron and ENI Websites

The most significant point of Smart's (2005) theory on the sporting industry is the element of popular culture; sport is the 'crossover' between the world of science and engineering which they inhabit and popular culture. The other element is that of exceptional performance and prowess which stands as a sort of metaphor for the activities in the Oil and Gas industry. This notion of credibility, i.e. trying to improve their image through associating with popular culture is another subject on which these companies are capitalising on. That is, by using celebrities that are known, convincing and believable on

their websites will in turn make the local people have more confidence in them. The crossover by these companies to popular culture could also have the function of 'softening' the perceived 'hard' image of oil and gas companies in the minds of people. This hard image has been as a result of the perceived insensitivity by the companies towards the local environments and populace due to environmental issues that have been associated with the operations in the Oil and Gas industry. These companies are therefore trying to soften this image by using symbolisms on their websites that the local populace can identify with.

#### 6.12 The Use of Animations or Multimedia on Websites

Most multinational companies in the current market tend to use animations or slide shows (multimedia) on their websites in order to create the effect of a human presence on the websites. According to Würtz (2006 p. 283), "these effects—such as multimedia, flash animations, and interactive functions—have the potential to provide a sense of human representation or interaction", in other words, give them a human image/face. An analysis was carried out on all the websites studied to determine the extent to which multimedia is used on country specific websites and the images contained on the websites.

The first observation was that, as opposed to websites in the retail industry which predominantly feature animations, companies in the oil and gas industry seem to be reluctant in their desire to use animations on their websites. This could be because the use of animations by large multinational companies may be perceived by users as being unserious and unprofessional. This is exactly what the Oil and Gas industry is trying to move away from because, as explained previously, they are trying to soften their corporate image and to present a positive image rather than being portrayed as being locally insensitive. What was noticeable also is that most of these companies have instead adapted the use of slide shows on their websites and in so doing, showcase several things that are happening within the companies. Another observation was that visual identity and style were more important and the images were more focused on trying to standardise the way the websites look rather than trying to tailor it to suit a particular culture. The images are focused on the business and its people, they highlight what the company has achieved, construction work that is currently being carried out, the company's successes over the years, work sites (rigs and equipment) and office work environments. An example is seen in Figure 86:

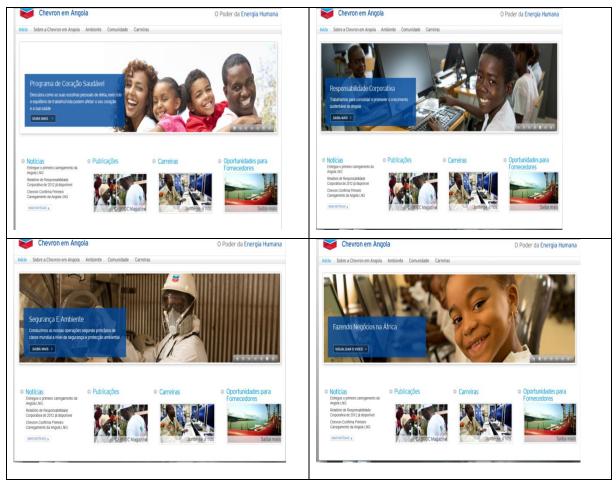


Figure 86: Chevron Angola Websites (http://www.chevroninangola.com/)

While some companies had a lot of animations on most of their country websites, other exceptions to this trend were the websites with little or no multimedia images on them. ExxonMobil for instance had only one website with multimedia images on it which was the website for China. The others were just standard web pages without any multi media images. Although the country website for ExxonMobil China is in Chinese, there are a few multimedia slideshows centred on the signifiers associated with China and the products that Mobil as a company offer.

## 6.13 Representation of Managerial Expertise

In this section, the researcher has carried out a detailed analysis of the websites to determine the extent to which managerial and more senior people within the company are represented. The analysis in this section provided a background for understanding the instances of formality and informality within these companies. It also provided an understanding of the kind of people that are represented on these company websites and if there are any significant patterns of the representation of certain kinds of images. The analysis was carried out on two levels. Firstly, the websites were divided into high and low context country websites according to Edward Hall's analysis for a better understanding of the cultures which they belong to. The second level of analysis was carried out using Geert Hofstede's theory of High and Low Power Distance. According to Singh (2002 p. 43), Societies high with Power Distance e.g. Egypt, India and Nigeria, accept power differentials and hierarchy in the society and are low on egalitarianism. They would therefore be expected to have more representations of managers on their websites or messages from the Managers or CEO's as these represent figures of authority.

All the websites were analysed to identify which ones had a message from the CEO or Senior Manager on the company's home page. The analysis identified that only a very small percentage had a manager or a message from a manager on the websites, be it global or local. The first example seen in Figure 87 below is the ConocoPhillips Russia website which has a message from the company's President for the Russia and Caspian Region on its home page. Although not Russian, this individual is definitely the most important person in the company for that region and therefore an element of high power distance is observed. The exception to the 'no managers' principle seems to be that they do want to portray individuals who are responsible for their operations in those areas – whether they are 'locals' or not. This is a display of another element of the 'local sensitivity' image they are trying to portray by showing named individuals in the belief that the locals do not take them to be faceless corporations with no one to hold accountable locally if anything goes wrong. Not representing a local manager on the websites shows that there is not a significant level of power control demonstrated on these websites.

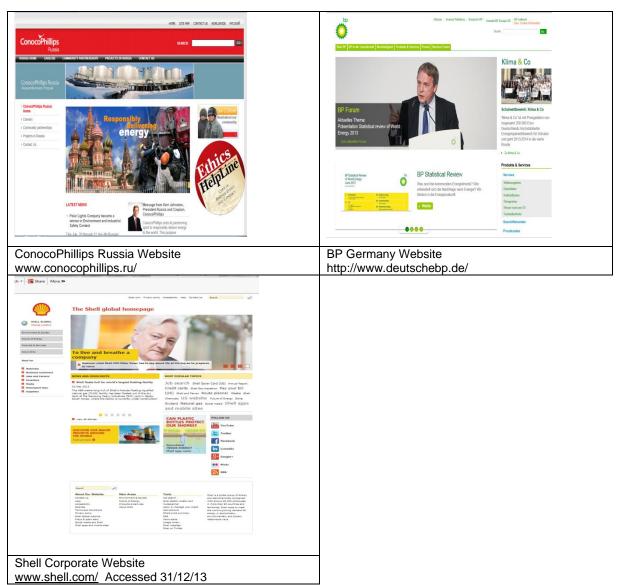


Figure 87: Cross Section of Conoco, BP and Shell Websites

When the initial analysis of these websites was carried out, Shell had no representation of a Manager or a CEO on their websites. However, by the end of December 2013 when further analysis was being carried out, Shell now had a message by the company's CEO on their website describing his experiences as CEO and his plans for retirement – this gives a 'human' perspective. This goes a long way to demonstrate the changing faces of these websites and also shows the difficulty sometimes in classifying them in groups as the images and contents of their websites change depending on what is happening within the company at any given time. This also shows that the decision by Shell to move from having no manager representation to having a manager representation and message on their website might indicate that they are aware of an 'image problem' that they need to overcome.

## 6.14 Representation of Technical Expertise

An analysis was carried out on all the country specific websites to understand how these Oil and Gas companies represent their expertise on their country specific websites. As a major reason for having websites is for promotional reasons; these companies used their websites to promote elements of their technical expertise. Oil and Gas companies want to be perceived as being technical experts in the field and in turn, make it easier for the users to trust them and their products. This is because expertise is an important factor in most, if not all Oil and Gas operations around the world. As a result of the events such as the Deepwater Horizon disaster in 2010 and other disastrous events which have occurred due to activities of the Oil and Gas industry, these companies now want to reinforce their expertise in the eyes of the local public by representing this on their websites. This is particularly because local populations have now become more aware of the dangerous nature of some of the activities carried out in this industry. Expertise can be represented through various ways such as client recommendations, the representation of their equipment and products, the representation of experienced people on their websites and many more. As far as this research is concerned, the discourse of 'expertise' has two main sides - the people side which is communicated by the representation of employees on their websites and the equipment side which is represented by the use of images of specialist equipment on their websites. This research focuses on these two main sides of the representation of expertise.

The analysis revealed that these Oil and Gas companies mainly used their employees on the company websites to represent or show that they are experts in what they do. The websites studied featured images of employees either in groups or working alone particularly on work sites. Out of all the websites studied in this section, over 90% of the websites featured employees of the companies. These employees were mainly featured on work sites, that is, employees on rigs, carrying out work activities in the workshop and with slogans that indicated that the employees were happy and experts in what they were doing. This shows that these companies are more focused on using their staff to demonstrate their relevance to the local community. Some examples can be seen in Figure 88.

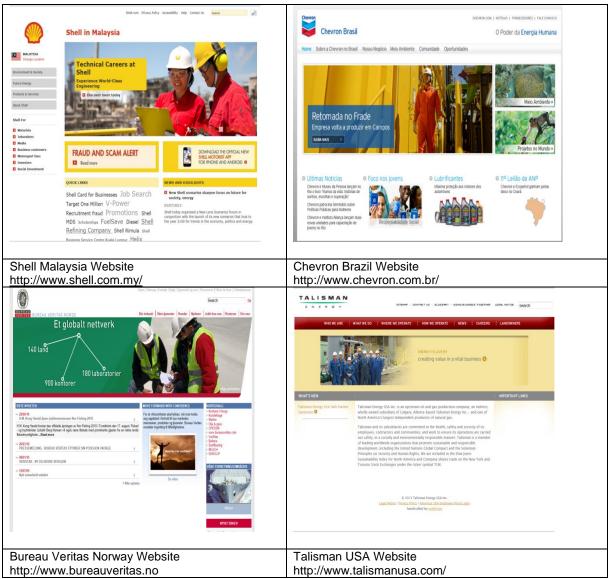


Figure 88: Cross Section of Talisman, Bureau Veritas, Shell and Chevron Websites

The representation of employees mostly on the work sites also shows hardworking happy employees which gives the feeling that the company is a great place to work. The pictures of employees on the home page gives the impression of employees who are dedicated and committed to carrying out their jobs effectively and safely. This ties in with what was explained earlier on in this section that following catastrophic events such as the Deepwater Horizon blowout and the BP Macondo well blowout, Oil and Gas companies now have a greater need to reassure the local public about the expertise of their employees. Therefore, there seemed to be more representation of informality by representing happy and dedicated employees than formality by representing managers or people with a high standing within the company. In other words, the companies see the need to show themselves as being corporately responsible by using more images of 'expert' personnel on their websites.

The second section of the analysis identified that a lot of the company's country specific websites used images of work sites (pipelines, oil rigs, etc.), drilling rigs and their equipment on their website. These are signifiers that are particular to the Oil and Gas industry and the message these companies are trying to pass on to the website users is that they are an experienced company and have a good track record on the technical side of the business. The companies are also using these signifiers on their websites as a reminder of the company's activities and products. Although most of the companies studied had images with one or more of these signifiers on their websites, there were a few exceptions with no technical representation or signifiers on their country home page. An example of this is the main website for ENI which did not feature any work site.

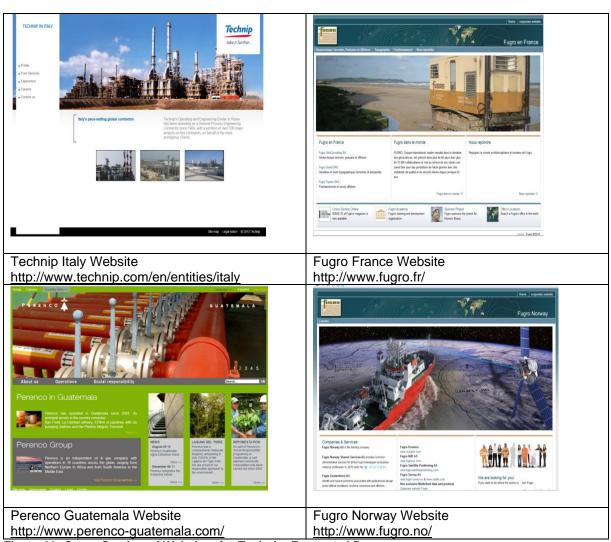


Figure 89: Cross Section of Websites for Technip, Fugro and Perenco

## 6.15 The Use of Celebrities/ Celebrity Endorsements

Another noticeable feature on the websites was the use of celebrities to represent both the local and the global. Celebrity endorsement involves the use of "famous actors, singers, models, sports starts or comedians to create a positive image for a company or its products through association with their image" (De Mooij 1998 in Okazaki 2004 p. 85). Celebrity culture has become very prevalent in the world today and according to Ellis (2006 p.165), companies use these celebrities as they are "instantly recognisable" and therefore companies are ready to pay these celebrities "to entice others". This celebrity culture is particularly popular in the cosmetic and body care industry and the retail food and drink industry. Although one might say that celebrity culture is now associated with many areas with which it might previously not have been thought to be associated with such as politics and education, certain companies from the websites studied had celebrities as a permanent fixture on their websites. According to Ellis (2006 p.167), "advertisers flock to celebrities in an effort to maximize their market share" and this could be the justification for Oil and Gas companies now choosing to follow this route. Another explanation could be that, as a result of the prevalence of the modern or popular culture in today's companies, this could be an opportunity for these companies to give the notion of being local by using local celebrities while advertising their services on their websites. It was therefore interesting in this research to find out how celebrities were used, which areas of celebrity (e.g. sport) are used, and for what semiotic purposes they were used. The analysis was also to identify if celebrities were used on all the company websites, only some specific ones or in specific countries.

Out of the sixteen companies studied, only three companies - Chevron (1), ExxonMobil (5) and OMV Group (1) had one or more instances of celebrity representation on their websites. The country websites with the most representation of celebrities were Egypt, Indonesia and Turkey, all of which are countries in the High Context culture. The use of these celebrities could either be to draw a global audience by using a global celebrity, or to draw a local audience by using celebrities that are best known locally or in that part of the world rather than celebrities who are known internationally. This research identified from the analysis that nearly all the celebrities used were global celebrities who are well known worldwide. This was the case for all the websites studied except on the OMV Group website for Slovakia pictured in Figure 91. This is discussed later on in this section.

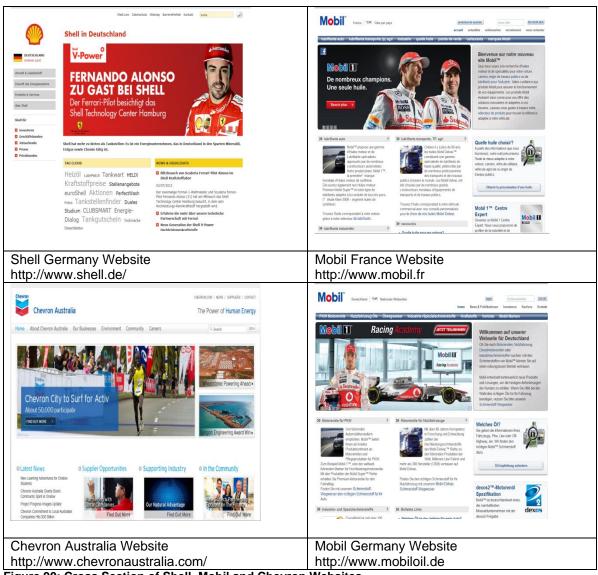


Figure 90: Cross Section of Shell, Mobil and Chevron Websites

A distinct observation was that all the celebrities used on the websites are from the sporting industry with the majority being from the motor racing sector or industry. The events featured on these websites were also significantly sports events which were sponsored by the company. In this case, one can argue that the images of these events on their websites are not only used as a promotional tool, they are also used to reflect the fact that they associate themselves with the local. In other words, these celebrities were shown using cars that have been fuelled using petrol or diesel from these Oil and Gas companies or have been serviced with car engine oil from these companies. The use of rally drivers in almost all the instances where there is the use of celebrities and car racing is symbolic and shows that these companies are gradually incorporating elements of popular culture such as celebrity culture, cars and sports that relate to them and their business. In this way, the companies literally achieve two things by using celebrities on their websites which are firstly, to stay current and relevant in the market and secondly, to advertise their products.

It is distinctive however, that the website for Shell Germany seen in Figure 90 features Fernando Alonso who is a Spanish Formula One Champion while the website for Mobil Egypt also features other Formula One drivers. Apart from the fact that Formula 1 drivers are global celebrities and most often than not instantly recognisable by the public, these images are also used to promote their efforts to stay relevant to the target audience and the target culture. It must also be pointed out that of all the companies studied, the use of celebrities was found to be more prevalent among the 'operator' Oil and Gas companies who are into the exploration and production of oil rather than the smaller service companies who maybe do not have enough money to pay to feature the celebrities on their websites or do not provide services or products that can be readily or easily advertised by these celebrities. Another reason could be that the operators actually produce oil and can therefore advertise it as their product while the service companies do not have such claims to ownership of oil and would not be in a position to pay these rally drivers to advertise the oil or fuel they use. The exception in the use of rally driver celebrities would be if they were used for another purpose on the service company websites.

All the celebrities used on these websites were global celebrities with the exception of the OMV Group website for Slovakia which features a local professional Slovak tennis champion Lukas Lacko currently ranked no. 44 in the world. He is not known globally compared to Alonso, who is instantly recognisable, however OMV Group's main activities are in the Eastern and Central European region where Lacko is most likely more relevant. Using his image on this website might therefore be more appealing to the users in this region and present an image of being more local and relevant to the target culture. In this way the users can easily identify with the company, the celebrity and the company's products. In this one example, the company is proving to be local by using local celebrities.



Figure 91: OMV Group Slovakia Website

## 6.16 Gender Representation on Websites

Diversity "is about promoting equality in society in general and in the workplace in particular" and includes "different genders, age groups, ethnic origins, physical appearance, educational background, parental status, religious beliefs, sexual orientation and work style. It should produce equality of opportunity, better working conditions and labour relations, thus achieving enhanced productivity and work performance, with increased staff motivation and employee involvement" (Hurn and Tomalin 2013 p. 195). The issue of diversity particularly in the Oil and Gas industry has been a topic of quite a lot of research in recent times with the focus being on gender diversity in most companies. According to McKinsey & Company's 2013 report, the Oil and Gas industry has seen its own fair share of gender imbalance in the number of women versus men working in the sector and this has impacted on company performance in the Oil and Gas sector.

A number of reasons have been attributed for this gender imbalance, with the main assumption being attributed to physical strength and capability where the women have been assumed, as is traditionally believed of perceived, not to have the same physical capabilities as men, which is not necessarily true. Another reason for this gender imbalance has been the lack of knowledge by women of opportunities that are available in the industry. When it comes to opportunities in the Oil and Gas industry, according to Marcellin (2013), a lack of career guidance and awareness regarding possible roles for women, along with the perception of the oil and gas industry being harsh, lonely and maledominated, has meant the industry has struggled to attract women into its workforce. Faulkner (2007) also adds that women engineers, for instance, always need to find ways to distinguish themselves in order to succeed in the oil and gas industry compared to their male counterparts. This therefore indicates that this is not the easiest industry for a woman to operate in.

The gender roles in the Oil and Gas industry have been largely split indicating a tendency towards the male gender dominating the engineering and more physically demanding jobs such as offshore welding and the women taking on more administrative, marketing and commercial roles within companies in the industry. In 2013, the Multinational Company, BP, carried out a study on 3,000 Oil and Gas professionals to examine the perception of female representation in the industry. While 72% of respondents believed that the Oil and Gas industry still remains male dominated, 13% disagreed that it is still a male dominated industry. The study also identified that 10% of those interviewed believed neither and 5%

simply did not know. When asked also if gender based discrimination was common within the industry, 20% strongly agreed that it was while 12% disagreed strongly.

According to a 2007 study carried out by the Office of National Statistics in the United Kingdom, female workers made up only 4% of the workforce in the sector and were therefore hugely underrepresented in the industry. This number has somewhat improved over the years with companies in the United Kingdom making a more concerted effort to have an increased representation of women in their workforce. A study carried out on Australian women in the Oil and Gas sector by McGrath and Marinelli (2012) also revealed that only 13% of workers in the Australian Oil and Gas industry were women. United Kingdom and Scandinavian politicians have driven the move to increase the number of female representation on corporate and public sector boards. The governments of both Norway and Sweden have also instigated threats of affirmative action if companies do not appoint more women to executive and supervisory boards (Point and Singh 2003 p.757) by instituting policies to ensure women are appointed. According to McGrath and Marinelli (2012), Norway and Canada have well established Oil and Gas industries and therefore have a greater participation of women in the sector compared to other countries. This drive by the Norwegian and Canadian governments has been translated to an increase in the representation of women in Oil and Gas companies in these countries. Countries like Denmark, Norway and Sweden also have some more formal gender equality legislations which make it easier for women to be represented in the public sphere. According to the United Nation's Development Programme's gender equality index, Denmark as at 2013 had a HDI rank of 5, Norway a HDI rank of 9 and Sweden a rank of 4. Whereas, countries like India and other Middle Eastern countries have no gender equality measures and would not score highly on gender equality which explains why Saudi Arabia for instance on the UN index ranks 56 and United Arab Emirates scores 43.

Research such as that carried out by Barnett (2013) on people's perception of women working in the Oil and Gas industry has identified that companies will have to be responsible for this culture change in the industry. This view has also been supported by other researchers in this area. Companies in this sector have now begun to carry out projects to encourage diversity management and most of these have been aimed specifically at young girls to encourage them to pick up an interest in engineering and Oil and Gas related subjects (McGrath and Marinelli 2012). Some companies now believe that by representing the fact that they have a diverse range of employees, they are also reflecting the diversity of their company and thus developing better customer and supplier relationships. This could lead to improved financial performance for the company (Point

and Singh 2005). According to Point and Singh (2003 p.753), "as diversity management is adopted by companies, they often start to promote their new strategies in their corporate literature, and more recently, on their corporate websites". To understand the notion of gender balance or imbalance as reflected on their websites, this analysis was carried out in three parts. The first part was to gain an understanding of the level of female representation on the Oil and Gas websites in general, the second analysis was more specific to each company to see which of them showed a high or low level gender balance on their websites and the third was more focused on the high and low context cultures to see how women were represented in each of these culture categorisations on the company websites.

To carry out the initial analysis, the researcher identified that the way that diversity is represented on company websites can be influenced by issues such as the national culture of the location where the company operates. Gender diversity is represented differently in each culture and even on the websites, while some favour the use of people, some do not. In some cultures, women are allowed to, not necessarily encouraged to, participate in business activities, in others they only play a small role in business activities but are more accepted in political positions (Spinks and Wells 1997 p.289). What is also considered commonplace in some cultures could be considered as gender discrimination or sexual harassment in other cultures (Spinks and Wells 1997 p.289). For example in Arabic and some Jewish cultures, the use of pictures of men, women, and animals is discouraged (Singh and Baack 2004). As Hofstede does not measure gender equality in his culture framework, this section of the research was analysed using the GLOBE dimension of gender egalitarianism which fits into the objectives of this research and provided a good picture of how women were presented in the Oil and Gas industry. It also provided an understanding of how the companies are dealing with gender roles. In terms of image representations, this research sought to understand to what degree companies represent themselves with images of different genders in societies where there is little formal gender equality and the role that the choice of gender plays on these Oil and Gas websites.

The preliminary analysis was carried out to identify how the genders were represented on each company's main corporate websites. The main focus in this section was the percentage of male to female representation on each of these Oil and Gas websites and the focus was only on the main corporate page. It was expected that culture would play a huge factor on the representation of either the male and female gender on these company websites. In high context countries, in particular, Muslim countries, it was expected that

websites would not show representations of women in certain jobs because gender equality in these jobs were not accepted there. The use of masculine representations is mostly favoured in the countries classed by Hall as high context, that is, Asian countries and some countries in Africa. This is because masculine figures are seen to command more respect from others. Some other high context cultures include Nigeria, Japan and China.

Company	Dot.com link	Male	Female	Both	None
Name				(Groups)	
BP	www.bp.com	Х			
Bureau Veritas	www.bureauveritas.com				Х
Chevron	www.chevron.com	Х			
ConocoPhillips	www.conocophillips.com			Х	
Dong Energy	www.dongenergy.com				Х
ENI	www.eni.it				X
ExxonMobil	www.exxonmobil.com	Х			
Fugro	www.fugro.com	Х			
Lukoil	www.lukoil.com				X
OMV Group	www.omv.com			Х	
Perenco	www.perenco.com			Х	
Petrobras	www.petrobras.com			Х	
RPS Group	www.rpsgroup.com				Х
Shell	www.shell.com	Х	Х	Х	
Talisman	www.talisman-energy.com	Х			
Technip	www.technip.com			Х	

Figure 92: Breakdown of Gender Representation on Websites

The different companies represented gender in various ways on their websites. While some had no gender at all represented on their websites, the majority had male workers featured and as can be seen in Figure 92, there was actually no single representation of a female alone whether employee or not on any of the corporate websites studied. This finding is quite surprising considering that existing research, as discussed in the previous section, identified that the desire of some of these countries where Oil and Gas is predominant, is to reflect their desire to have more women working for them. What this shows is that there might be a discrepancy between the professed desire of the industry to introduce more gender equality and the actual representation of genders on most of the corporate websites.

ExxonMobil and BP featured male employees who were dressed in formal work attire. On the ExxonMobil website, the worker was speaking about HSE issues in the company while on the BP website, the Head of Exploration in the company was featured. BP have indicated on their website www.bp.com that they currently have the highest number of women in management more than previous years, at about 27% of its employees, and are working towards a goal of 25% of group leaders and 30% of senior level leaders to be women by 2020. This plan however does not tie in with what is represented on their corporate website. The Chevron corporate website also featured a single male offshore worker with full offshore gear. Some of the other companies like Conoco went for the representation of groups of people on their websites and this included both the male and female gender in protective offshore gear. They also represented groups of children on their websites. Another corporate website which followed in this pattern was the corporate website for OMV Group which featured two sets of two men each all in offshore protective gear and also a group of children on their website. The Technip corporate website also featured a group of male and female employees, not in work clothes but more in a playful mode.

As this is not a comparison of previous and current representations on the websites, it is difficult to know if these images have changed at all over the years due to the changes in legislation and effort by these companies to balance the gender inequality or if the websites have stayed the same regardless of these initiatives. The conclusions are based on the findings on what was present on the websites at the time of analysis. One other intriguing finding in the analysis was that almost all of the images of both male and female gender representation on these websites featured people in their work clothing apart from the corporate website for Technip. Unfortunately, dominating their websites with mostly images of men does not serve to soften the image of the Oil and Gas industry as being a male dominated environment. It actually supports what the current research findings are in this area. In summary, one can see that the male gender still has a dominant representation on Oil and Gas websites. The symbolism in gender is also apparent and the predominant representation of men may compound the problem in the oil industry, which is that women may feel symbolically excluded from the industry The negative symbolism of this is that in countries where there are more formal gender equality policies like the United Kingdom and Norway, one would expect these companies to have more representation of women and that is not necessarily happening and may not augur well for the companies in these areas.

It can be seen from the evidence of the representations of the genders, that there was no variation in representation of women across cultures – in other words if one would have expected more representation of women in a high gender equality culture, there is no evidence of this. Likewise, there is no evidence that in a low gender equality culture there are fewer representations, as there are few in any case. What was actually evident on these websites was the fact that the companies seemed to prefer to use the male gender on their websites. Almost half of the company corporate websites chose to be neutral by representing both female and male characters on their websites. In this way, one can say that they are promoting the idea that they support gender equality or are supportive of both sexes. However, the conclusion shows an imbalance in the way both genders are portrayed.

# 6.17 Culturally Relevant Images and Symbols

Understanding cultural sensitivity on the websites was important to know the extent of localisation as specific images and symbols are a significant feature of many cultures. Symbols "are specific to a particular culture and are important only to those who are part of the culture" (Hurn and Tomalin 2013 p.41) and are therefore something that people of a particular culture can relate to. This includes images relative to national architecture employed on websites (such as houses, public buildings and churches) and website features that are prevalent, and possibly preferred, within a particular cultural group, such as a national symbols, colour, pictures, layout, symbols or icons reflecting the local culture (Barber and Badre 1998). In an ideal situation, these cultural markers would usually be modified to suit the target culture and this research tried to identify elements of these and whether they were evident or not on these websites. According to Singh (2002 p.43), "country-specific symbols include anything that portrays a way of life or culturally specific knowledge". This therefore means that to represent the local on their website, the cultural markers (that is symbols and images) used on these websites would usually be markers that are relative to the target location. From the examples in Figure 93, one can see that the companies have used images that are particular to the culture and to which people from that region can easily relate. This is a typical example of how companies can be seen as sensitive to the environment in which they operate and the people they are targeting to do business with. In so doing, these companies are presenting themselves as being localised.

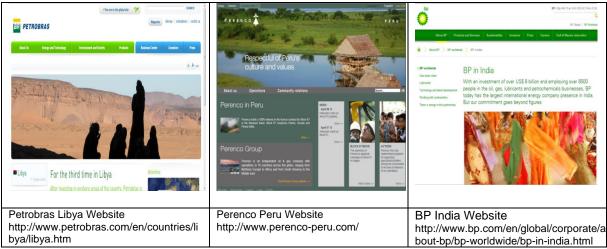


Figure 93: Cross Section of Petrobras, Perenco and BP Websites

### 6.18 The Use of National Flags to Represent the Local

Flags are a very important symbol of national identity and can be used as a singular cultural symbol which anyone can use to identify with a particular country. Cultural symbols on websites such as flags were used quite frequently on these websites to identify with the local population or community. The degree of prominence on each website varied but was consistent across each group of company websites. Not all the company websites studied used flags as a cultural symbol and not all those who used flags used them on all of their websites. The websites for ExxonMobil, BP and Dong Energy for instance featured no flags used to represent the local instead the focus on these websites were on other local cultural markers as earlier explained in this research. On the websites mentioned above which featured flags, one could see that the companies represented an element of local information on the websites such as the local people and local news stories.

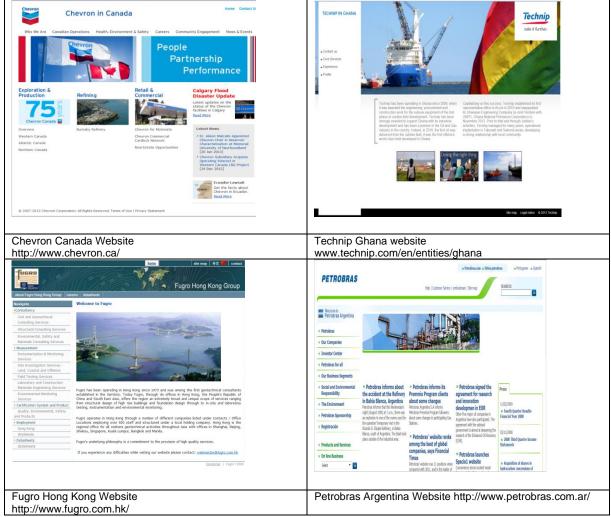


Figure 94: Cross Section of Fugro, Technip and Petrobras Websites

Some other groups of websites such as the websites for Fugro, seemed to feature flags only for translation purposes and not necessarily for the purposes of identifying with the local community. The flags on the pages were very tiny and were only used at the point where one could click to change the language. The flags had more of a functional purpose whereby they were used more or less like a screen icon which indicated where users can click to go through to the web page in their local language rather than an iconic purpose of representing the local. Also, as the flags were only a link to go into a local website, one can argue that they were not really symbolic of the local but a part of the function of the website. However, on the flip side, it can also be argued that they were local iconic signifiers as they were easily identifiable by the local users in these countries. The flags in this group were also mainly featured on the company websites for Brazil and some Asian country websites (Japan, Hong Kong and China). It looks somewhat obvious that this is simply for translation purposes as where the flag is situated is the same place where any user needs to use to change the language. Shell and Petrobras on the other hand featured flags for each specific country on all their country websites.

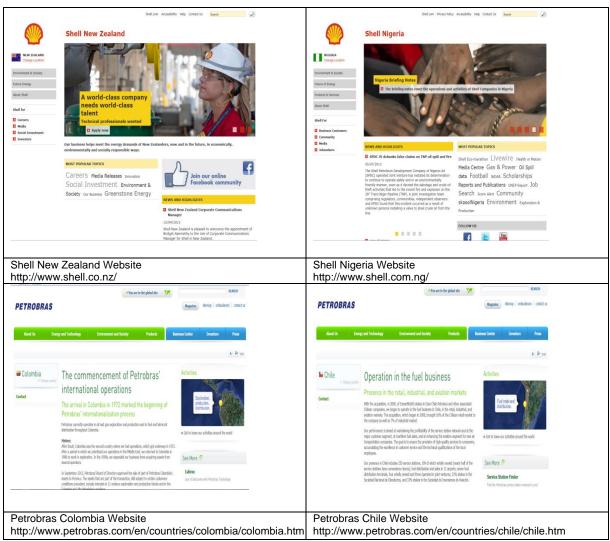


Figure 95: Websites with flags

# 6.19 Images of Local Iconic Locations

Iconic symbols in this section refer to iconic locations that are specific to that country. Country-specific symbols include anything that portrays a way of life or culturally specific knowledge. According to Singh and Baack (2004), icons are very country-specific and this is reflected on some of the websites studied in this research. Petrobras and BP had 99% of their websites displaying elements of culture specific icons ranging from the Perth skyline in Australia, the Kremlin domes in Russia to the King Faud International Stadium in Saudi Arabia. This statistic was followed closely by Shell with 84%. An example of the Shell United Arab Emirates is shown below displaying the Dubai skyline. On average, each website had at least one website with prominent local sights of the target country. Although this was not always sufficient in some cases where only one website each had an iconic feature, one could see that the companies had in some way, started the process

of localisation. A cross section of websites featuring prominent sights of each country is available in Appendix 20.

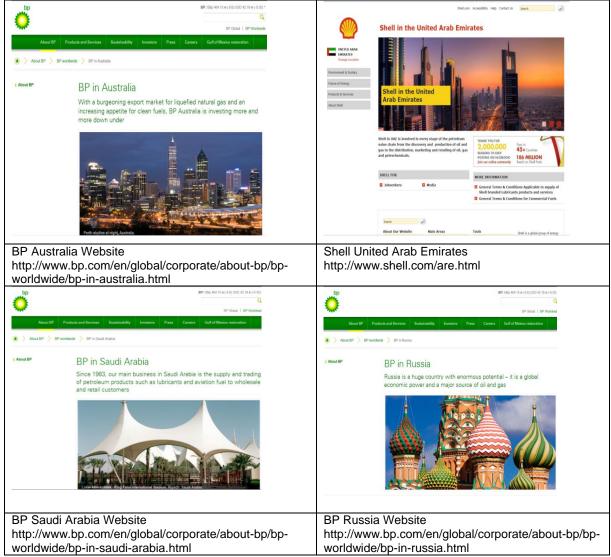


Figure 96: Cross Section of BP and Shell Websites

By using these iconic images on their websites, these companies seem to be subtly reminding or communicating to people that not only are they operational in the area, they are also knowledgeable about the local iconic features which are important to the people. This also shows that these companies are trying to represent a local image while still maintaining their global status through coordinated colour schemes and website structure. However, it must be noted that most of the images used are in fact clichéd images of these countries which people have seen over and over again. The findings in this research therefore tie in with Koller's (2007) findings that using such images are a clichéd representation of the local.

## 6.20 Representation of Motor Vehicles

The analysis of the images on the websites identified that motor vehicles were used on the websites as iconic signifiers to represent the business that the company is into and also to relate the company's products with the things that people see and use in their everyday lives. The analysis identified that there was a trend towards the use of powerful motorbikes, cars or 4 x 4's on some of these company websites. It can be said that these companies have chosen to use cars as a symbol or iconic feature because these cars are powered by the fuel and oil produced by these Oil and Gas companies. An example in Figure 97 from the Shell Germany website shows a rally driver carrying out motor sport through the desert terrains. Below are the examples used for the analysis in this section.

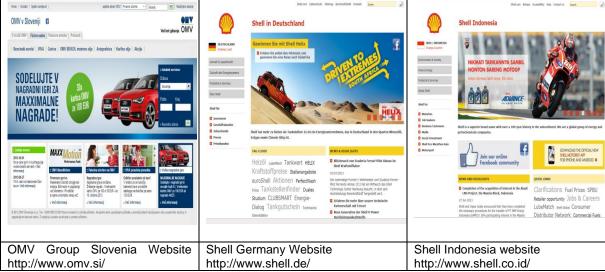


Figure 97: Cross Section of websites with cars

#### 6.21 Depiction of Animals

An area also worthy of note is that most of these companies have avoided signifiers which could be misconstrued or which could even cause offence. The companies have avoided the use on their websites of visual metaphors such as the star and cross, animal figures, religious objects and signs, taboo words, graphics of hand gestures, aesthetic codes and some items or food that may be considered to be forbidden by some cultures. The exceptions to these are the websites for Chevron (Bulgaria and Brazil) and Petrobras (Namibia) which have at least one feature of an animal each. As shown below, the use of horses on the Chevron Bulgaria website and the representation of a fish on the Chevron Brazil website may have been used to symbolise nature and the environment.

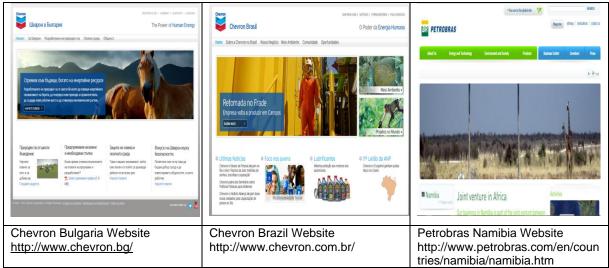


Figure 98: Cross Section of websites with animals

It can be seen from this section that animals are being used as iconic symbols referring back to the discourse of environmental care and the need for Oil and Gas companies to pay more attention to environmental issues. The analysis identified that at the level of discourse, the sets of iconic signs represented on these websites relate to the environmental discourse where the companies are trying to represent themselves as being sensitive of the environment and caring for animals following series of catastrophic failures which have dogged the Oil and gas industry in the past couple of years.

#### 6.22 The Use of Local Office Buildings and Petrol Stations

Another predominant feature identified during the analysis was the use of local office buildings and gas/ petrol stations. Local office buildings and local petrol stations can be used to represent the local on company websites as well as being used as a kind of metonym for the whole of their local operations. On the local front, the use of local office buildings and petrol stations can stand for something traditional and something the local population can identify with and this can be used to soften their global or modern image. In the case where an image of the company's global headquarters was used on the country specific website, it indicated an element of metonymy being that the company was trying to depict its global nature while making efforts to remain local. Most of the companies studied had a tendency to use the image of the local company office or what is assumed to be the local petrol station on their websites. Out of all the company websites studied, about 10% of them have images of buildings and 50% have images of petrol stations on their country specific websites. All the instances where these are featured show the outside and the inside of offices or petrol stations.

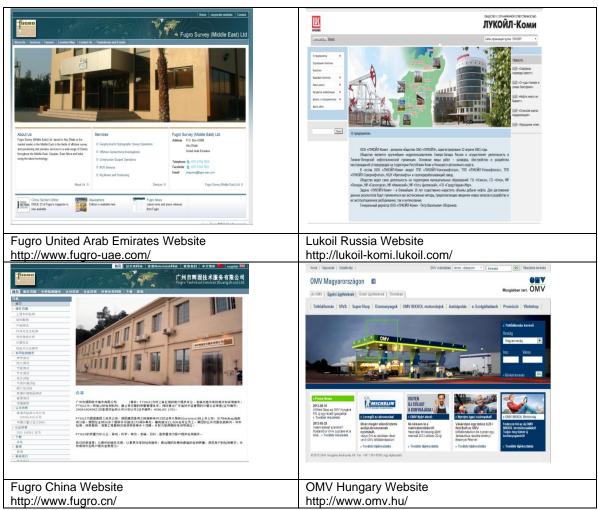


Figure 99: Cross Section of Fugro, Lukoil and OMV Group websites

The findings concluded that this trend towards the use of petrol stations is because the local population that they are targeting can relate to these images. If they see a picture of a building they have previously come across or that they see on a daily basis, target users will have more of a tendency to want to use these websites. If a local website user has previously visited the petrol station to make any purchase, he/she will be able to relate to the company much more than if the website had a picture of a place that they had never seen or do not know. Local petrol stations were therefore identified to be something that was represented as tangibly local in the sense that it represented an aspect of their activities which was close to the local population. Over 50% of the websites studied had either the pictures of the company's office building in that particular location or a picture of the company's petrol station on the country specific home page. It was also identified in the course of this research that Oil and Gas operators such as Lukoil, BP, Shell, and ExxonMobil had a greater tendency to feature petrol and gas stations on their country home pages as they own petrol stations in these areas that they can advertise. The research also identified that there were no representations of the company headquarters

on any country specific website. Some of the websites which featured images of buildings, petrol or gas stations are pictured in Figure 99.

This research identified that the use of buildings or petrol stations on these company websites was not particular to any region or group of countries as the researcher noted a wide spread use of the same strategy throughout the country websites. One can therefore safely assume that the use of local buildings on their websites is an opportunity for the companies to promote themselves locally and to make themselves easily identifiable within their local community. The example in Figure 99 of the Fugro website for the United Arab Emirates shows a palm tree and identifies the 'local' element which is relevant to the United Arab Emirates. Another example is the Lukoil Website for Russia where there are several elements together representing the 'local' such as a picture of presumably the local office in Russia, the drilling facility and the map.

## 6.23 The Use of Historical Symbols and Images

The use of historical symbols is very important in the representation of culture as they elicit memories and feelings that only people who belong to that culture can relate to. On websites where companies are trying to give the notion of being local or are trying to relate to the local people, it becomes even more important as it will serve as an interesting read to local or even foreign visitors of the websites. Kim and Kuljis (2010 p. 256), in their research identified that "the map of each country was often found as a symbol of immediate national recognition". This therefore was an interesting subject to look at in the course of this research in order to identify how the oil and gas companies studied use historical symbols and images on their websites. Koller (2007) in her research article on HSBC websites examined how HSBC as a global company, use historical and traditional images to represent the 'local' on their websites. While Koller's (2007) research was on HSBC, this research sought to examine all the Oil and Gas websites used for this study to identify how these companies demonstrate and represent their historical background in each country on their websites. It also sought to identify any existing trends and preferences in the use of these images. Historical images used on websites typically range from drawings to photographs, to animations and maps.

The research identified some website examples with historical images or symbols on them. Petrobras and Bureau Veritas had the highest number of websites with historical features used to represent the local, followed relatively closely by Shell. All the historical images used on each country home page are presented in a sepia tone and in black and white and are used as the main feature images on their website. As can be seen from the Shell and Bureau Veritas websites above, the historical images seem to have been properly labelled or identified so that anyone who sees them knows exactly what historical period the image refers to, what was happening and what the subject was. The images on these websites provide an example of the company operating in storytelling mode. These historical images are mainly aimed at showing an affinity to the local population and for plotting the history they have with the local community.

As seen in Figure 100, on the main page of the Shell website for Kuwait there is a historical image of two men seemingly entering into a signed agreement. One of the men is fully clothed in the Arabic attire while the other person seems to be of European origin. All the individuals represented seem to represent or reflect their cultures in their choice of clothing. The image also has the caption 'A long standing partnership with Kuwait- since the 1940s'. This image is the main feature of the website and demonstrates to anyone visiting the site, the partnership that the company has had with the company for several years. One can assume that in illustrating this, the company is trying to highlight its relationship with the local community and the local culture. The Shell website for Egypt also shows a sepia black and white image of an old Shell Petroleum Egypt vehicle with markings in Arabic. It has the caption "100 years of Dedication- Shell in Egypt Centenary". Just like the Shell Kuwait website, this website identifies with the long standing relationship the company has had with the country. The Bureau Veritas websites which demonstrate historical symbols such as the Peru and the Chile websites pictured above show a marked historical development of the company in the various regions. These historical images seem to particularly relate to the Spanish regions and are all illustrated in Spanish.

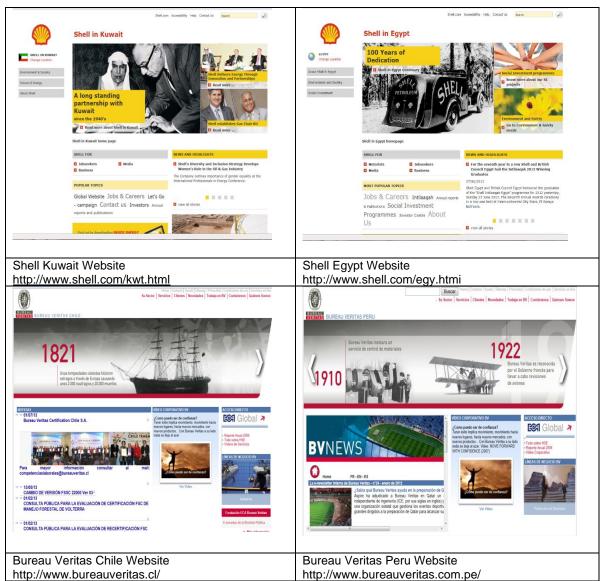
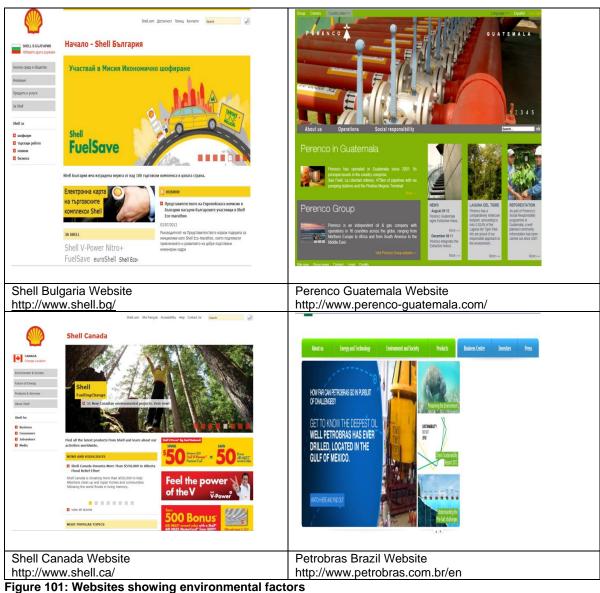


Figure 100: Websites with historical images

# 6.24 Environmental Sensitivity

Due to the nature of the Oil and Gas industry and the requirements to conform to certain environmental laws and policies, being environmentally friendly is a very important factor for their business to function or operate effectively. According to Livesey (2002 p.124), "the oil industry has been periodically threatened by public perceptions as monopolistic, greedy, and, in the later part of the century, insensitive to the natural environment". The increasing concerns over the current state of the environment has also brought a need for "tight regulations and sanctions governing environmental protection, consumer evaluation of a corporation's image based on corporate environmental responsibility, and stakeholder awareness that environmental protection is not in conflict with maximization of corporate profits" (Kim et al 2010 p.285).

Local users of Oil and Gas products tend to decide on the use of company products based on how successful they have been in maintaining a clean environment. With the rise of protest groups on environmental issues and the strict environmental policies these companies need to follow, Oil and Gas companies continually try to promote the image of being environmentally friendly, of trying to reduce the cost of fuel for users and of trying to reduce the amount of pollution which results from them carrying out their activities. The websites were therefore studied to understand how these issues are represented on the company websites.



The websites were firstly analysed for each company to identify if there were any separate menus on the main home page dealing with environmental issues. This analysis was carried out on the home page of the 16 companies and identified quite surprisingly that only 4 of these companies out of the 16 companies studied had a menu or tab discussing environmental issues. These companies were Petrobras, Shell, Lukoil and ExxonMobil as

can be seen in Figure 102 below. This was quite a surprising finding as it was expected that the current debates on environments and climates would mean that these issues would be discussed more clearly on these Oil and Gas company websites. Although it was identified that only a small number of websites had a specific menu for discussing environmental issues, it is however understood that discussions on this topic may be embedded in other menus or sections on their websites. Unlike previous research carried out by Livesey (2002), this research is not offering a detailed discourse analysis of how the companies handle environmental issues, rather, it looks at how environmental symbolism functions along with other elements to represent the 'local sensitivity' issue.

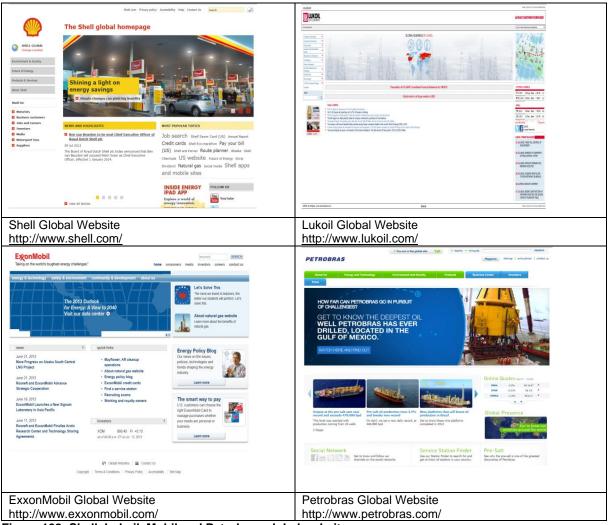


Figure 102: Shell, Lukoil, Mobil and Petrobras global websites

The analysis showed that most of the companies studied seemed to pay a lot of attention to the role of environmental issues in their business by portraying elements of it on their website. This was not necessarily represented on their websites; however each website had a link or image referring users to the environmental policies of the company. It was also observed that this tendency to represent environmental issues was not necessarily

more prevalent in certain areas than others and no specific countries seemed to be considered more 'important' to the oil and gas sector than the others. There also seems to be a tendency towards emphasising environmental awareness in places like West Africa where there have been previous environmental issues.

## 6.25 Chapter Summary

The content and analysis section revealed the current localisation strategies of the oil and gas companies studied. The analysis was carried out to identify the availability of country specific website/domain name as this would provide a background into the level of localisation on the company websites. It was identified that based on this criteria, the companies had a high level of localisation. A further analysis identified that these companies also use a grouped or regional website strategy in communicating with their target audience online. This was significant for this research as it identified that the zoning methodology used for the grouped website strategy was different from the actual operational strategies of these companies. The websites were grouped together based on their linguistic similarities and regions rather than the operational zoning of the companies. Again, it was identified that English was used on most of the regional websites even on websites that were made for the middle east and regions where English is not the main language. This inevitably reinforces the role of English as a global Lingua Franca and therefore maintained a supercentral role according to De Swaan's (2001) classification on most of these company websites.

In terms of the level of localisation of these companies, some of the companies used standardised website strategies for their websites in order to have uniformity on their websites as well as promote a globalised front. However, using standardised websites indicated that some of these companies are on a low level of localisation as they have not created websites that are specific to the countries they are made for. As well as having these standardised websites, the research also identified that the same colours, which in all cases were the corporate colours were used on most of the websites even when in some cases the content had been changed to suit the target market. This overall shows a level of glocalisation rather than localisation as the companies used a hybrid of both local and global strategies. Logos were another element of the websites which were used based on a glocal strategy because they were kept on almost all the websites for each company even when content and language were modified to suit the target users.

Other elements identified on the websites were environmental issues and the way that they were represented on these websites. As this is a big topic in the Oil and Gas industry, elements of this were represented on almost all the websites studied and ranged from the use of images that showed an environmentally responsible company, to the use of communication such as activities being carried out to safeguard the environment, all aimed at portraying the companies as being environmental friendly. Images of local prominent sites and historical buildings also served to present the companies as being local. The use of each country's national flag on the websites was also seen as an indication of localisation activities on the websites. Local offices and local petrol stations also served the same purpose as they were images that the local population could identify with and therefore showed an attempt at localisation by these companies.

#### CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSION

#### 7.1 Introduction

This PhD research examines the website localisation practices used by Sixteen Oil and Gas companies in order to understand what current trends and practices are in this industry. The Oil and Gas companies chosen for this research study varied and included both Operator and Service companies of different sizes, different countries of origin, and different language zones they operate in. The research was carried out on all their company websites including the main corporate pages and the country specific websites. These included web pages that were in several other languages including English and in total, over 600 web pages were studied. The main objectives of this research were achieved through qualitative and quantitative research methods and entirely based on textual research. The textual approach was valid as it produced results, as outlined in the paragraphs that follow, which a more conventional approach might not have produced.

The aim of this research was to carry out an in depth website analysis of Multinational Oil and Gas company websites to understand the nature of the localisation practices of these companies and the extent to which websites are localised to suit their target users. The Oil and Gas industry is a particularly important one for localisation studies as the companies are heavily involved in carrying out operations in different parts of the world. In comparison to other industries and other studies carried out, the Oil and Gas industry is more concerned with the issue of reputation and corporate image management in the areas where it currently carries out the majority of its operations, and it is concerned about being portrayed as being locally sensitive, being environmentally friendly and also wants to be seen as returning a part of the financial resources that it currently gains back to the communities where it operates. This is because of controversies that have plagued this industry following environmental issues which have had a huge impact on local population. The industry is also continuously scrutinized for its sensitivity to the local people and local environment in the countries where they carry out particularly exploration activities. Quite recently too, there have been regulations put in place to ensure that these companies comply with certain local content requirements such as investing in local employees before they can carry out work in the region. This makes this industry particularly suitable to see the nature of the glocalisation phenomena and the particular nature of the industry enabled the researcher to make wider conclusion about glocalisation and websites in general. Also, although there has been research carried out on localisation, the researcher did not identify any research on localisation issues specifically targeted to the Oil and Gas industry.

The website analysis was split into the cultural aspect on one hand and the linguistic/semiotic aspect on the other hand. Using both the linguistic/semiotic and the cultural aspects was necessary as the nature of glocalisation encompasses both these dimensions, and existing studies have not combined these aspects - which gives this study its original contribution. This research combined methods from linguistics, semiotics and intercultural approaches, which is necessary to map the complexity of the 'glocalisation' phenomenon. The combination of these two approaches is innovative and points research on website localisation in a particular direction as previous studies have either used only the cultural frameworks for the analysis of websites (Singh and Pereira 2005, Würtz 2006, Marcus and Gould 2000, Ahmed et al. 2008) or only carried out a semiotic analysis of the websites (Koller 2007, Kelly-Holmes 2006, Hillier 2003, Lee 2009, Martin 2011). Although Smith et al (2004) carried out an analysis of websites using both a cultural and semiotic analysis in order to identify the usability of websites to a global audience, it is different from this research as this thesis is not primarily about the design/usability of websites, but about what this indicates about globalisation, language and culture in the business world.

The research was carried out using a mixed methodology research approach because either qualitative or quantitative approaches alone would not have answered the research questions. Using both methods provided valid inferences and by comparing the findings from both research methods, it was possible to come to a valid conclusion. Another important reason for the choice of this methodology was that it provided an opportunity to maximise the benefits of both quantitative and qualitative research methods and to eliminate the deficiencies of using any one of these methods in isolation. This mixed methodology approach was used for the analysis of both corporate and country specific websites of the 16 companies studied. In the search of a theoretical background for this research, it was identified that Hofstede, GLOBE or Hall's research on cultural dimensions on its own cannot fully explain the influence of culture and localisation on these Oil and Gas websites. This is because these cultural theories on their own do not take into account how culture (the local, the global) is represented, and in particular do not capture the glocal when what this research shows is that oil companies operate in a glocal world. However, a fusion of the three theories served to provide a better framework for analysis of what was present on these websites. Most if not all analysis carried out using these dimensions have been studies of websites from the retail industry but as explained earlier,

these cultural dimensions were inadequate to understand the glocal tendencies on the Oil and Gas websites studied.

This research identified that there is a hierarchy and different levels of the global/local phenomenon in the Oil and Gas industry. Hierarchy in this sense means that, some of the companies have a limited level of localisation based on factors such as translating certain parts of the websites but keeping the images the same as other country websites, changing the images on the websites to suit the culture but not changing the content, or creating a website for a certain country but not having any content on the website which was specific to that country. Some of the companies also have websites which look like they have been created solely for the purpose of symbolising a global reach rather than because of the concern and sensitivity towards local issues in the countries. In some cases such as the Bureau Veritas website for Africa and South East Asia, a single website had been created for different language zones that the company operates in rather than creating a single website for each country. Another finding of this research was that the companies studied seem to create websites based on the economic power of the particular location. This conclusion was based on findings that some companies had more websites in regions and countries where they had greater economic interests and few or no websites in countries where they had lesser economic interest.

The first section, which involved a semiotic and linguistic analysis, identified that there were a lot of variations on language(s) used on the websites that were studied. In the first instance, the main or predominant language used on these websites was English. This is in line with De Swaan's (2000) classification of English as a hypercentral language in his classification of a world language system. It therefore highlights the 'hypercentral' role that English continues to play in most companies, in particular on the websites of most multinational companies. There were also instances where other 'supercentral' languages such as French and Spanish were used. English has already been described as a global language and actually having a global Lingua Franca Status (Crystal 2001); it is therefore obvious that companies are therefore trying to reach a global audience by using English on the majority of their websites where there is a lot of interface with a global audience. Considering, however that there is also a need to also meet the needs of their local users, companies therefore use a glocal strategy. For purposes of branding and corporate identity, most of the company websites studied used 'standard' elements such as images and language. On the other hand, these same companies also included local news stories, languages and images on their websites to create an impression of being local. The findings here in relation to the local sensitivity/local image problem element are in line with Koller's (2007) study, where she identified that on the HSBC websites the bank had maintained both global and local features on the websites, therefore adopting a glocal strategy.

This research identified that language has both a communicative and a symbolic function in most organisations. In line with the global reach versus local sensitivity dilemma that has already been discussed, it was concluded that oil and gas companies use language for both communicative and symbolic functions. The communicative function being where a language is used because a wider range of people can understand it, and the symbolic function being when companies, such as Lukoil, which operates in countries which are significantly non-English speaking, uses English rather than the local language on their websites as a cosmopolitan symbol in order to portray the company as being global. For language to have a global reach, that language has to have more of a symbolic status in these companies than a communicative function. For instance, it is apparent that the use of English on a website for Spain was not because of its communicative function, rather, English played a symbolic function in most of the Oil and Gas companies studied. This therefore backs up Kelly-Holmes' (2006) study on the commercial and linguistic practices of using English as both a symbolic and communicative factor on websites.

Part of the semiotic analysis was a focus on French and English websites in order to identify specific attributes relating to culture and language that were represented on the websites. Although this aspect was a limited case study using only one language - French, it indicated that the language/translation aspect of 'local sensitivity' lags behind the semiotic aspects - and this might be disadvantageous to the local image the companies are trying to create. There were no websites for the French speaking Caribbean and Polynesian Islands, with the majority of Francophone websites in the Europe region. The majority of the websites created were in English and not French, therefore, English was used as the main language of communication on websites that were made for French speakers. The websites also were not adapted in most cases to suit the cultural needs of the French speakers, nor to suit the different Francophone speakers in different parts of the world. The findings in this section ties in with research carried out by Martin (2011) where he identified that despite the advantages of producing culturally adapted advertising for French Canadians, the most popular strategy used by the US multinationals studied were to provide identical content in French and English on their websites. It is understandable that in some countries the companies are not obligated by law to have websites in French and in English, such as in the case of Quebec where it is an obligation only if the company has its headquarter location in Quebec. However, referring back to the

local sensitivity issues, if a company wants to be seen as paying attention to the needs of its local users, then it should implement language strategies that are relevant to the local population.

The second section on cultural practices also identified that companies were moving towards a more glocal approach of communication on their websites. The global elements included the use of standardised colour schemes, company logos, standard website layouts and global celebrities. The local elements included the use of local news stories, information on local content requirements, local sponsorship of events and local people/employees. It was identified that some of the companies studied had a limited localisation strategy and possibly a hierarchy of localisation strategies on their websites. Based on the evidence presented in this research, this hierarchy of localisation suggests that the companies may make calculations when they allocate resources and strategies for localisation on the basis of factors such as how economically important a country is, how much negative image problems there are in the particular country, and so on. An example of this is ENI where the language of the Francophone websites had been translated to suit the local users but the content and images, structure and layouts of the websites remained the same as the English version of the site.

The hierarchy is reflected in certain websites where, although the language is changed to suit the target users, there is hardly any content on the website that is suitable to the target audience; this puts such websites on a lower hierarchy of localisation. For some of the websites where the language as well as some of the contents such as images have been changed, and although the global structure and layout remains the same as the English website, one can say that these websites are higher in the hierarchy of localisation than the others. Rather than a global or a localised approach in isolation, there was a tendency to merge both strategies in targeting the website users. On the global front, the companies used features such as standardised colour schemes, logos and global celebrities on their websites. On the local front, these companies used local celebrities, images of local sights, which are somewhat of a cliché, and images of companys' local office buildings and local petrol stations. The companies used these metonyms of icons and symbols as a convenient way of representing themselves as being locally sensitive. However, whether this means that the companies understand the countries in which they operate or really care about them, as opposed to giving the impression of themselves as caring, is another matter. This finding relates to the study that was carried out by Koller (2007).

## 7.2 Contribution to Knowledge

Previous studies have been carried out on localisation strategies on websites (Chao et al., (2012), Singh and Pereira (2005), Hillier (2003), Würtz (2006), Lo and Gong (2005), Singh et al., (2004), Fink and Laupase (2000), Maynard and Tian (2004), Okazaki (2004)) and glocalisation strategies used by multinational companies (Maynard and Tian2004), Koller (2007), Svensson (2001), Tixier (2005)). This study adds to the growing area of research looking at the linguistic elements of international business by identifying both local and glocal strategies that can be used by multinational companies with a focus on the linguistic and cultural features of websites. This study also goes further to respond to the question of what localisation strategies are used in the Oil and Gas industry. One of the main contributions of this research is that it applies all these methods to a specific industry – the Oil and Gas industry on which currently no research has been identified.

Another major contribution of this research is that it aims to combine linguistic, semiotic and cultural approaches to analyse the phenomenon of 'glocalisation' in companies. To effectively apply this combination, the researcher had to create a framework with components that were specifically suited and adapted to this research. Upon analysis of existing frameworks, it was identified that only Hofstede's Power Distance framework, GLOBE's Gender Egalitarianism and Hall's High and Low Context were relevant to this research. This highlights the limitations of using only cultural dimensions as a framework for examining cultural variations in companies. It also highlights the need for a framework that studies culture alongside language and translation patterns in order to fully understand the extent and nature of localisation practices within companies. These gaps in using only one framework for analysis brought about the need to establish a suitable framework which encompasses linguistic, cultural and semiotic criteria. Reflecting back on the usefulness of this framework as an academic contribution to knowledge, it has been established that this framework serves as a tool that can be used in academic research for understanding and identifying how companies are using semiotics and cultural features on their websites.

Reflecting back on the usefulness of this framework as an academic contribution to knowledge, it has been established that this framework serves as a tool that can be used in academic research for understanding and identifying how companies are using semiotics and cultural features on their websites. Apart from using existing frameworks, drawing from various secondary research works identified during the literature review

ensured that this framework was targeted and had a wide variety of framework components that can be used in any sector outside the Oil and Gas industry.

It was identified that the Oil and Gas industry localises in a very different way compared to the types of localisation strategies that one can see in the retail or other industries. Oil and Gas company website localisation takes into account other factors such as the effect that its operations have on the environment, the need to represent the sponsorship of local events, and the need to represent local sensitivity by demonstrating its local content and local improvement activities on its websites. This is because of the need of these companies to present themselves as a locally sensitive company in the areas where they operate. These companies localise in this way in order to demonstrate to the local population that they are sensitive to the local issues, particularly following issues that companies in the Oil and Gas industry have had with environmental disasters and its effects on the local population.

Another noticeable feature of these websites was the way that the companies merged their localisation strategies with their local content strategies. That is, the local content strategy of the companies was represented on the websites. An example of this is in the case of Shell Qatar where one can see that the company is also using their website to highlight what their local content strategy is in the country. Local content strategy is a current issue for discussion now in the Oil and Gas Industry and very important in most parts of the world where exploration activities are currently being carried out. It was therefore identified in the course of the research that companies were choosing to demonstrate to the local users that they were abiding to this local laws and regulations.

Another finding that was identified in this research was that most of these companies used iconic images of one form or the other on their websites. This could be seen from the company's trying to represent or convey a local image by the use of local buildings and icons while still trying to retain a global front by the representation of global celebrities on their websites. The iconic rhetoric of depictions of the 'local' have the function of maintaining the impression that the users are dealing with a local company and also gives the users the impression, which may sometimes not be the reality on ground, that the company cares about the things that are relevant to them. This shows, however, that companies are not ready to sacrifice their corporate identities for the sake of localisation.

It was also identified that the images on these websites also varied in nature. Most of the companies used multimedia image slides on their websites rather than animations to present a variety of images on one website. Worthy of note is the fact that this is different compared to animations which are mostly used in the retail industry. Although these companies do stray into popular culture, as was identified in the analysis of celebrity representation on the websites, they want to maintain a serious, professional and scientific image because this is an important part of their reputation. This might differ from companies in other sectors such as retail, who might use popular culture more.

These companies localised their websites by integrating in most cases, each country's political and cultural characteristics into their website communications strategies. In most cases, the websites were customised to cater to the local traditions and cultures while also providing links to the global websites and other regional sites. By so doing, the companies represented themselves as being local but as having a global reach. Two functions of language were identified on the Oil and Gas company websites. The first function is the communicative function where English is used simply as a language of communicating with each other. The second is the symbolic function which can be said to be ambiguous as it may mean different things to different people. By choosing English as the main language of communication, these companies could be perceived as being global in their way of thinking. The downside to this on the localisation front is that if they adapt only English as their main language of communication for functional reasons, then they risk passing a negative symbolic message to other users who cannot speak the language. This finding contradicts previous theories on the use of language which have maintained that language is solely for the purpose of communication and that language has a symbolic function (Kelly-Holmes 2000).

The research identified that there was a tendency to use celebrities on most of these companies' websites. In all but one of the instances identified, the companies used international sporting celebrities, in particular those from the motor racing sector, which is an area of celebrity culture of particular importance for the Oil and Gas industry. The only one case where these companies used a local celebrity was on OMV Group's website for Slovakia where the company chose to use a local tennis champion. Sporting celebrity was identified as a means to represent the global – by using celebrities who are well known on their websites, and mixing this with a local strategy – having an input of local events or country specific information on their websites. This was once again identified as another attempt by these companies to use a glocal strategy by using global celebrities which are instantly recognisable as a global strategy on their local country websites. It was also identified that these companies sponsored local events, mostly from the sporting industry, and these were promoted on the company websites which relates to the finding that Oil

and Gas companies tend to use celebrities from the sporting industry. In this way the companies are trying to make themselves relevant to the local population, indicating that they are sensitive to local activities and showcasing that the companies are investing in the economy of their work locations or countries.

These Oil and Gas companies also represented their expertise on their websites through a variety of means, such as the representation of employees on their websites and the technical side of the company's business. They had images of their employees, some in work gear and some working offshore in order to demonstrate the expertise of the company. Sometimes this was accompanied by slogans identifying how 'top of the class' the company is compared to its competitors. Expertise is something that can be globally identified within the Oil and Gas industry, as a demonstrable track record in expertise determines the level of confidence that customers have in a company or even the types of jobs that the company can carry out for other contractors in the industry. However, by representing local employees, as the companies did in most cases, they are also representing the local and making it easier for the local users to identify with the images on their websites.

Gender representation was also studied in this research as the researcher sought to identify how each gender was represented on these websites. The focus was on each company's corporate website and it was identified that few websites represented a single female. This therefore indicates that, although the oil industry is aware of the 'gender bias' issue, this is not apparent from their websites. The gender issue is another area that might be specifically relevant to the Oil and Gas industry. This is not because gender issues do not matter in other business areas, but because this has been a source of debate in recent times and there has been a conscious effort by companies operating in the Oil and Gas industry to try and get more women into the industry by offering STEM education at Secondary and university level to get more women interested in science subjects. It was therefore surprising to identify that despite all these efforts, a lot of women are not even been represented on the websites. This is particularly significant given the fact that most of the recruitment activities are carried out online.

It was also identified that the symbols used by Oil and Gas companies are different from that used by the retail sector. When it comes to the localisation of consumer goods, language is not paramount, but the focus is usually on the localisation of the particular product. In the Oil and Gas industry, where the product cannot be really adapted, the focus

of localisation is on the language used and how information provided can be localised to meet the needs of the target audience. The symbols also used by this industry are relevant to their area of operation and the issues that the industry faces, such as the way that environmental issues are presented on the websites, the use of local celebrities on the websites and the use of local attractions. In fact it was identified that oil and gas websites could have both a symbolic and economical function. For some companies operating in countries where several or more than one language is spoken, it was identified that there was a tendency by these companies not to use all of the languages but to choose one or two which they would use as the main language on their websites.

# 7.3 Areas for Future Research and Practical Implications

The findings from this thesis have identified that there is an apparent need for Oil and Gas companies to reconsider the strategies used for the creation of websites for different countries as these serve as message boards to the world. Although the researcher is not suggesting that every company will produce fully localised and translated websites, which would be utopian and unrealistic, particularly in times of economic difficulties, some of the strategies currently used by these companies may not be fully achieving what they want to achieve. Based on this, the practical applicability of the identified framework for business is pertinent and particularly useful to Oil and Gas companies as they, as well as other multinational companies, need to examine critically how their websites do or do not meet the needs of their customers. Judging from the evidence in this research, it can be concluded that these companies may not have the cultural and linguistic understanding or staff with the relevant experience and skills to do this. The proposed framework could therefore be developed into a tool that can be used by companies to determine the effectiveness or suitability of their websites for its desired purpose.

This research has involved a limited examination of translation practices on websites designed in the French language. However, future research might examine the translation practices used in relation to languages other than the French language. The symbolic nature of language in these companies also indicates that the language they use in communicating with their target users might have an effect on the level of confidence that users have when visiting their websites. As these companies need to combine localising their websites as well as preserving their global image, there is a need for companies to think about having a hybrid strategy which involves a mix of both local and global features on the websites.

The results and findings described in this thesis will also be useful for managers trying to decide on language policies in their companies and also which languages to use on their websites and how local cultures should be portrayed on websites. This study will also be useful for website designers who want to make sure that the company websites they create are targeted at the users and not just randomly created and standardised across the company.

The outcome of this research, if taken into consideration, will help the companies with their business and in reaching out to their target audience as this research has identified that most of the companies studied undertake some limited form of website localisation. The research also identified that for the Oil industry, there are some specific parameters of this localisation, particularly the necessity to be seen as 'sensitive' and 'socially responsible' while at the same time being seen as having scientific and technical expertise and global reach.

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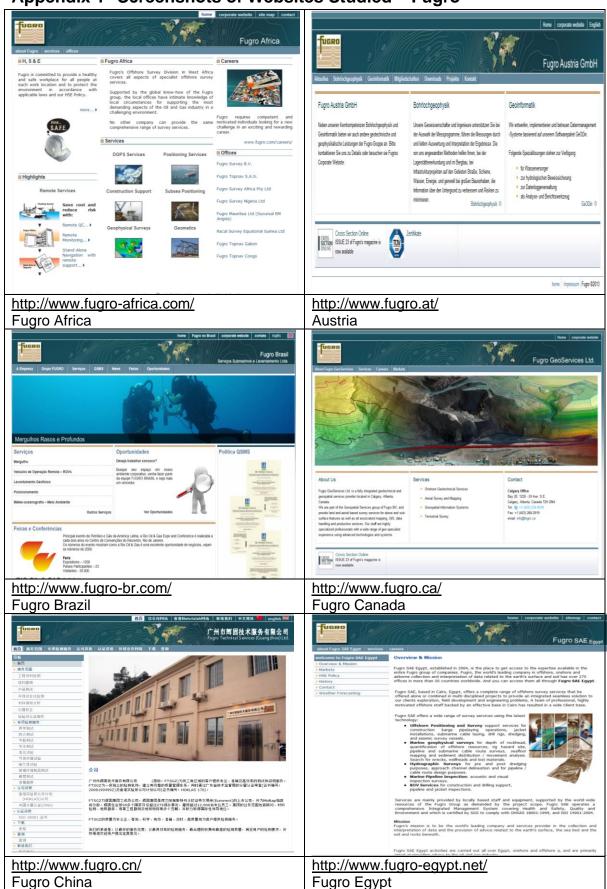
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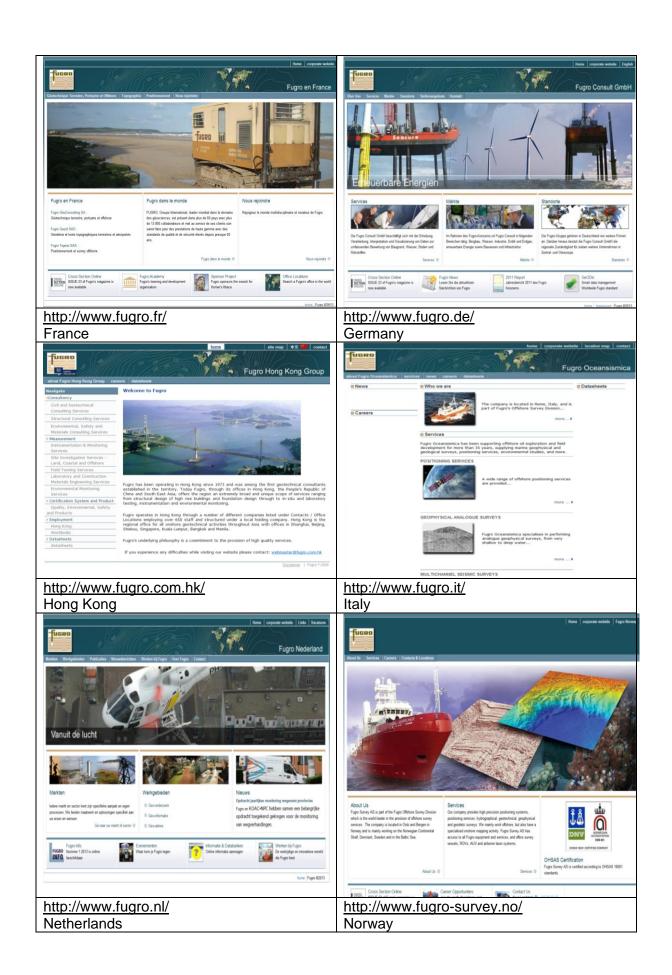
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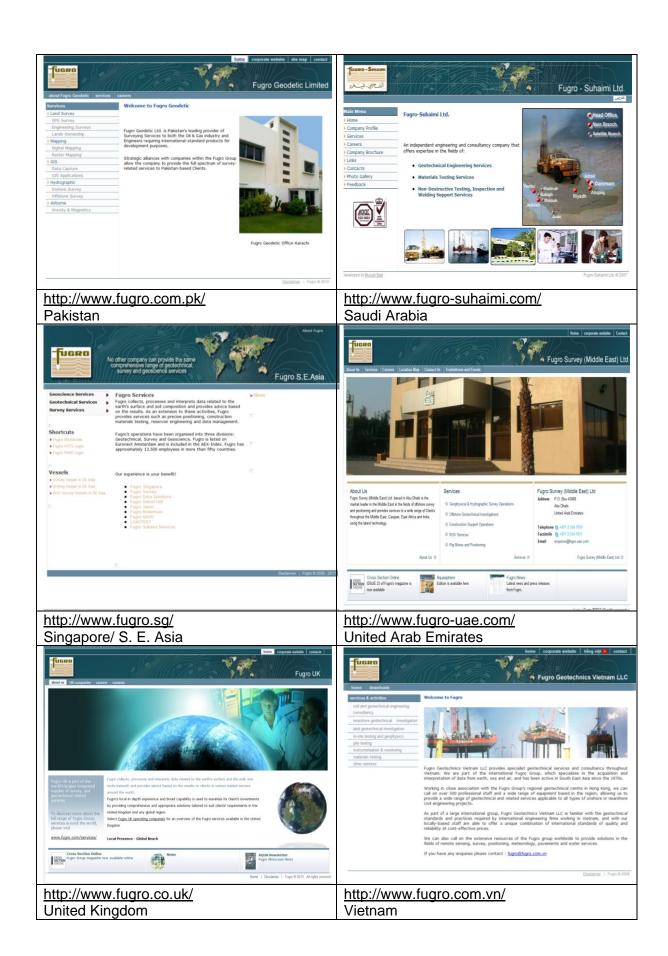
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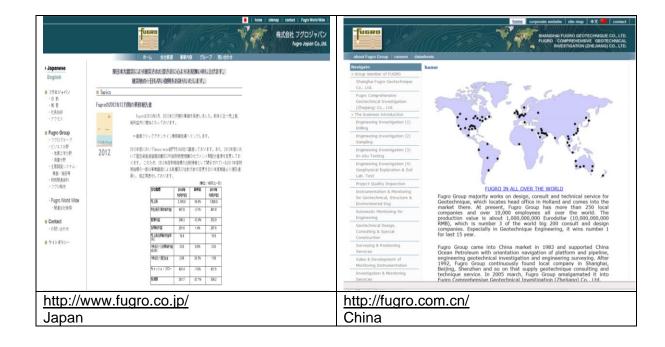
# **APPENDICES**

## Appendix 1 Screenshots of Websites Studied - Fugro

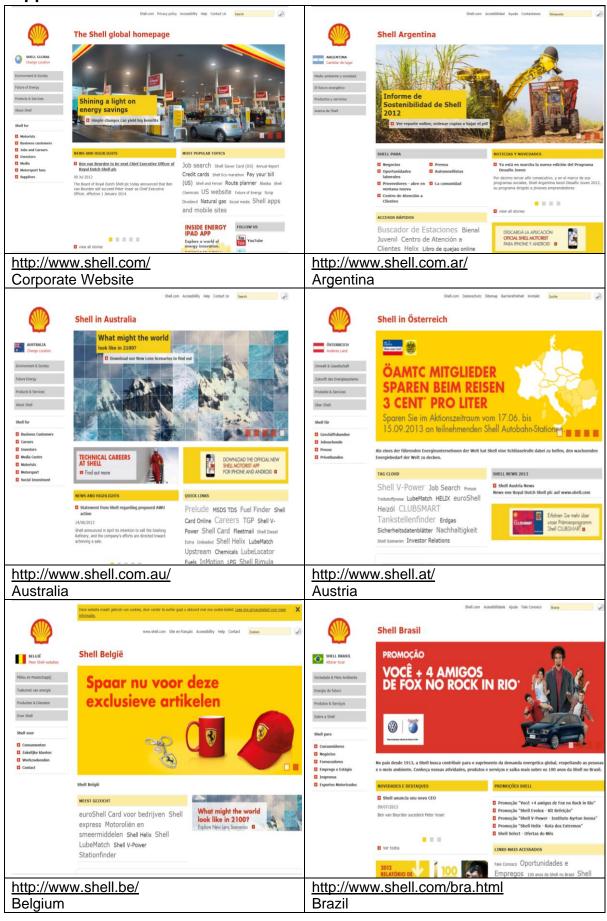


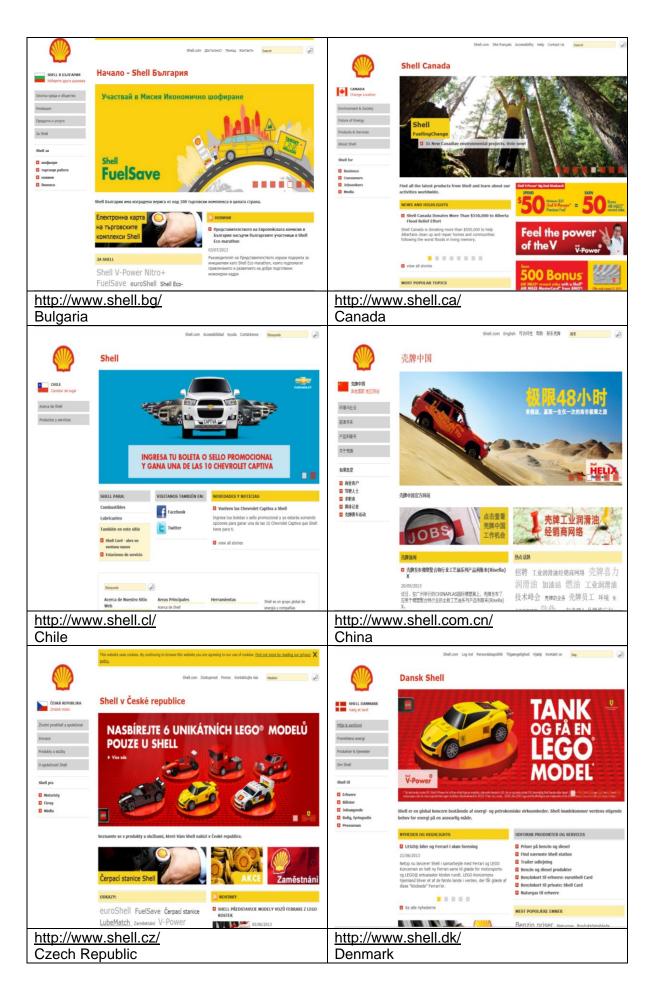


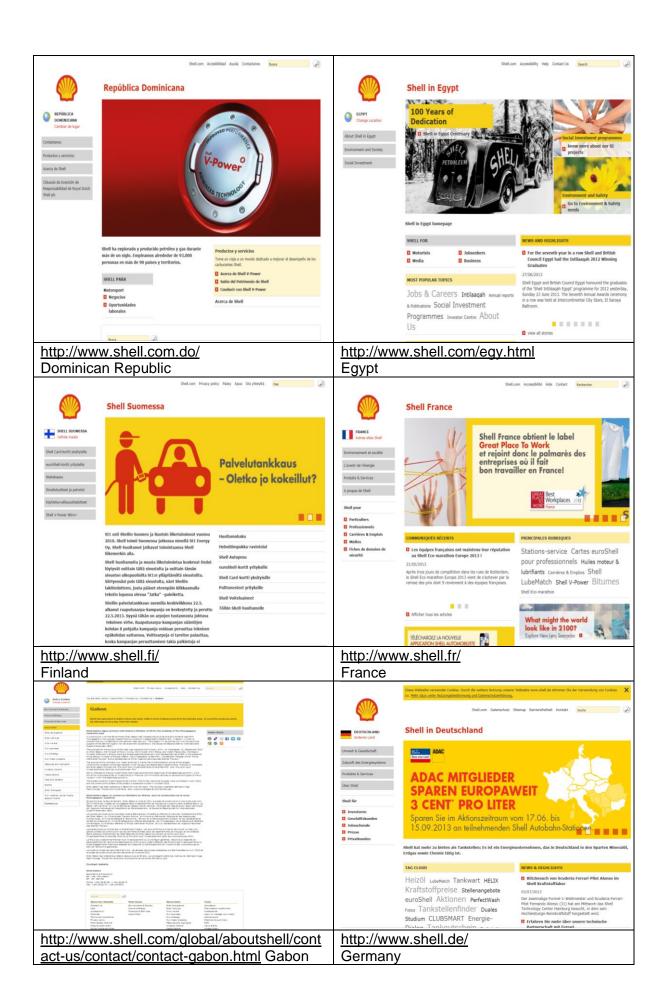


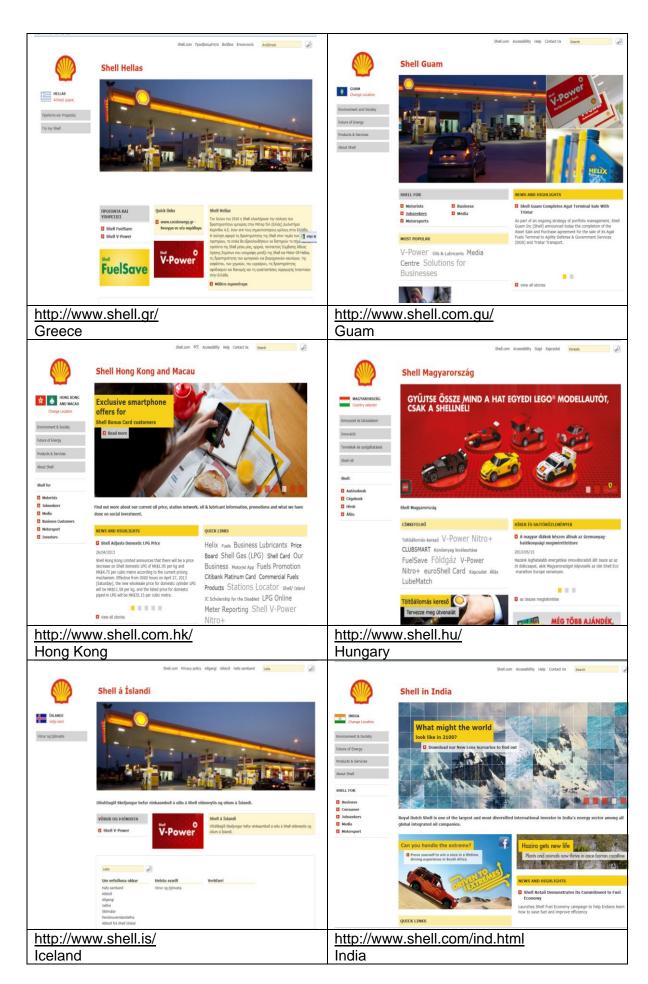


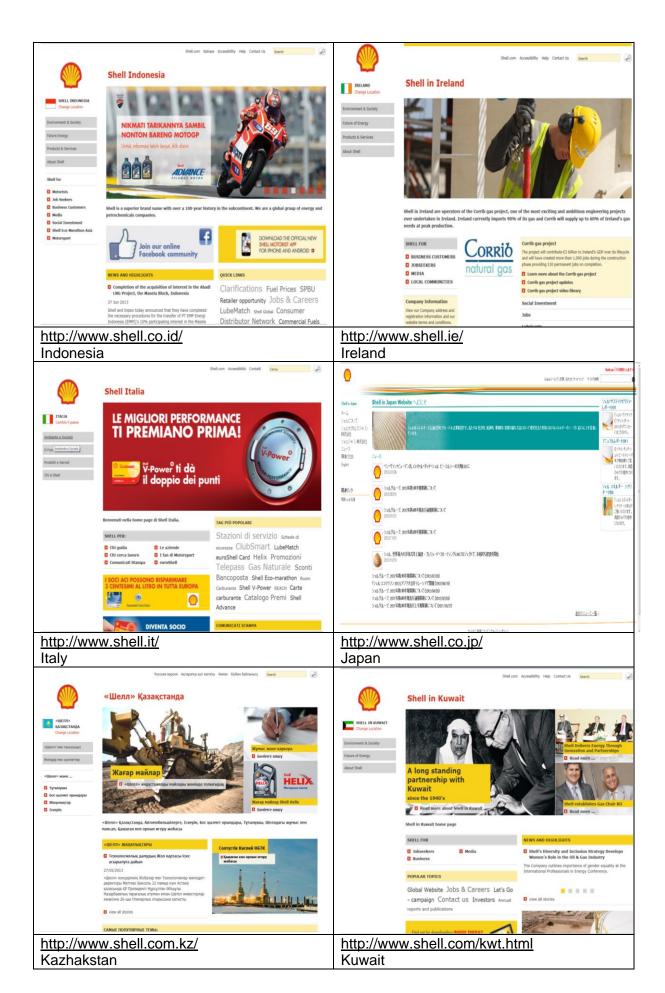
### Appendix 2 Screenshots of Websites Studied - Shell

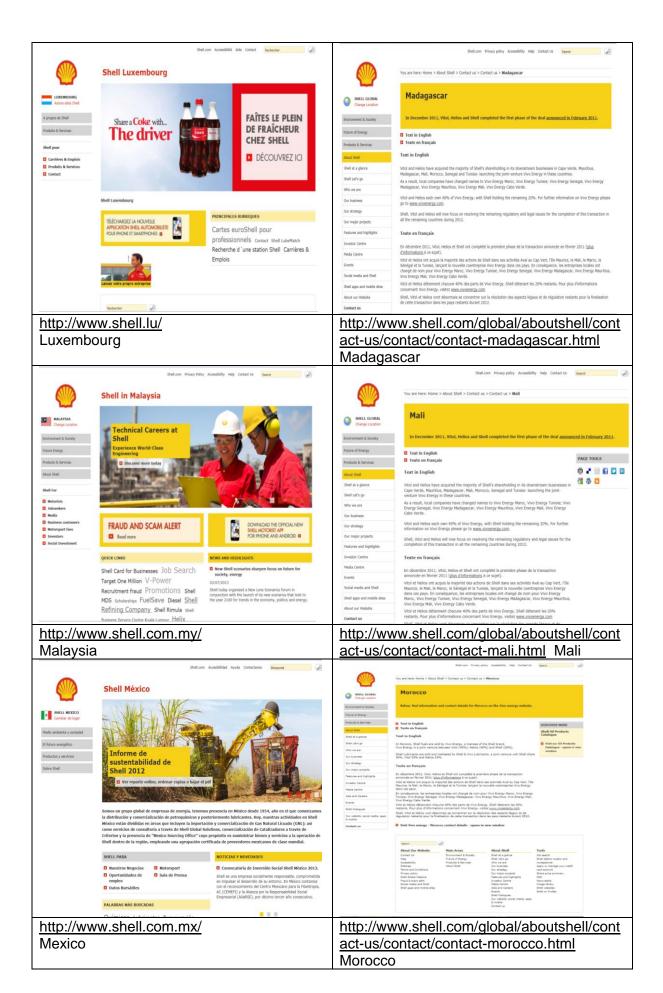


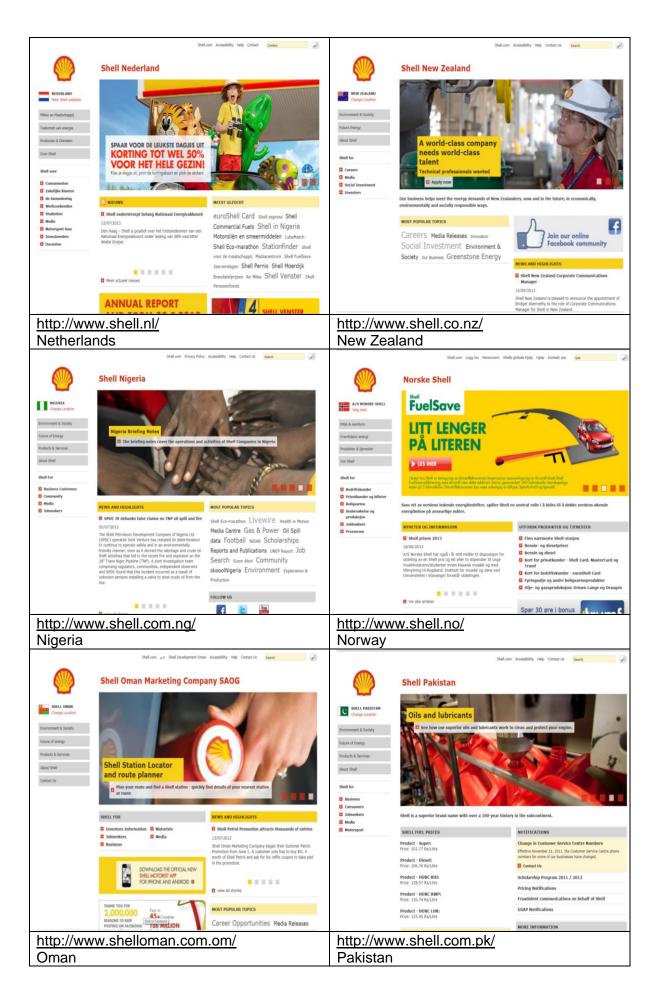


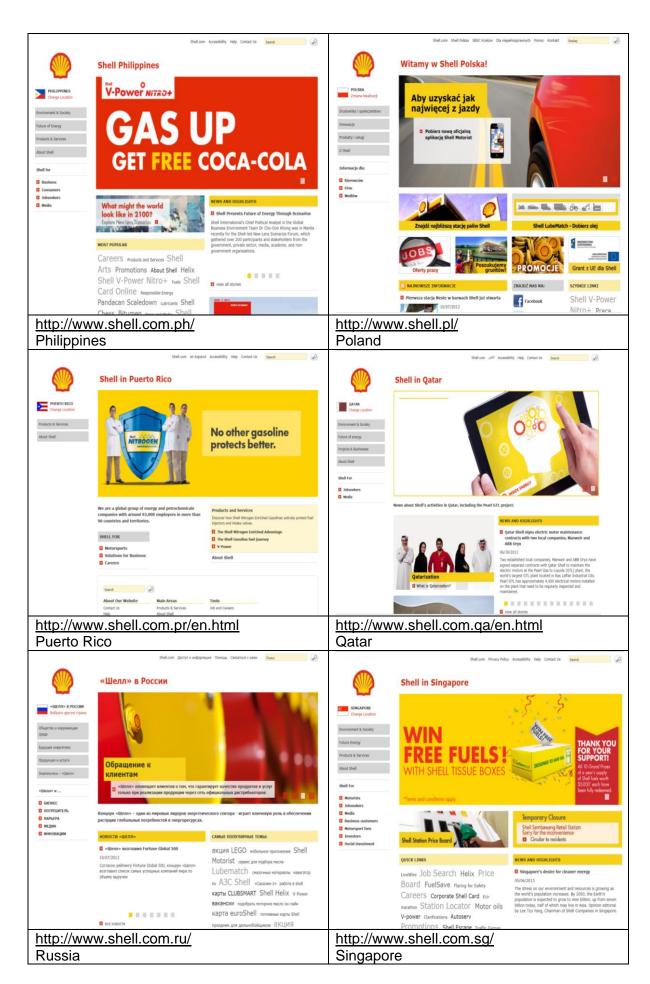


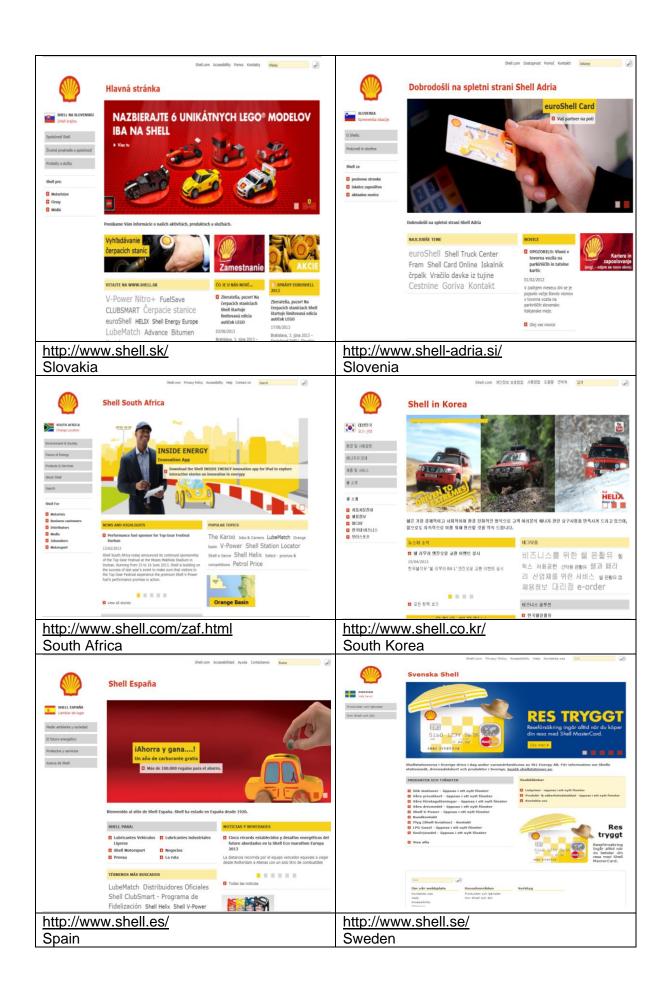


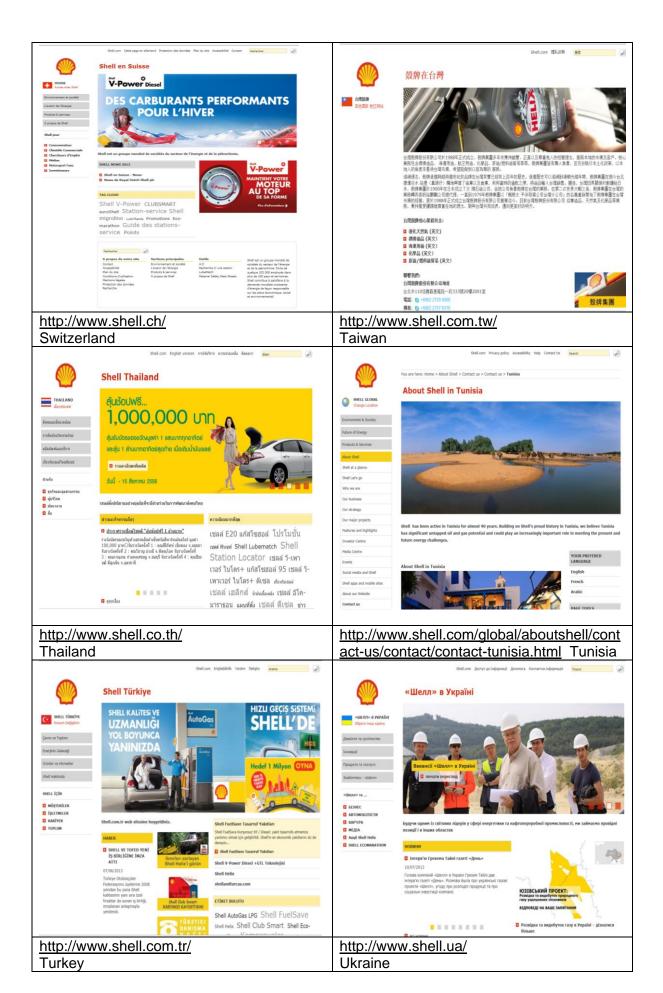


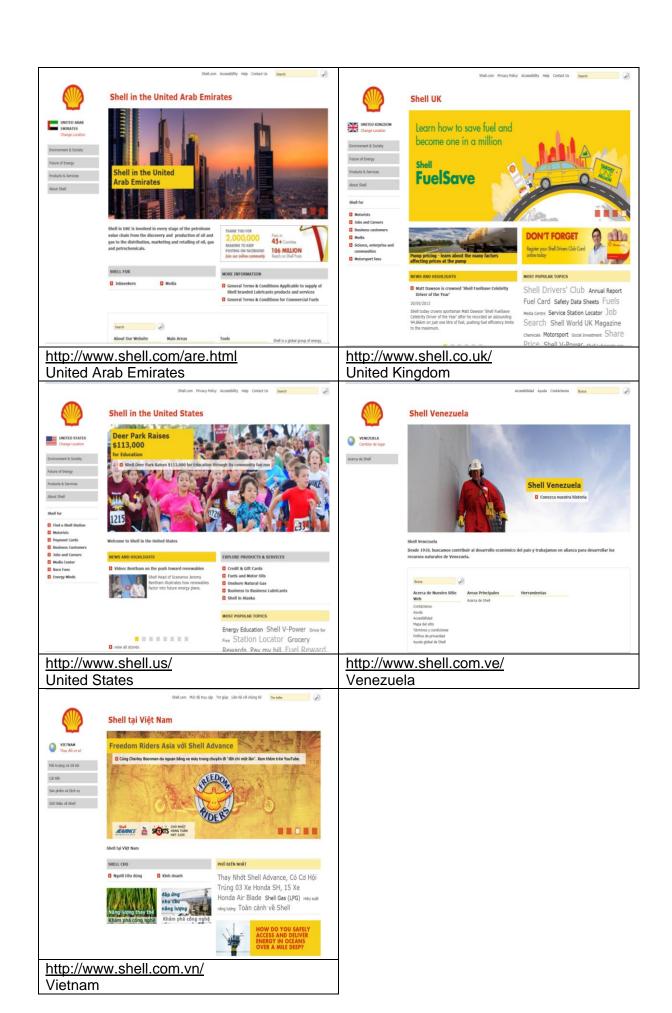




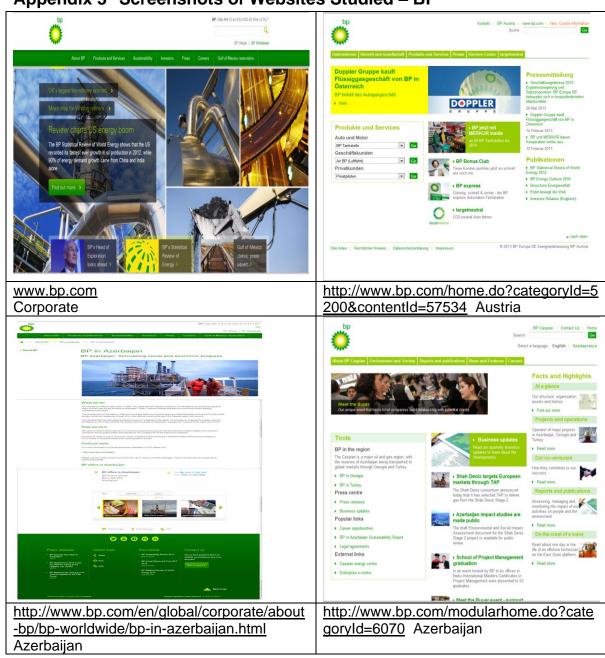


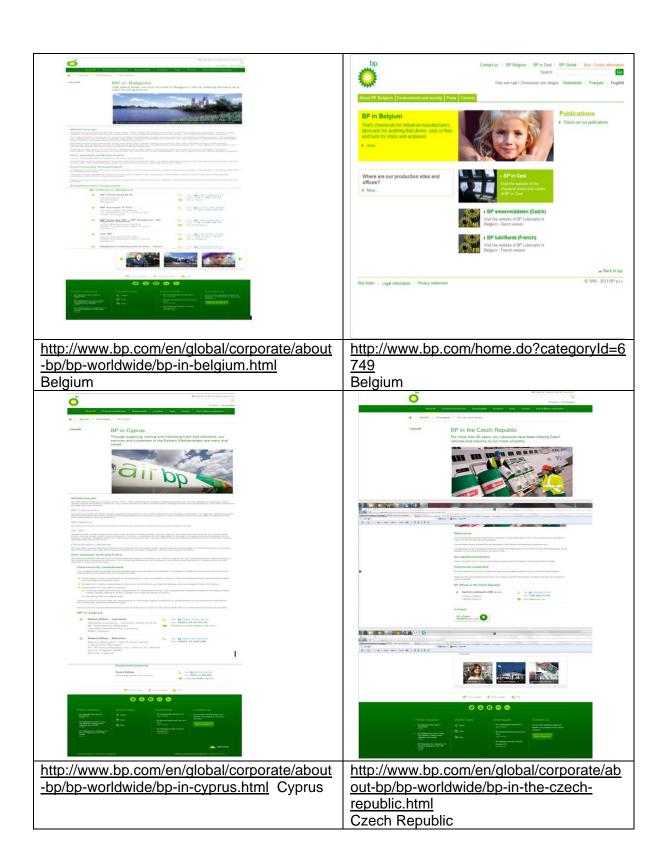






## Appendix 3 Screenshots of Websites Studied - BP



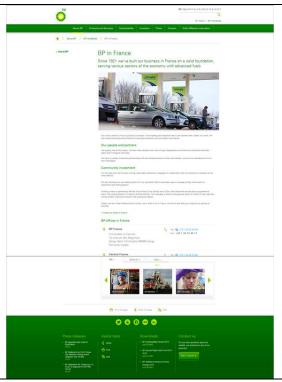




http://www.bp.com/en/global/corporate/about -bp/bp-worldwide/bp-in-denmark.html Denmark



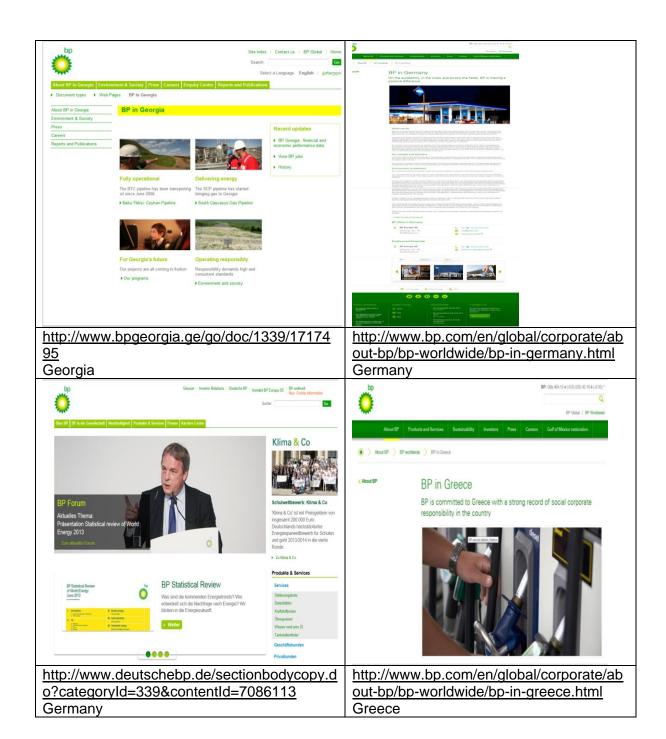
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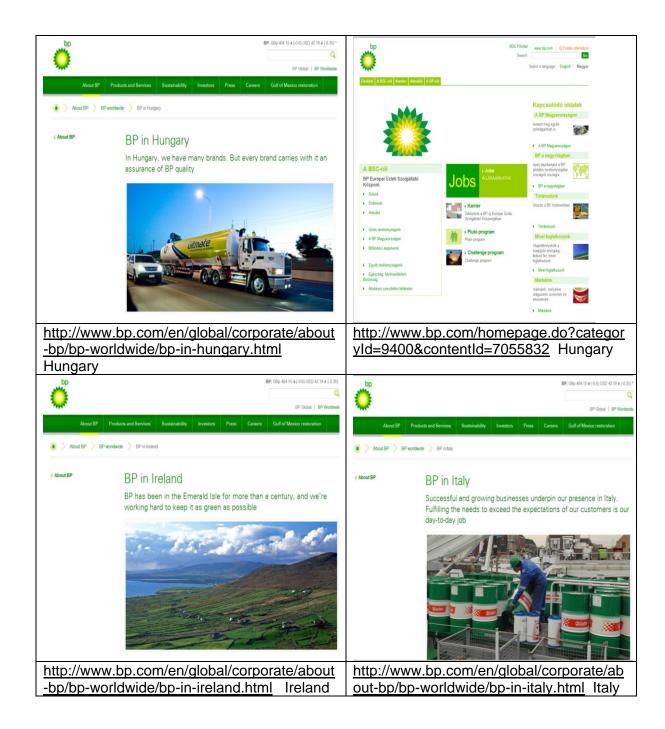


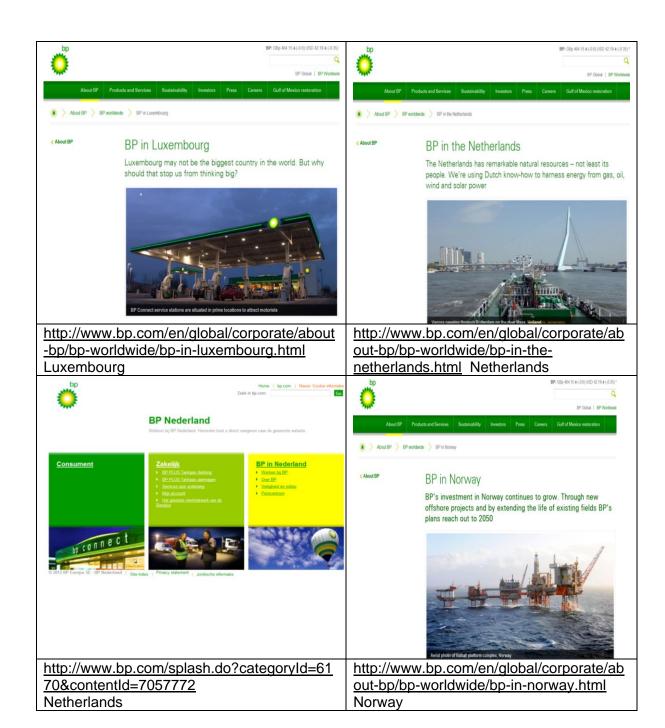
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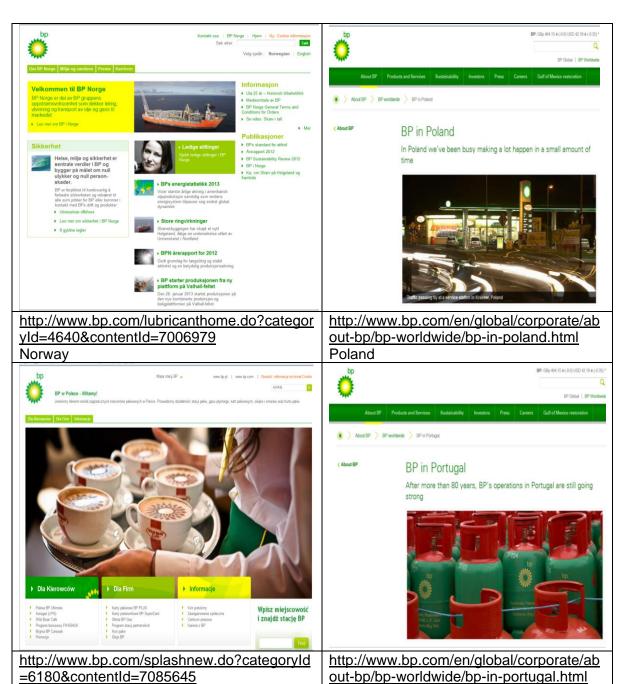


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Georgia



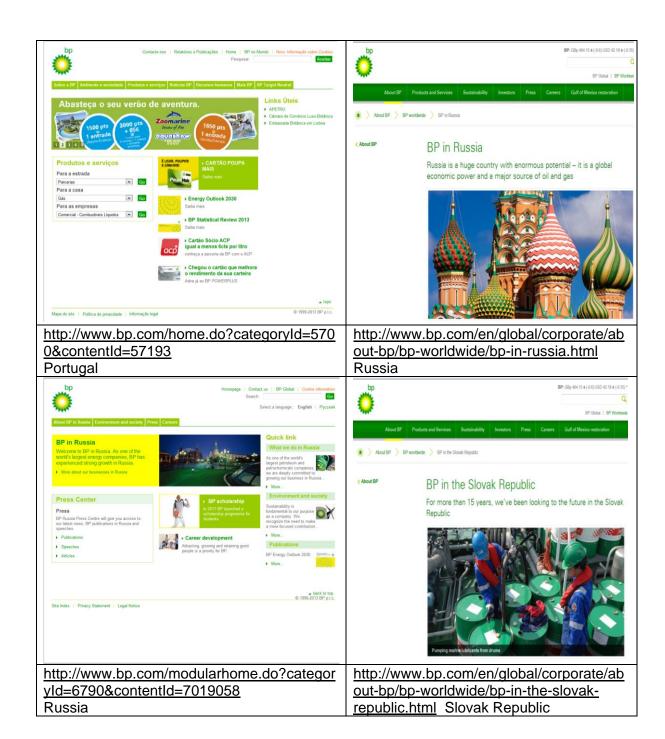


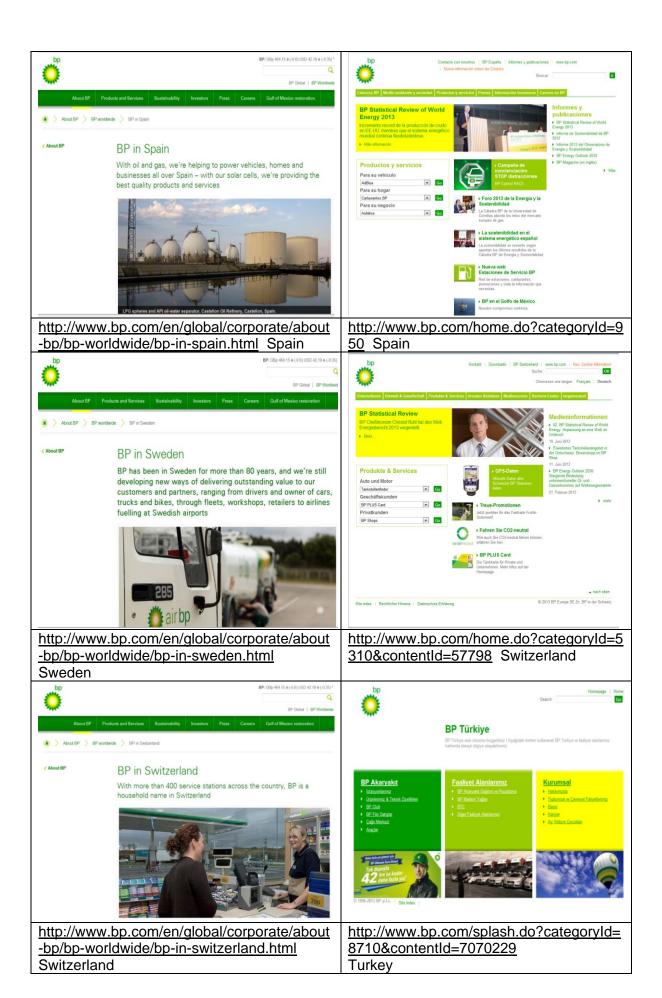


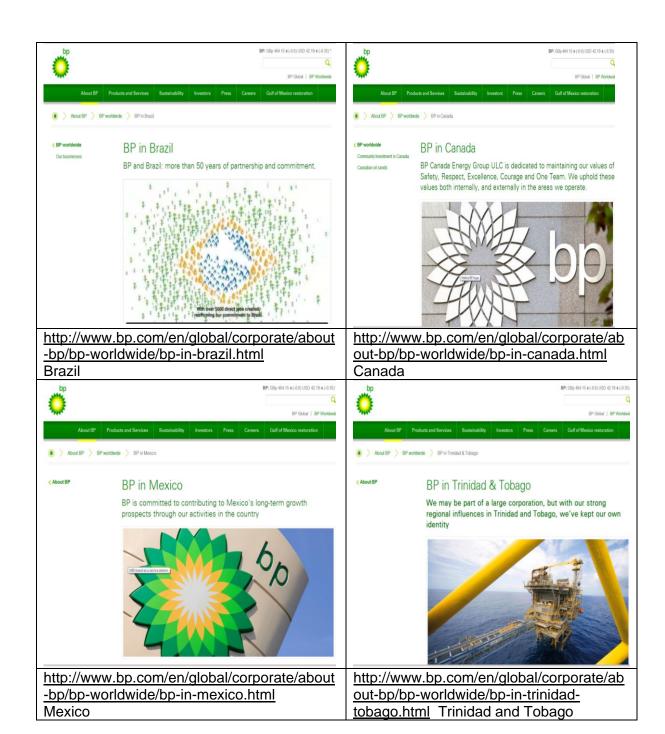


Poland

Portugal











http://www.bp.com/en/global/corporate/about -bp/bp-worldwide/bp-in-america.html America http://www.bp.com/en/global/corporate/ab out-bp/bp-worldwide/bp-in-australia.html Australia



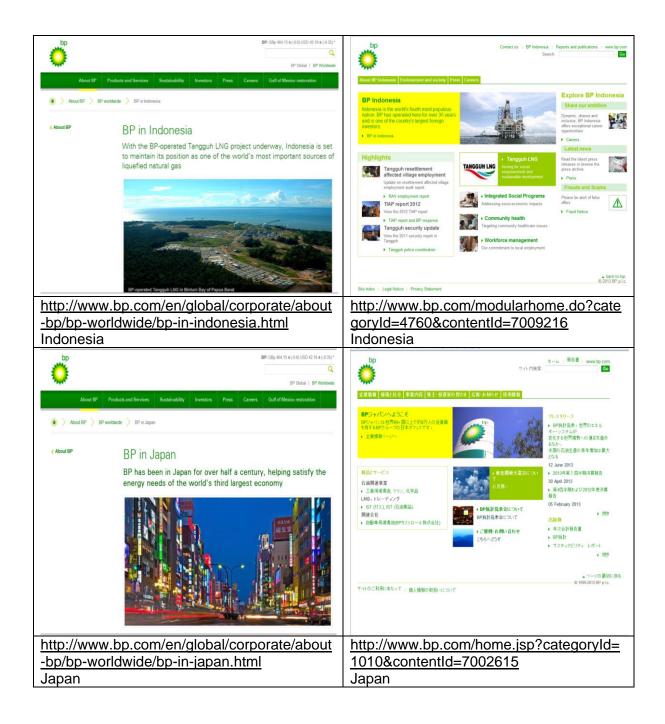


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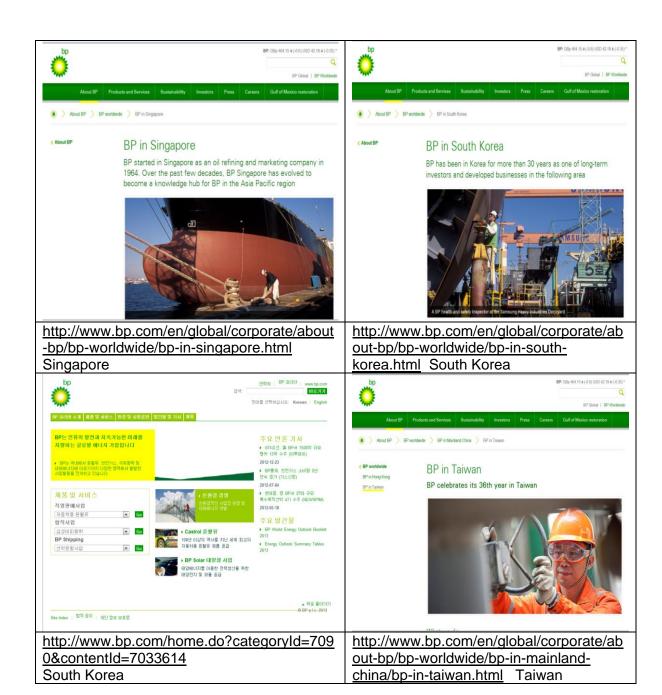
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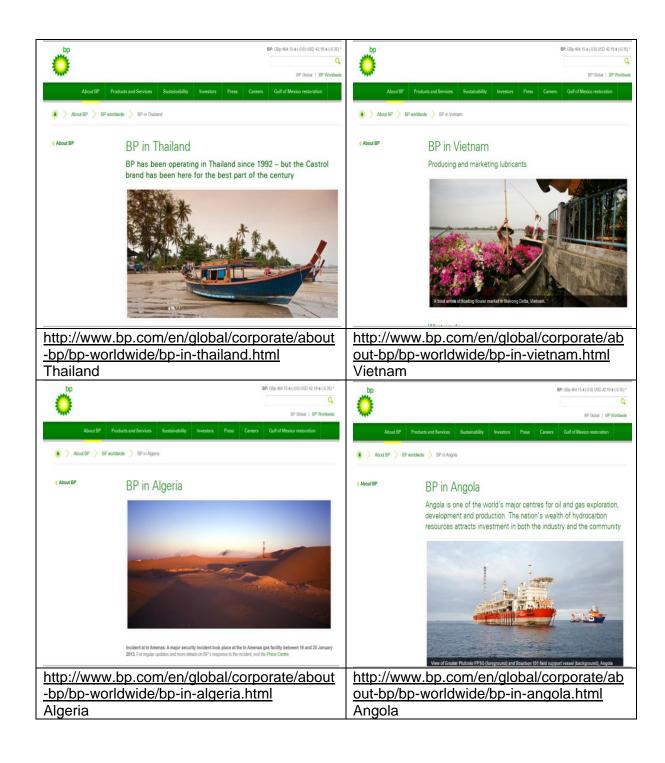
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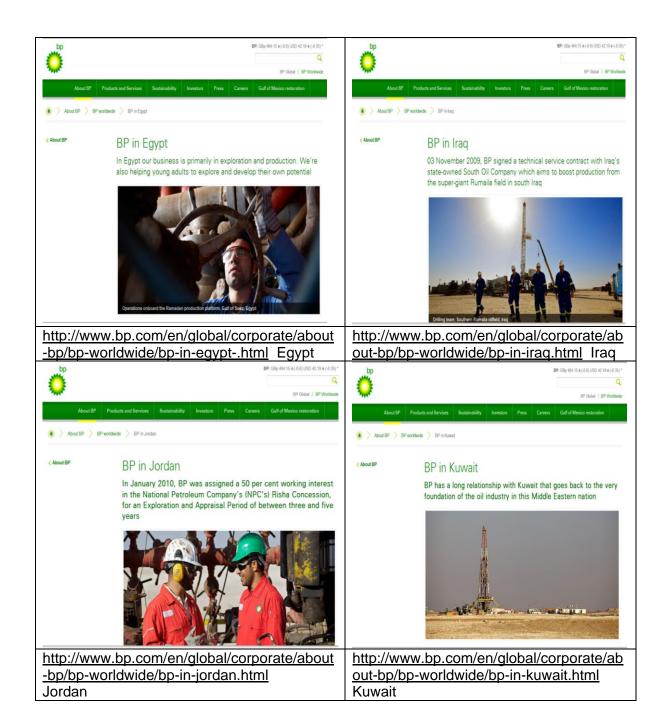


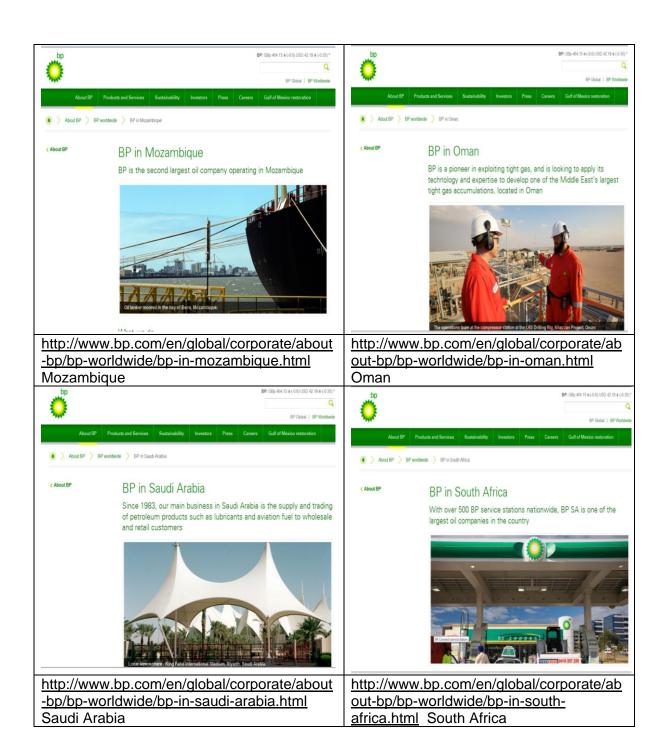


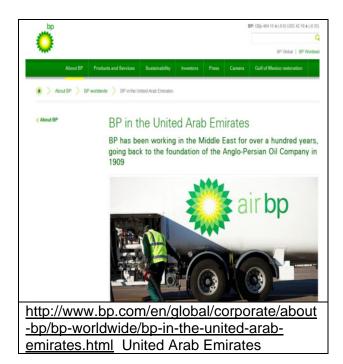
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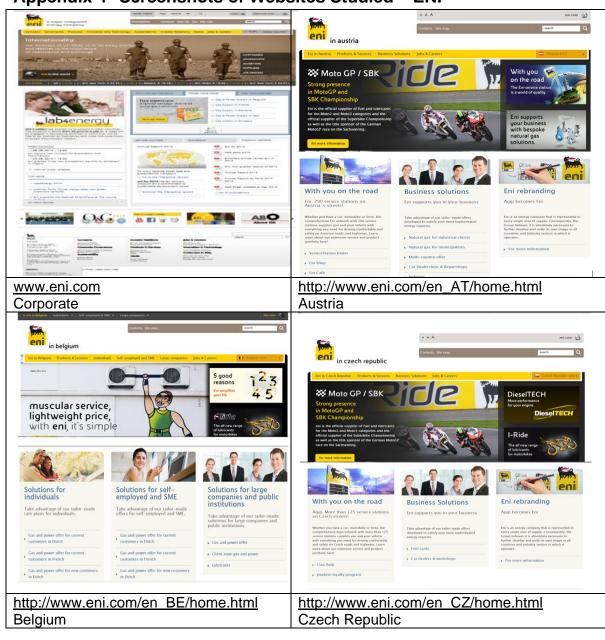




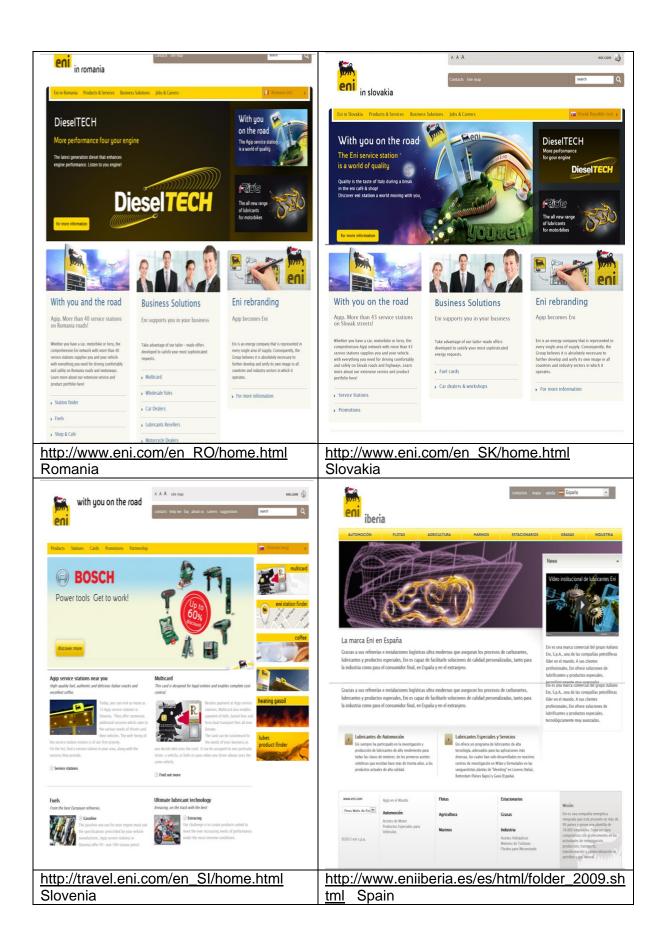


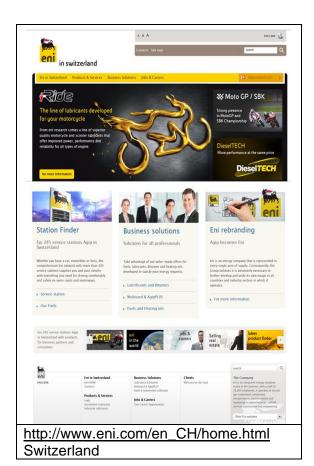


## Appendix 4 Screenshots of Websites Studied - ENI

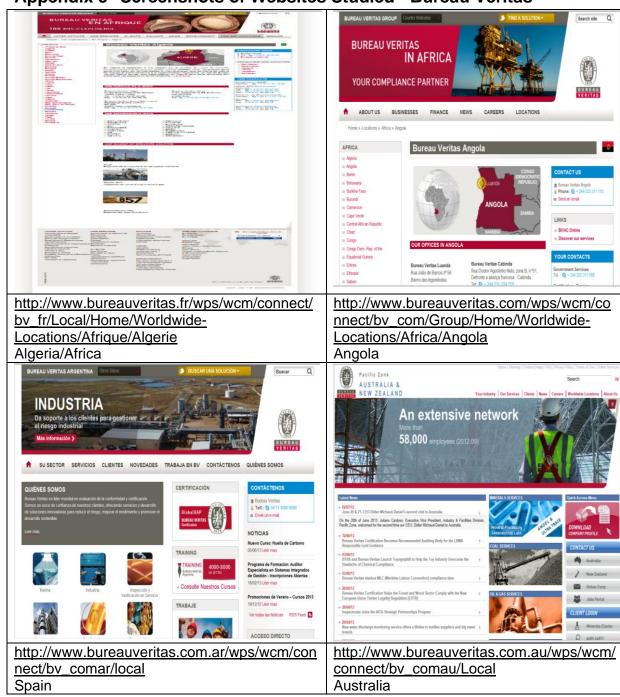


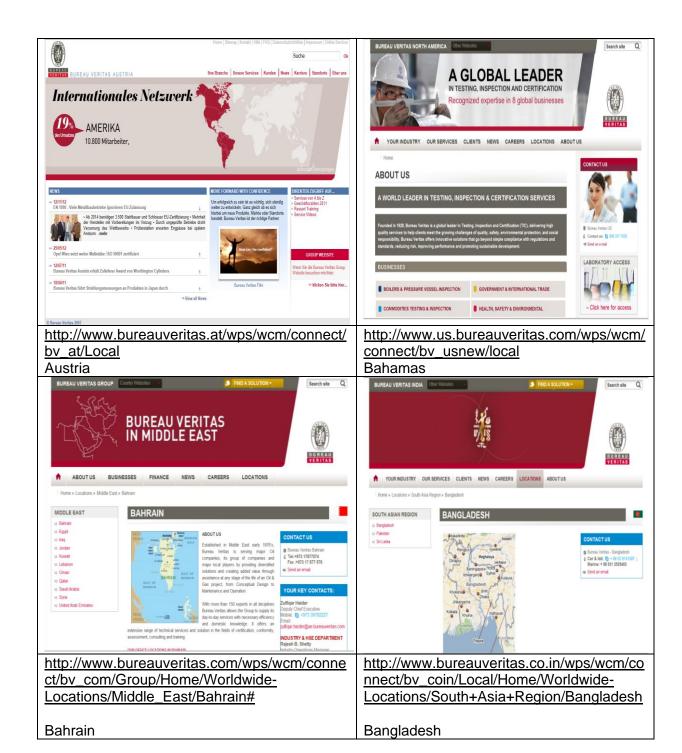


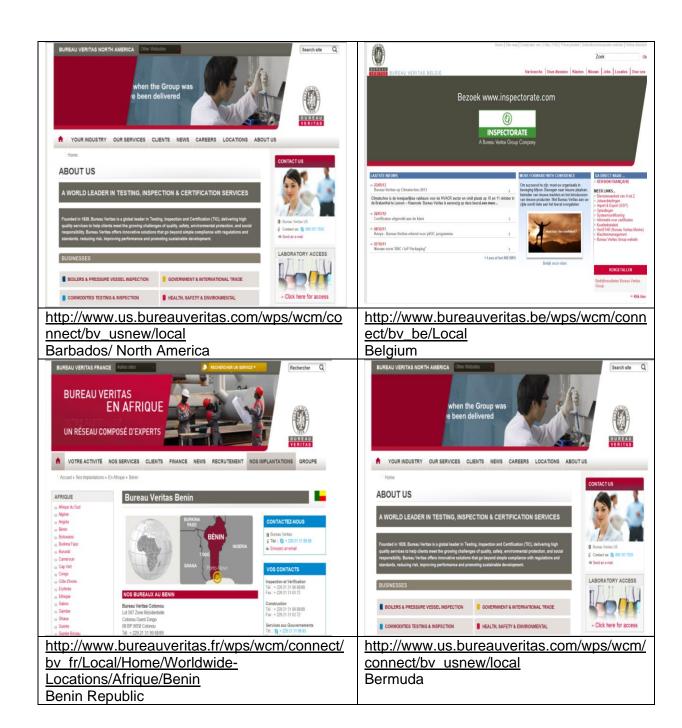


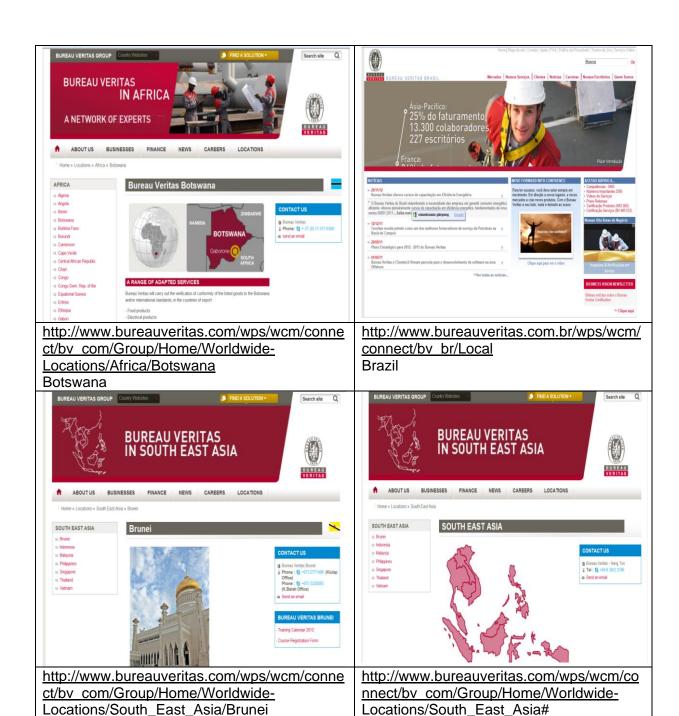






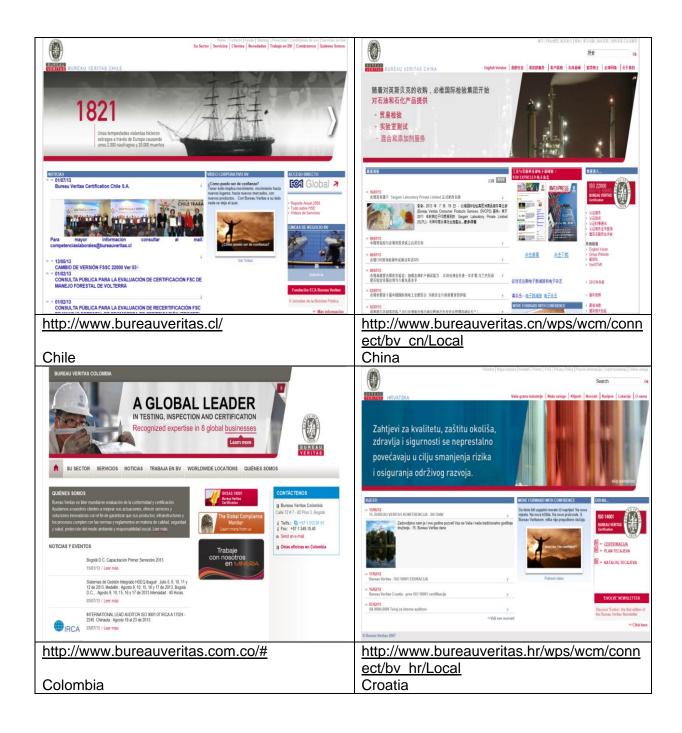


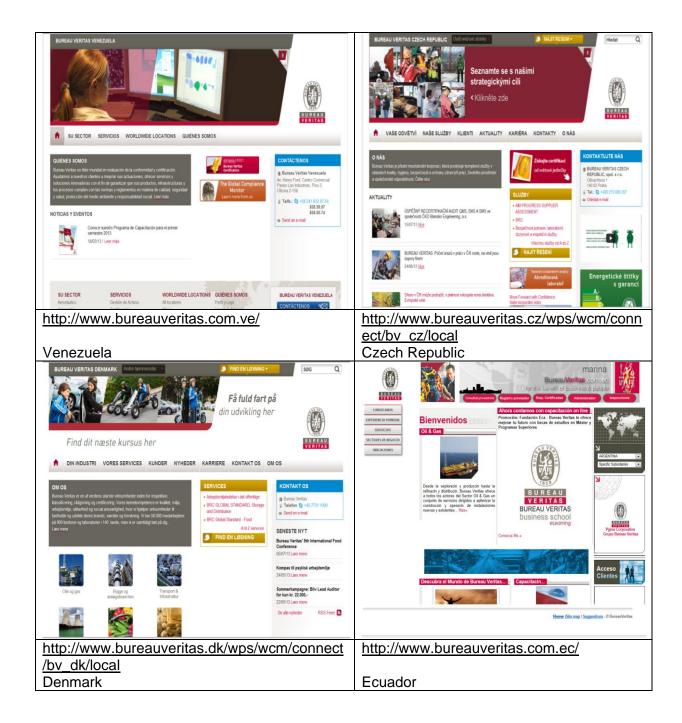


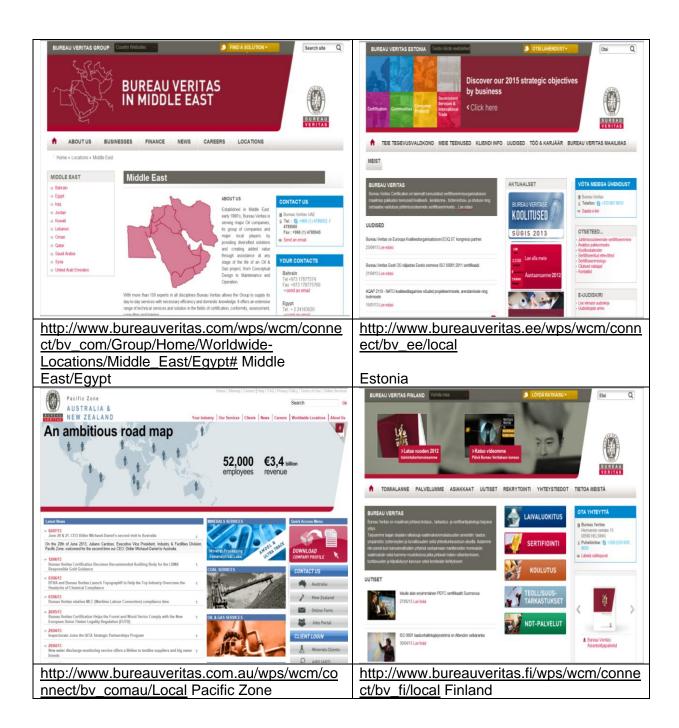


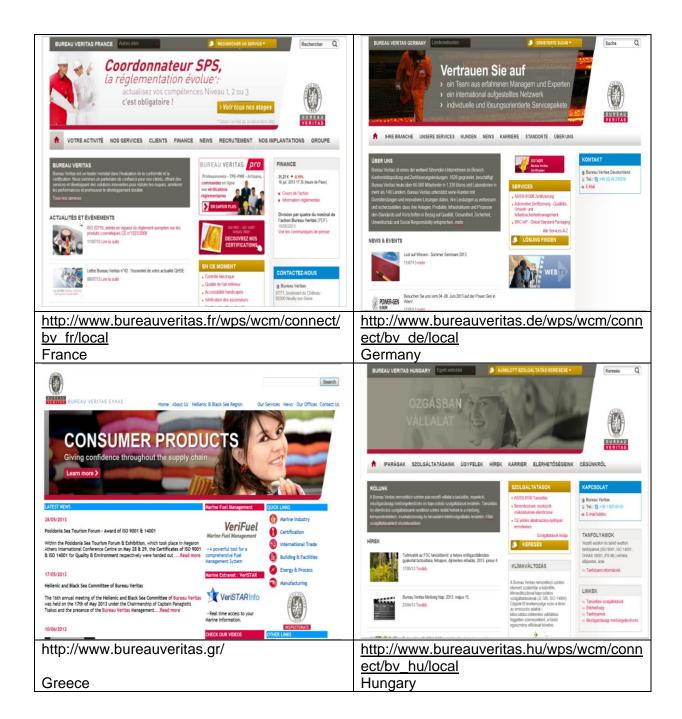
Brunei

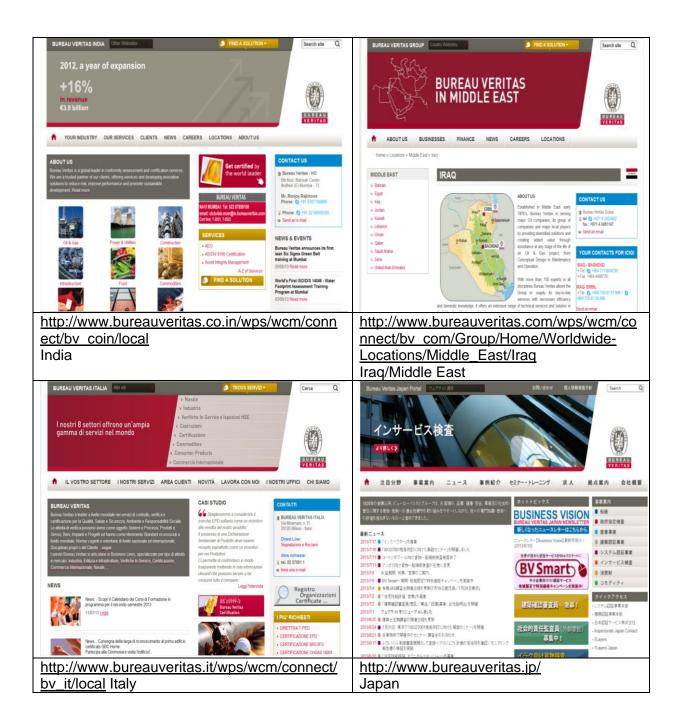
Bulgaria/ South East Asia

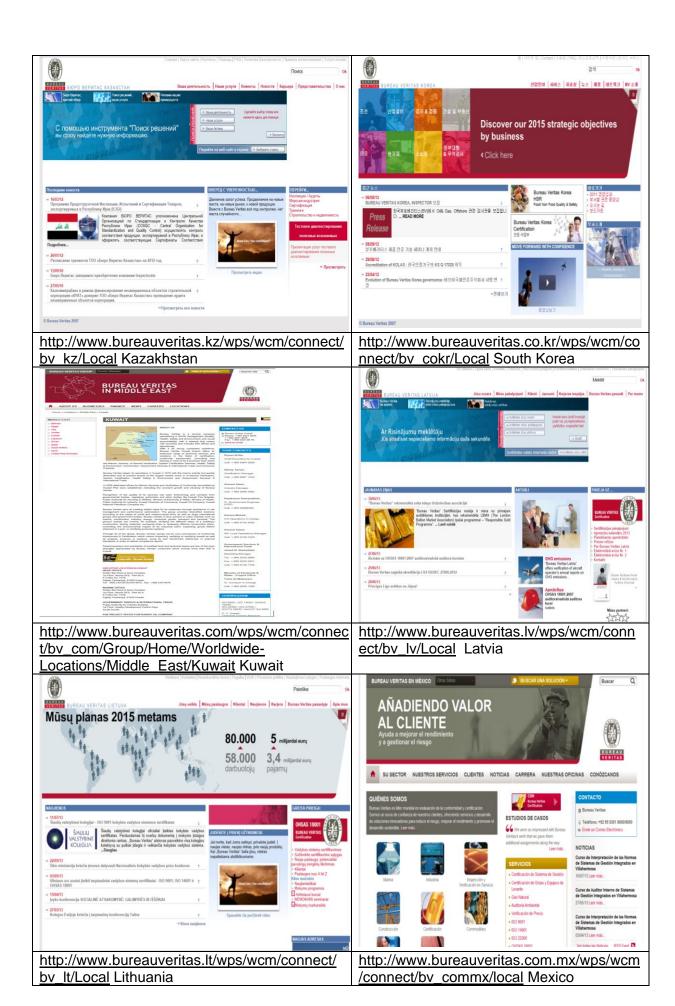


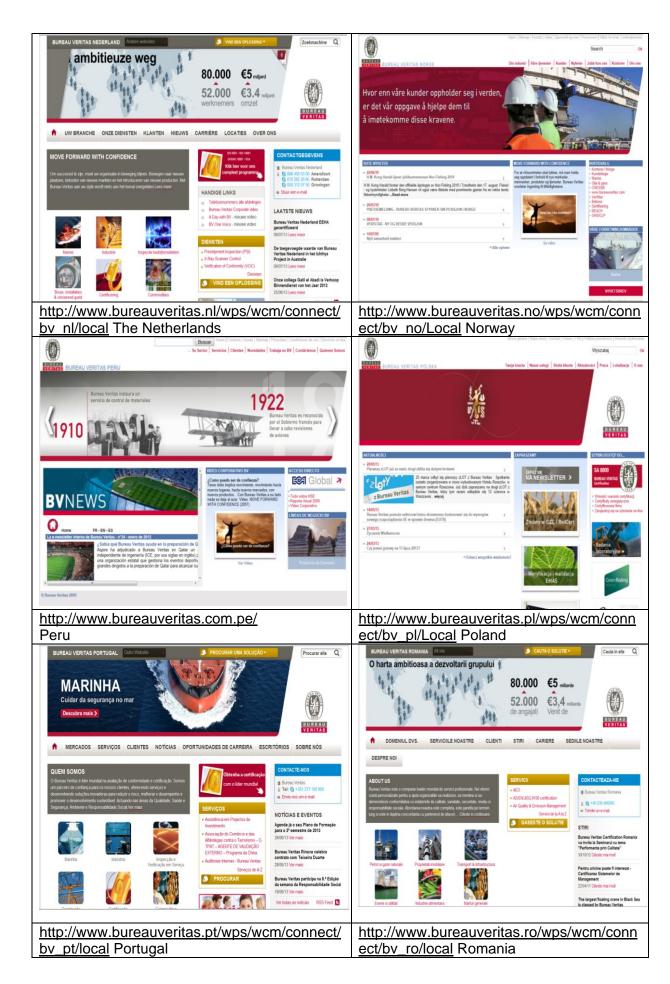


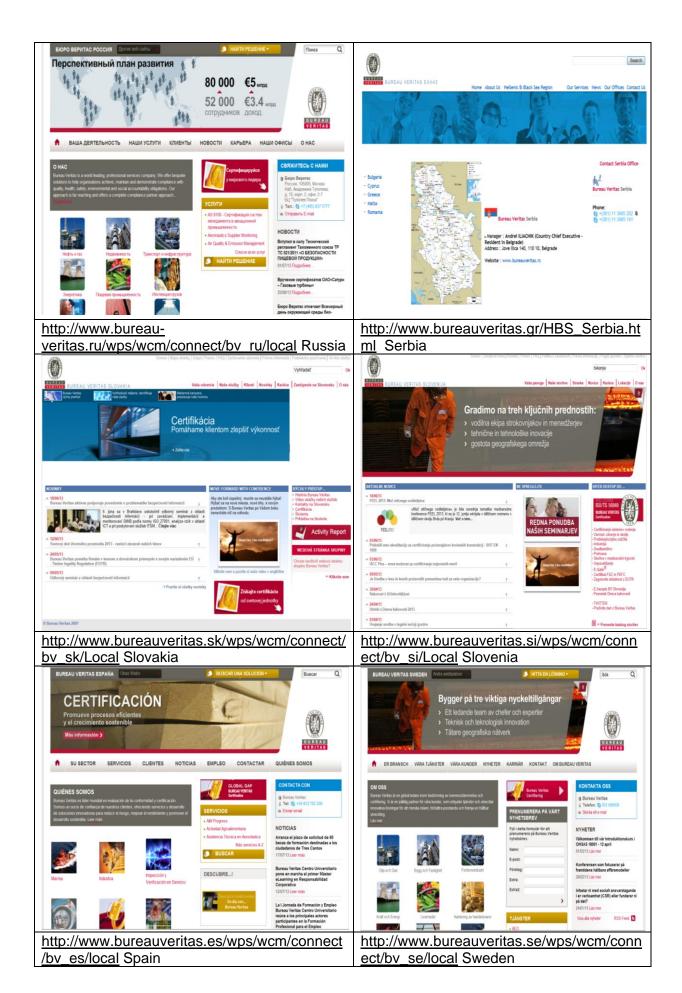


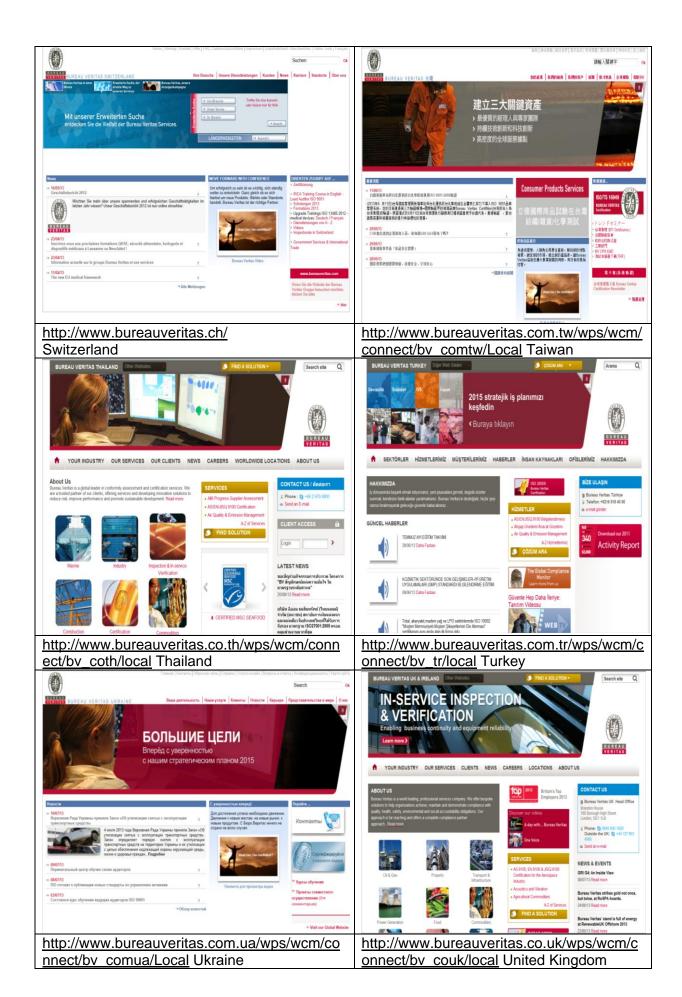


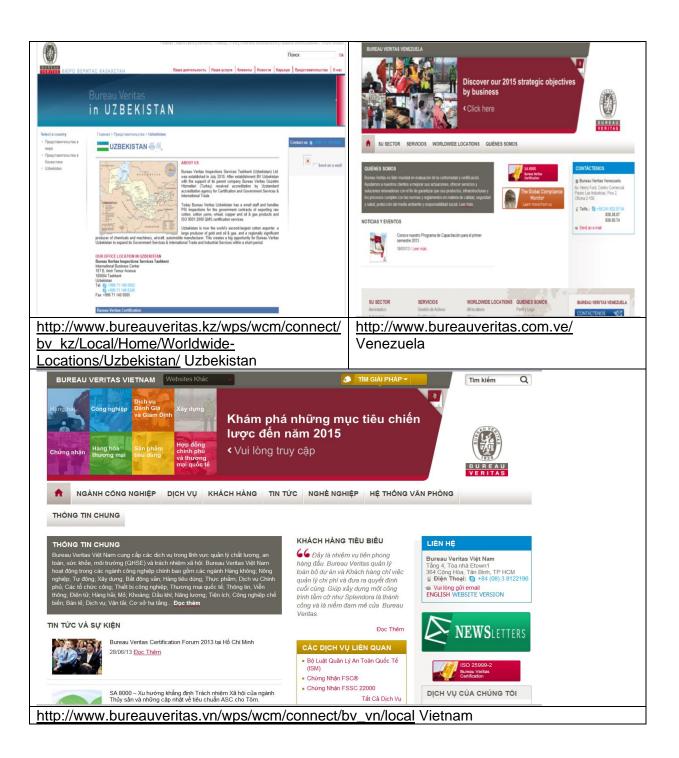




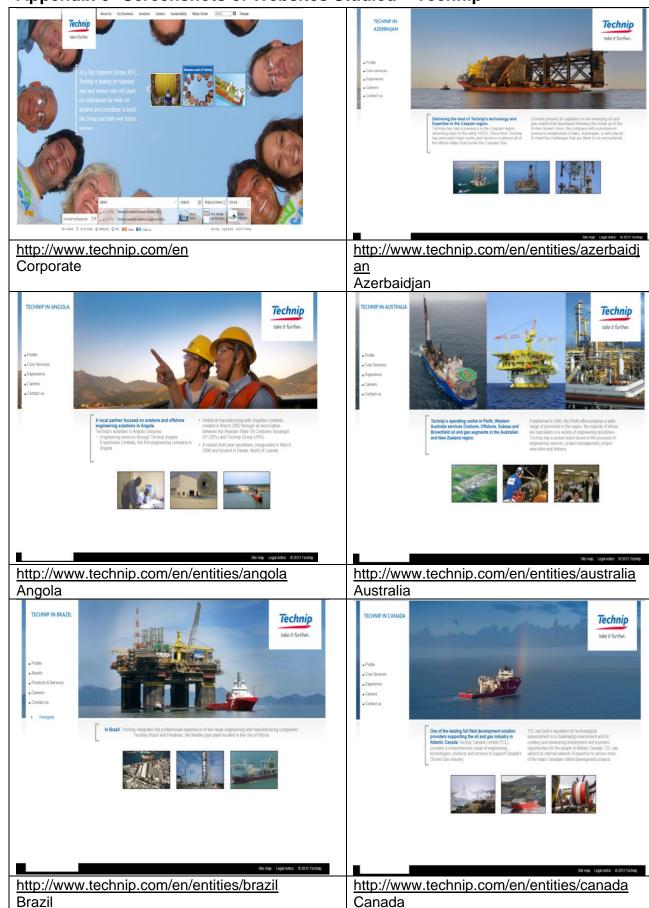


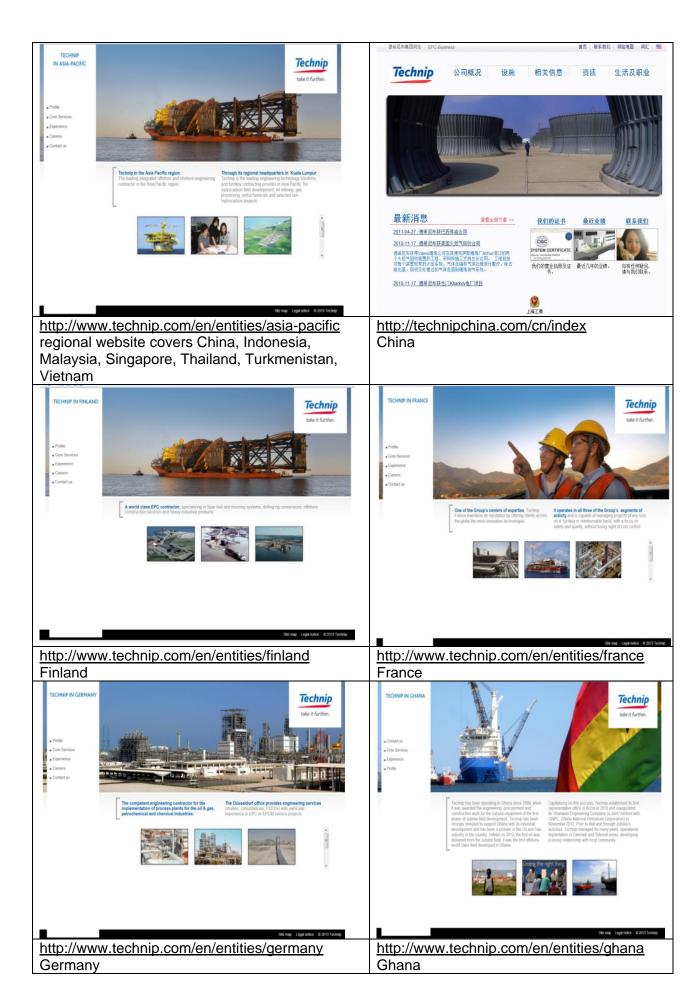


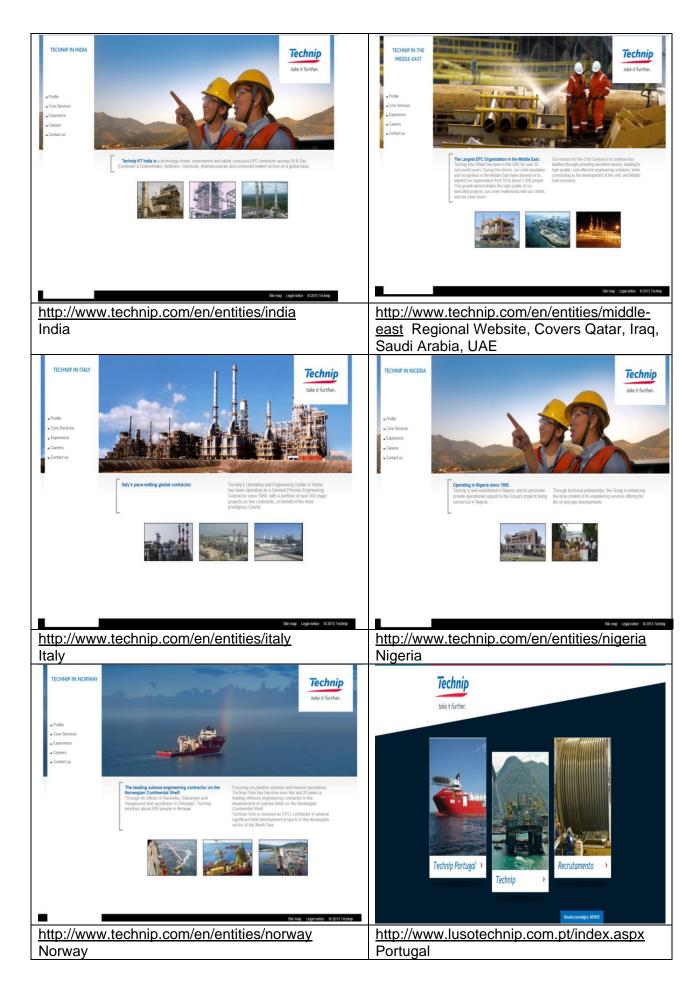


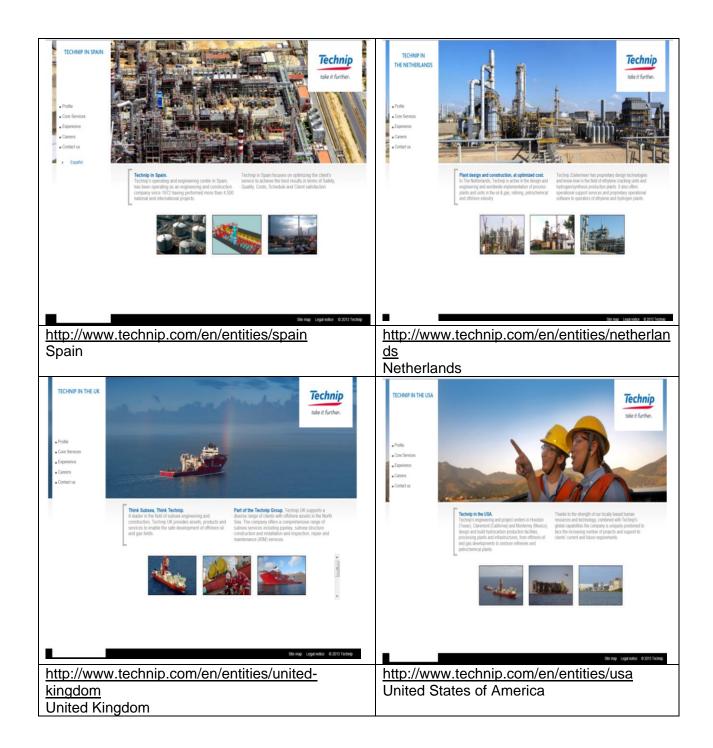


## Appendix 6 Screenshots of Websites Studied - Technip

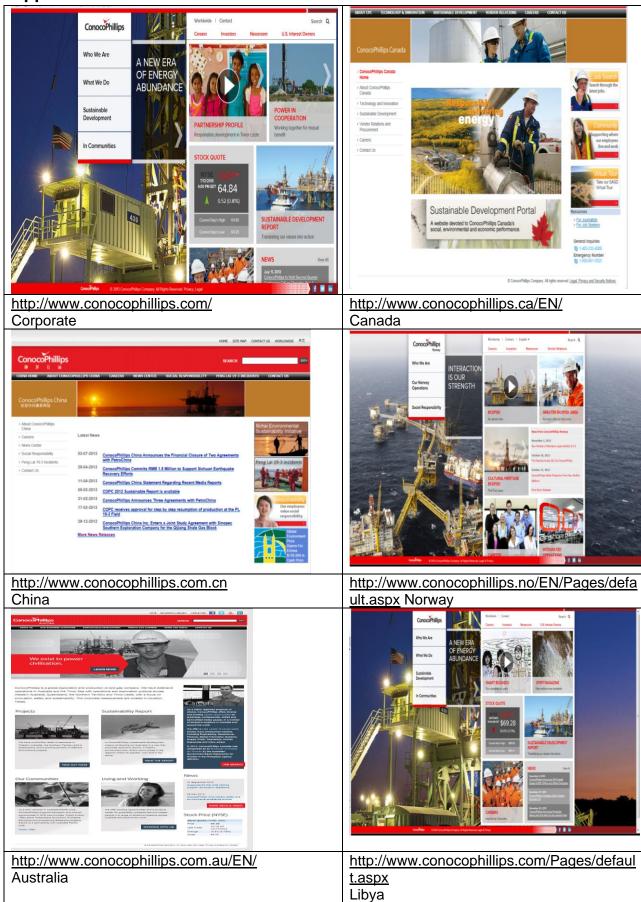




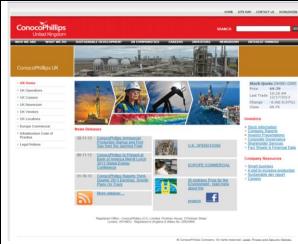




## Appendix 7 Screenshots of Websites Studied - Conoco







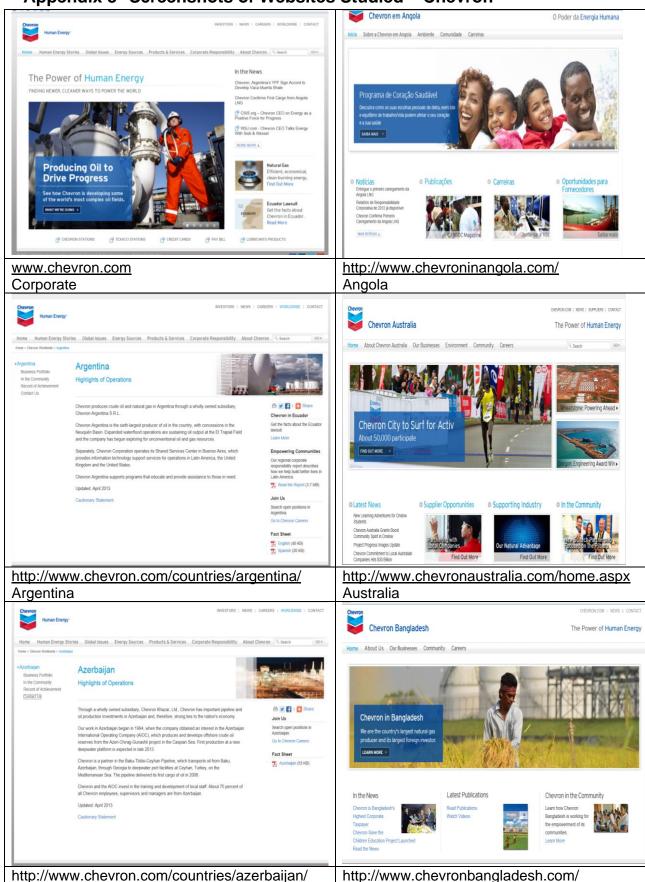
http://www.conocophillips.com.pl/EN/Poland

http://www.conocophillips.co.uk/EN/ United Kingdom



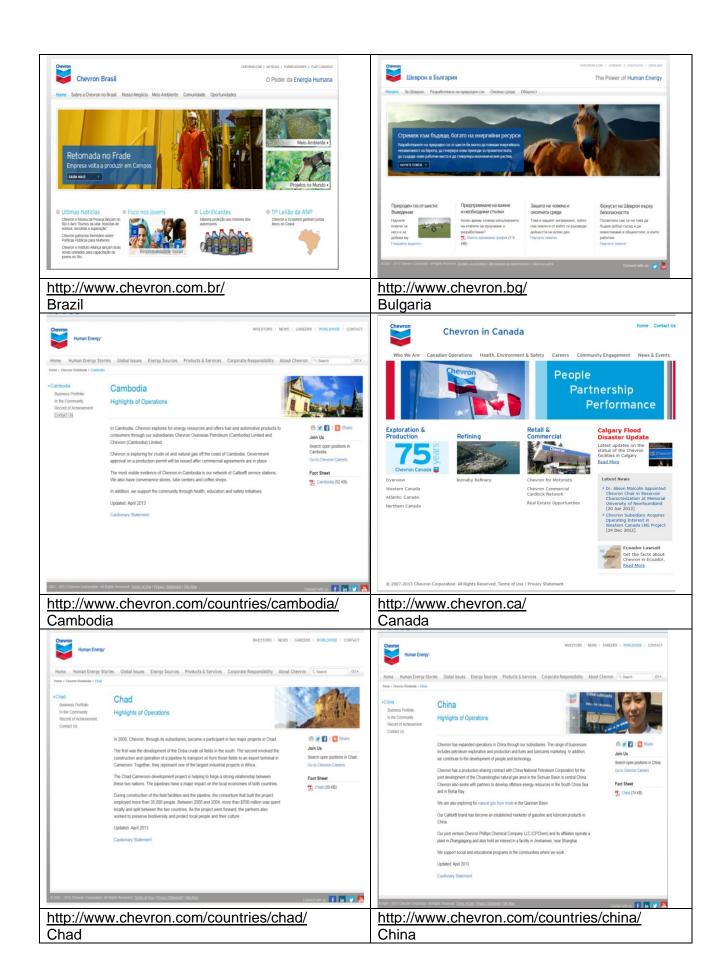
http://alaska.conocophillips.com/Pages/default.as <u>px</u> US Alaska

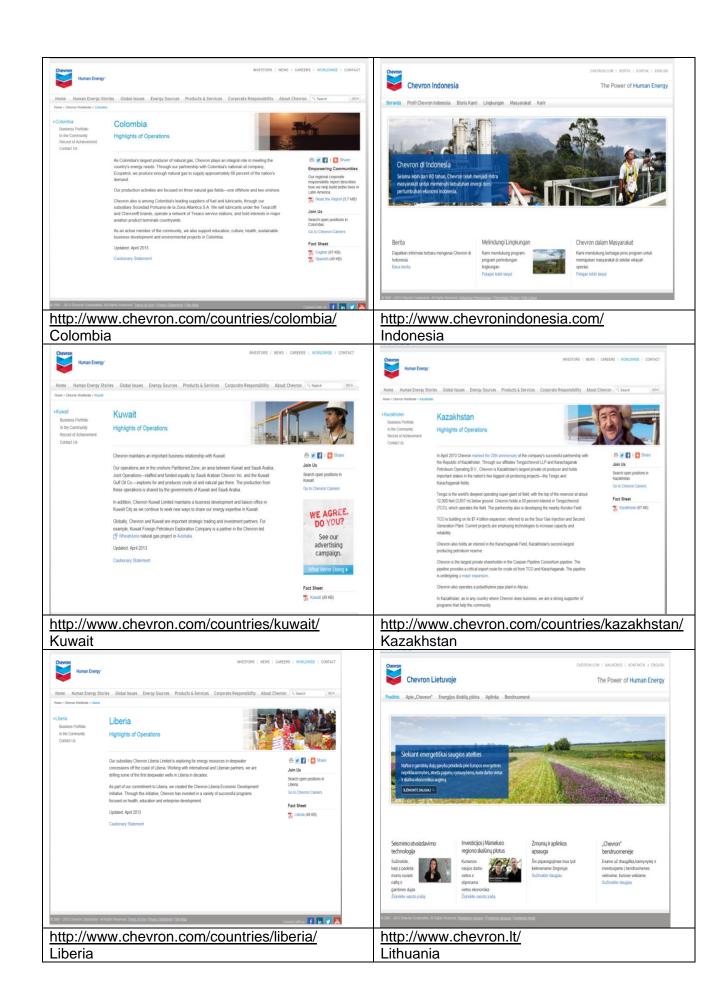
#### **Appendix 8 Screenshots of Websites Studied – Chevron**

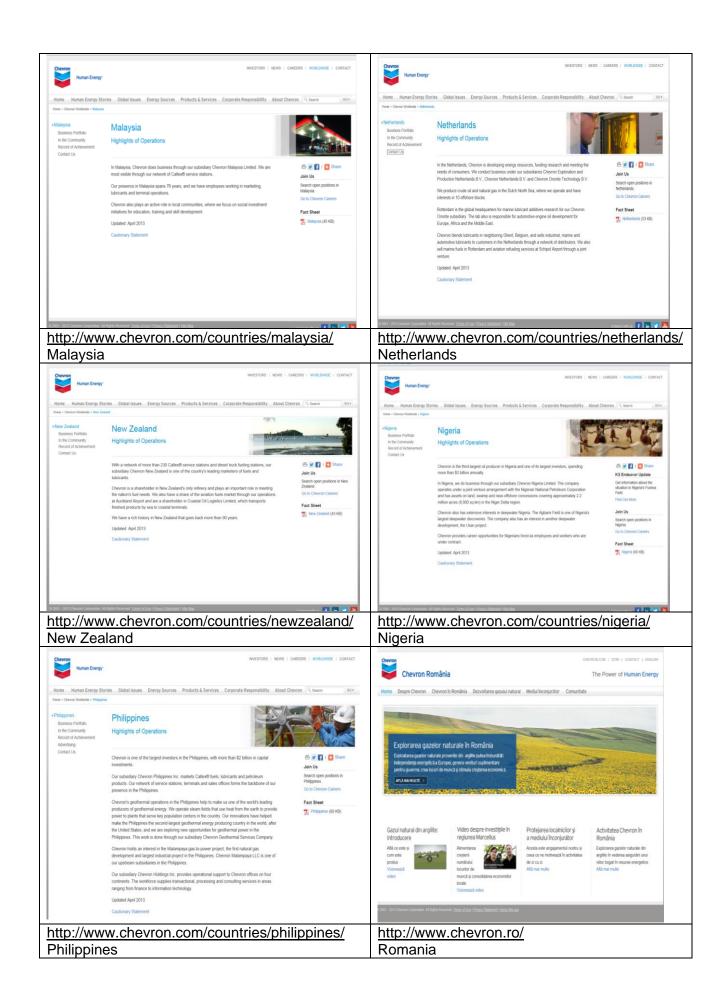


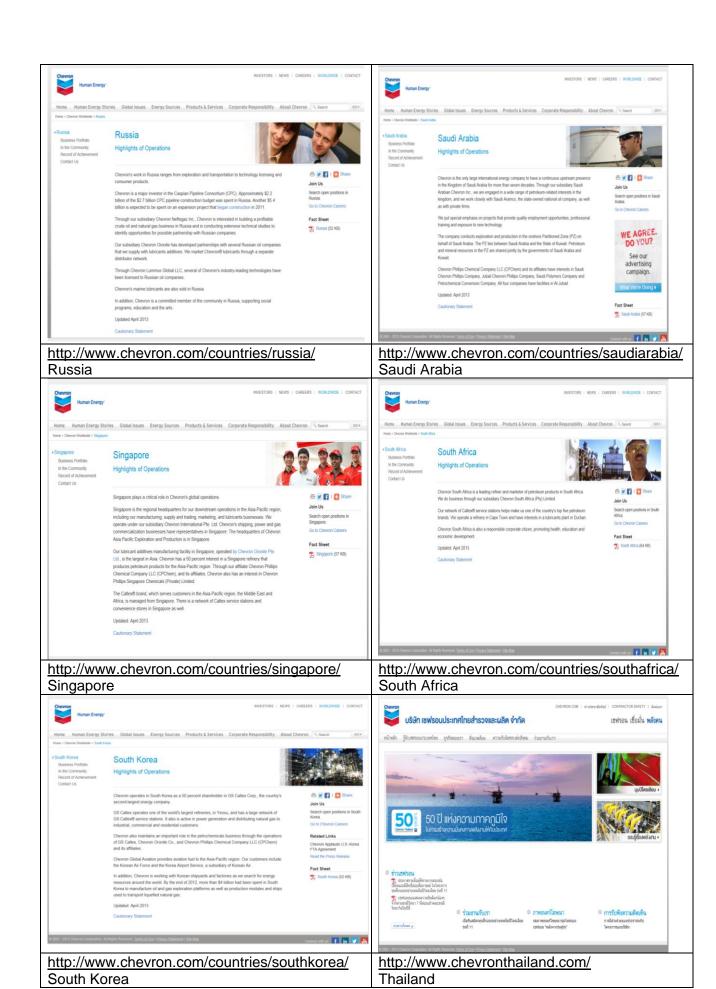
Bangladesh

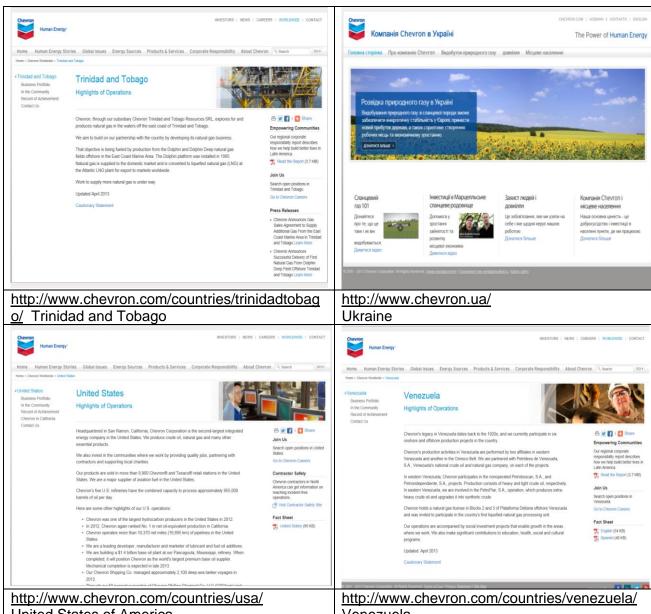
Azerbaijan



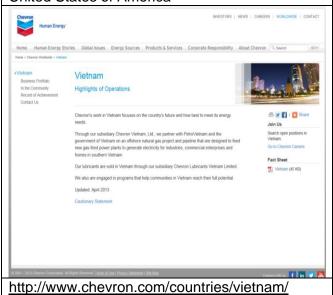








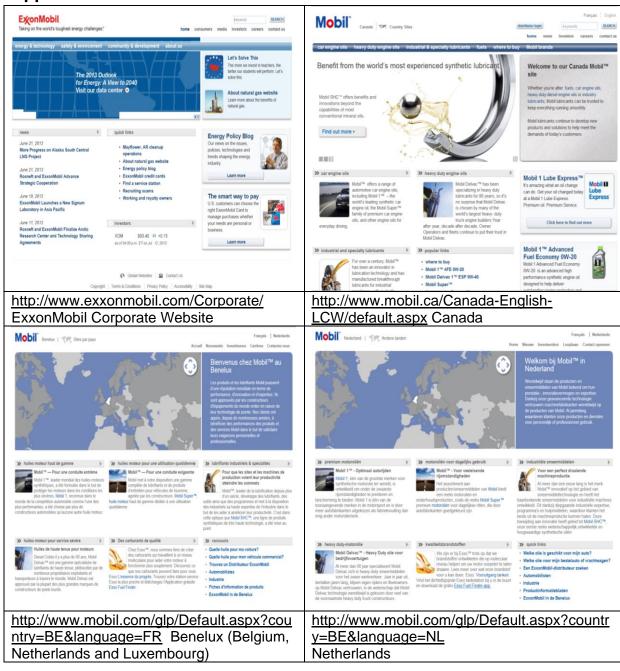
United States of America



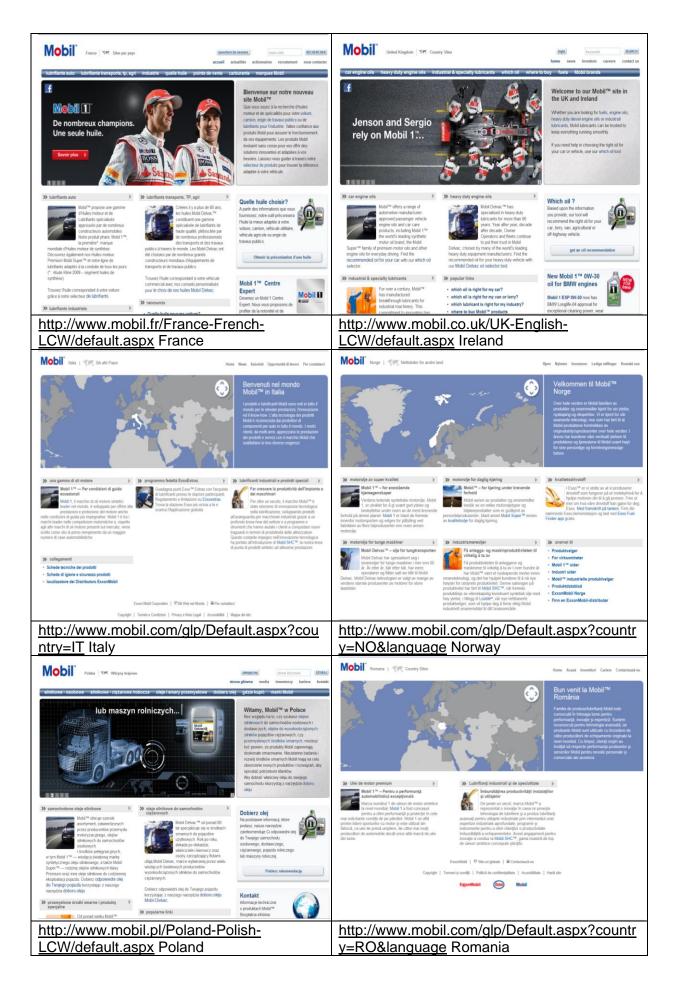
Vietnam

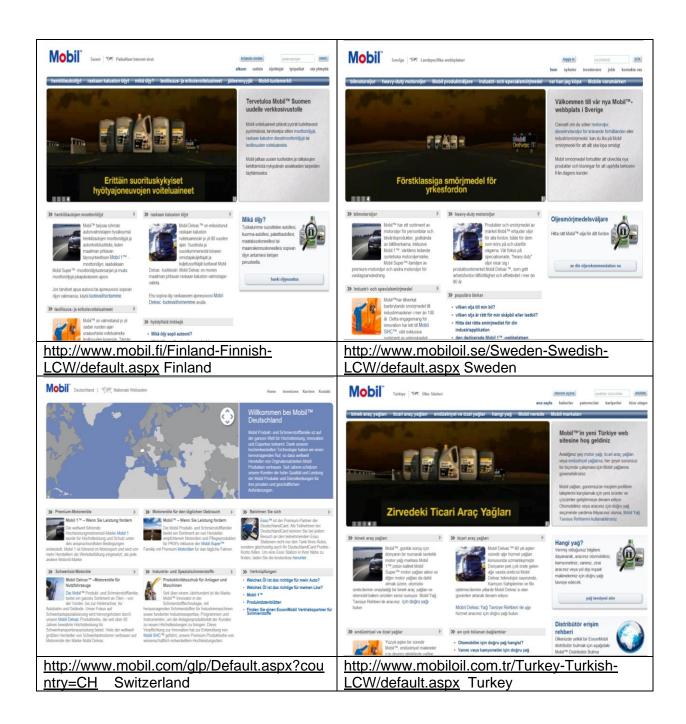
Venezuela

### Appendix 9 Screenshots of Websites Studied – ExxonMobil

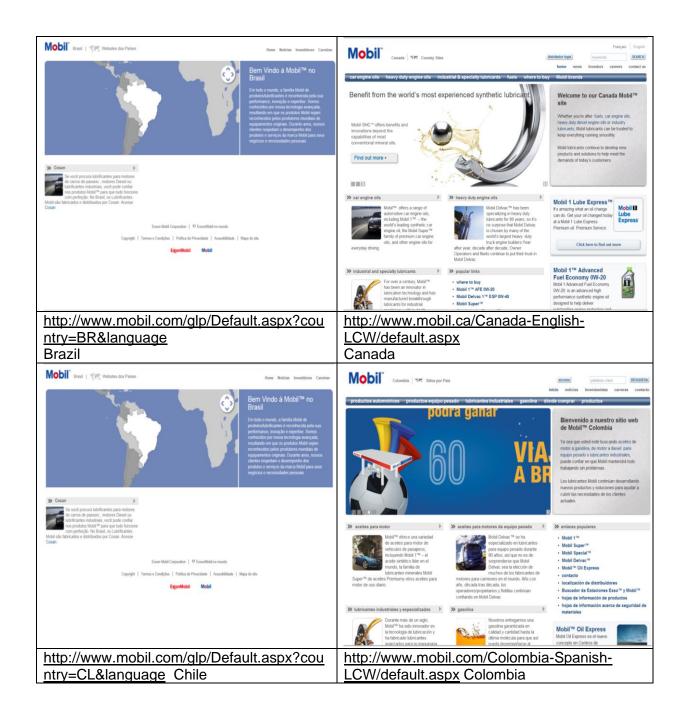


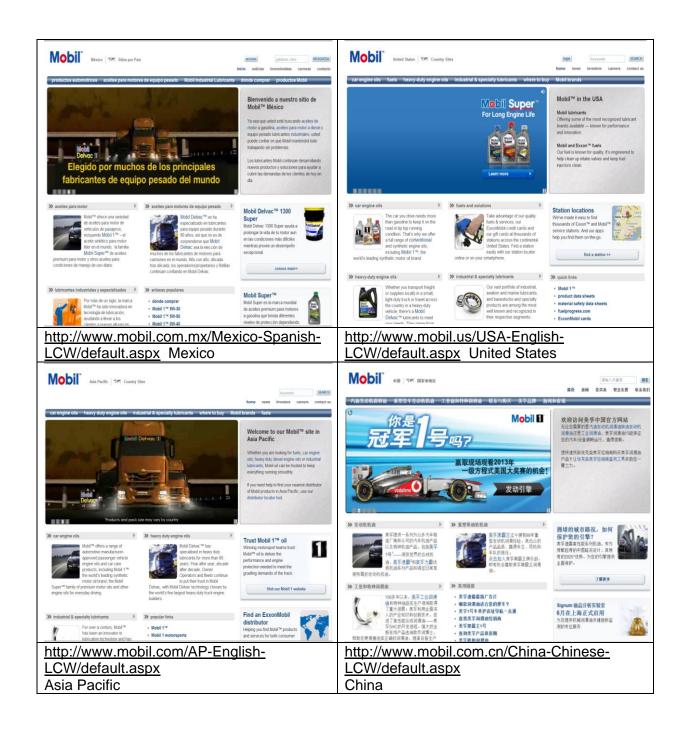


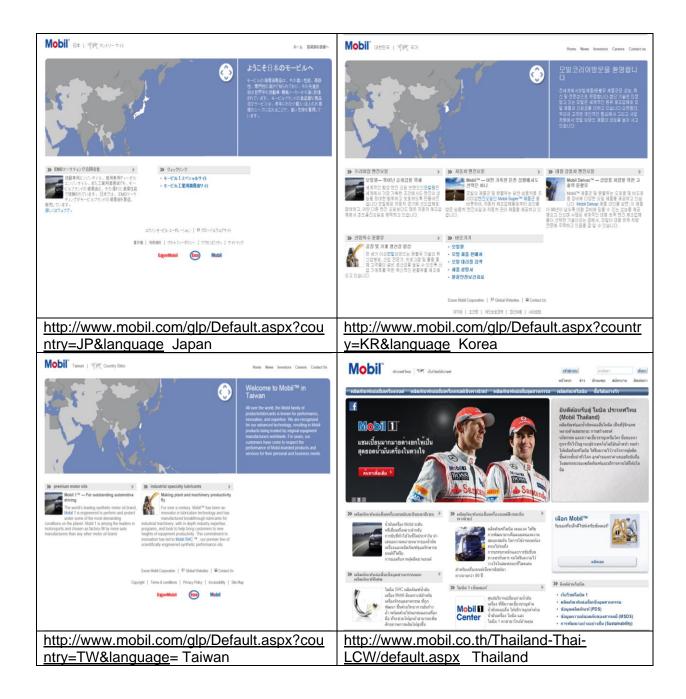


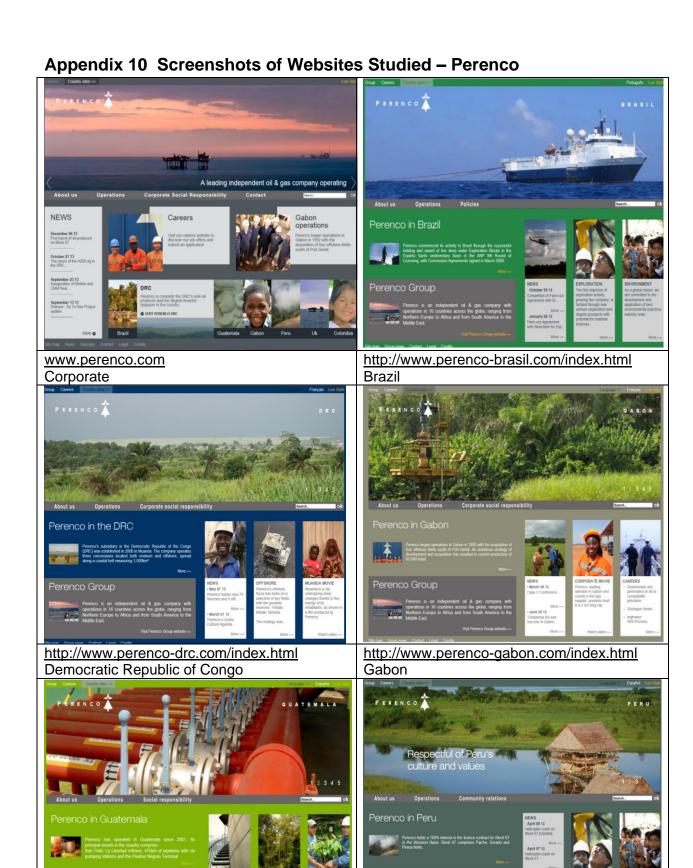












http://www.perenco-guatemala.com/index.html Guatemala

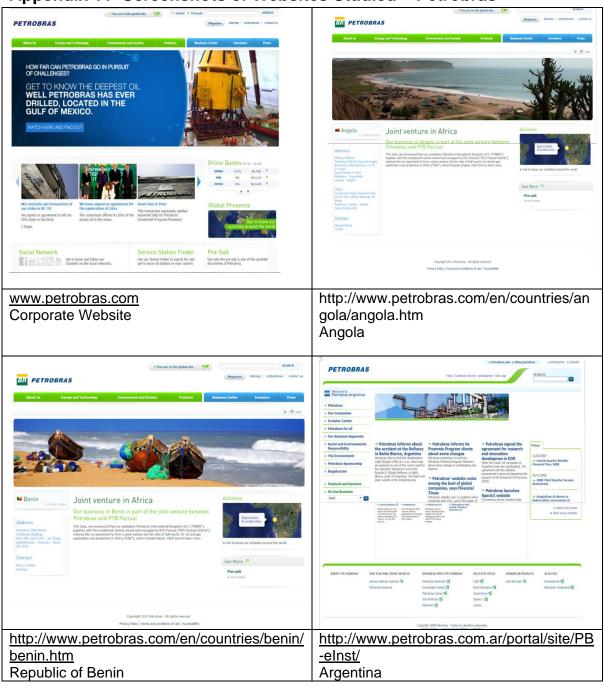
Perenco Group

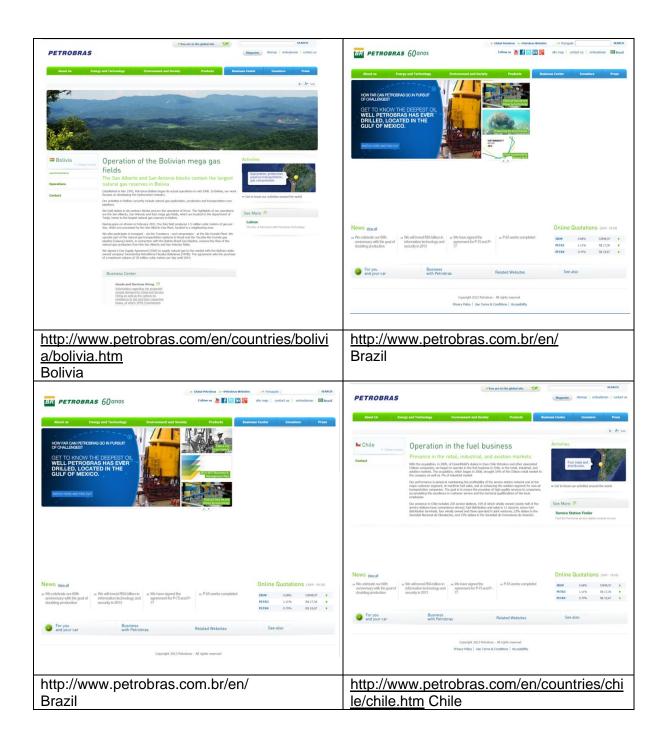
http://www.perenco-peru.com/index.html
Peru

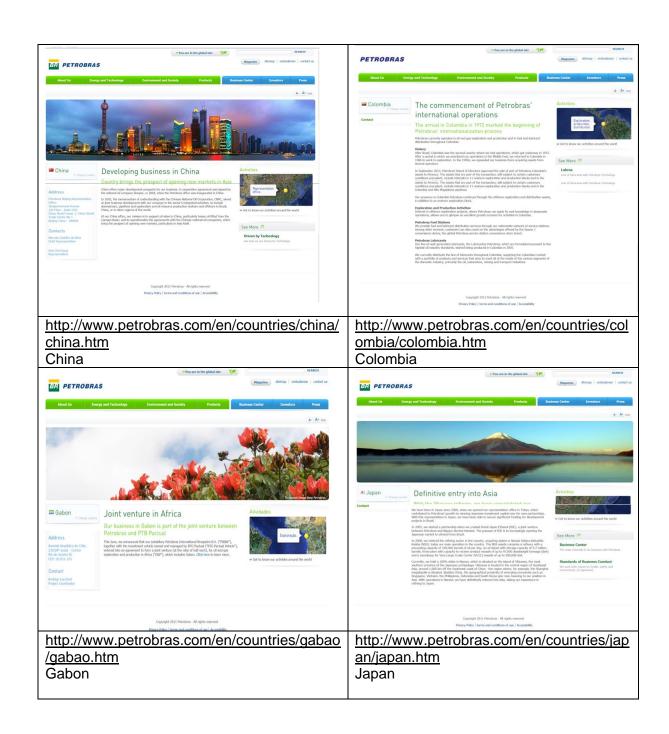
Perenco Group

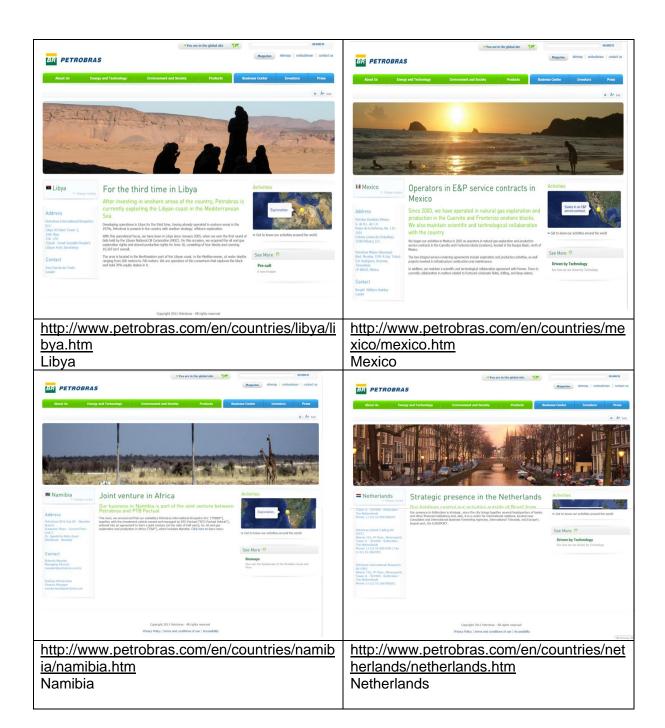


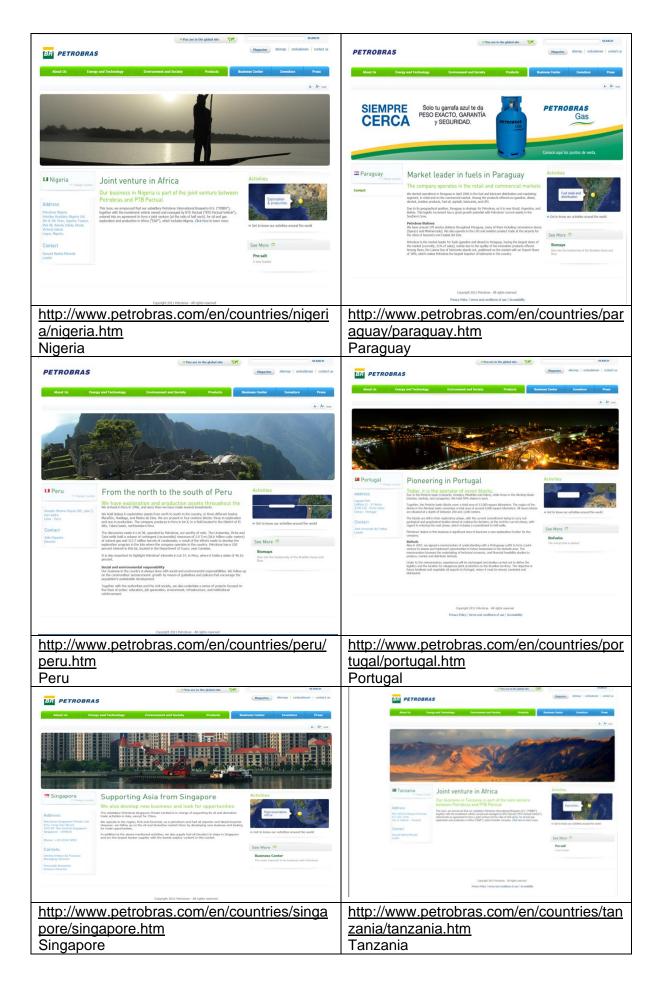
# **Appendix 11 Screenshots of Websites Studied – Petrobras**

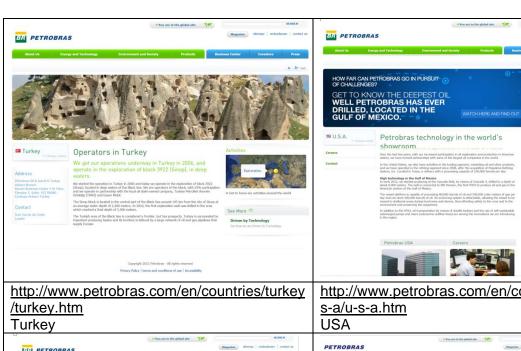












ER PETROBRAS

http://www.petrobras.com/en/countries/u-



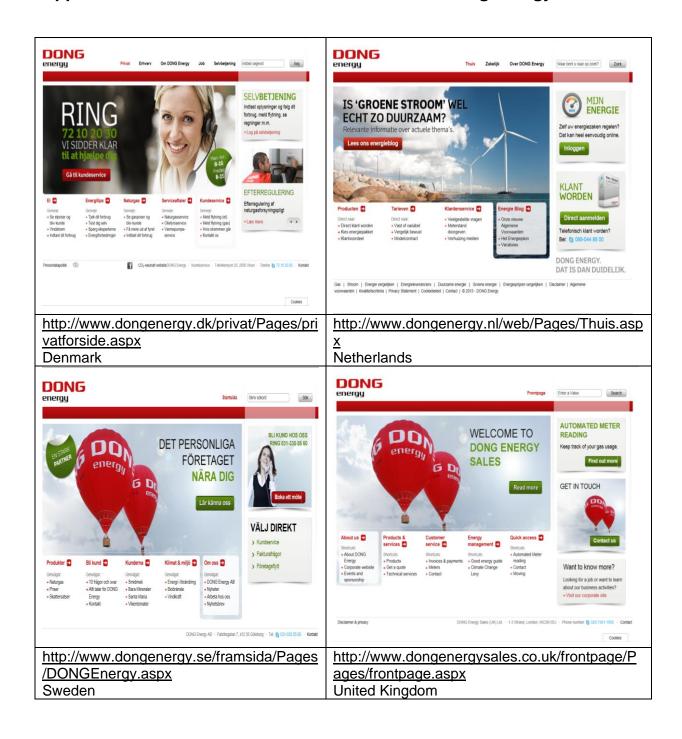
http://www.petrobras.com/en/countries/united -kingdom/united-kingdom.htm United Kingdom

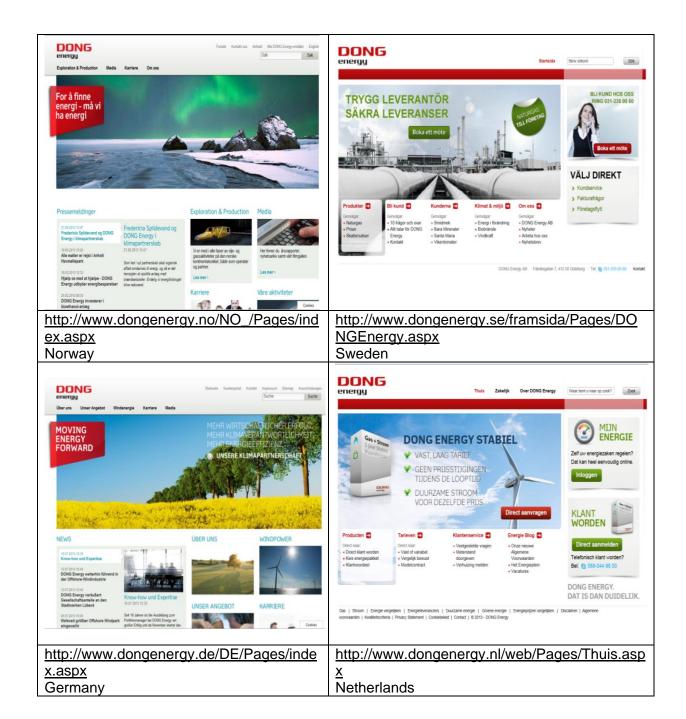
http://www.petrobras.com/en/countries/uru guay/uruguay.htm Uruguay



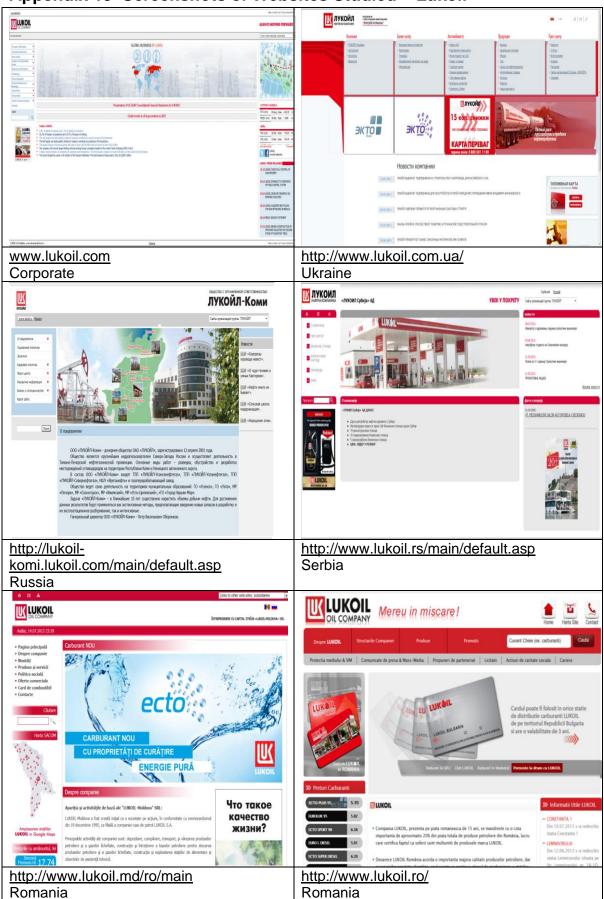
http://www.petrobras.com/en/countries/venez uela/venezuela.htm Venezuela

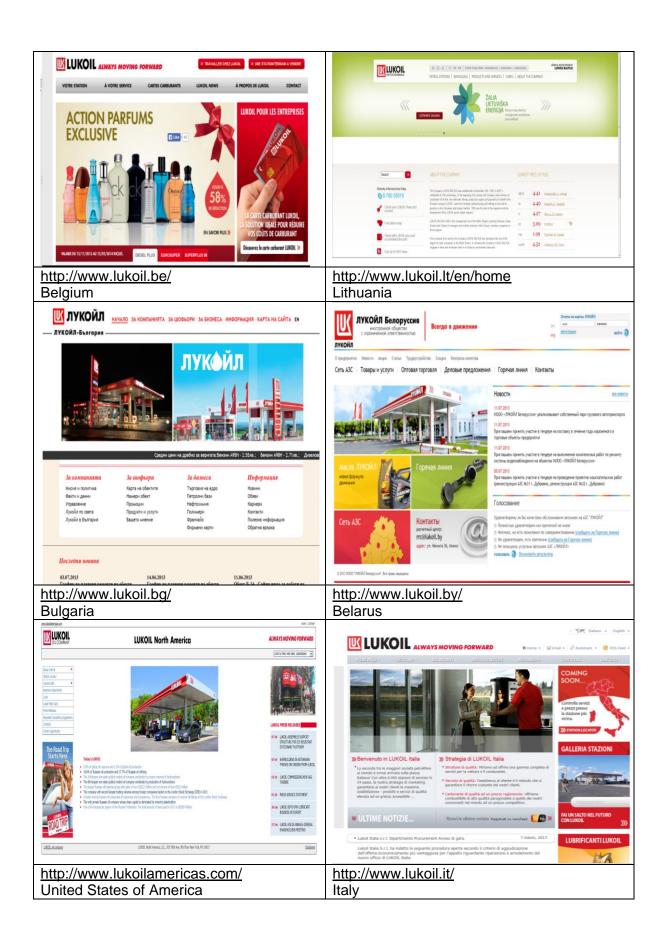
## **Appendix 12 Screenshots of Websites Studied - Dong Energy**





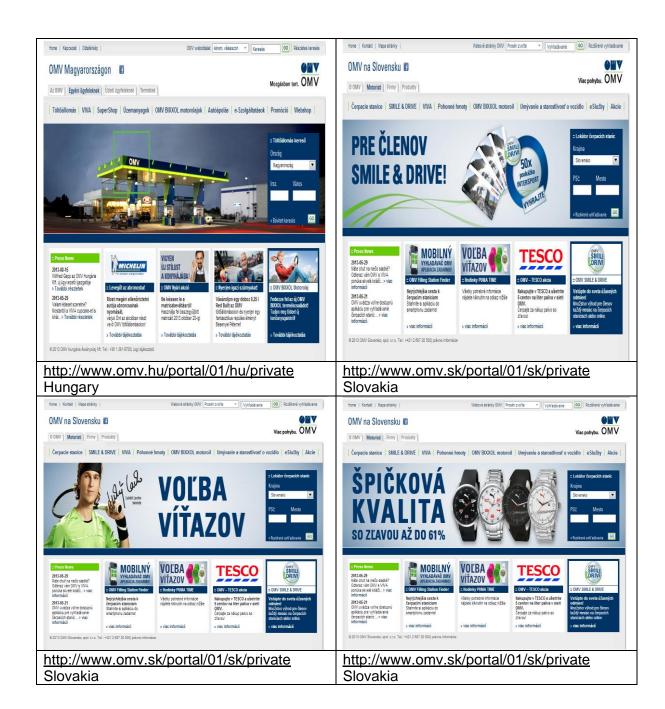
## Appendix 13 Screenshots of Websites Studied - Lukoil





### **Appendix 14 Screenshots of Websites Studied - OMV Group**











### http://www.omv.si/portal/01/si/private Slovenia



#### http://www.omv.co.rs/portal/01/rs/private Serbia



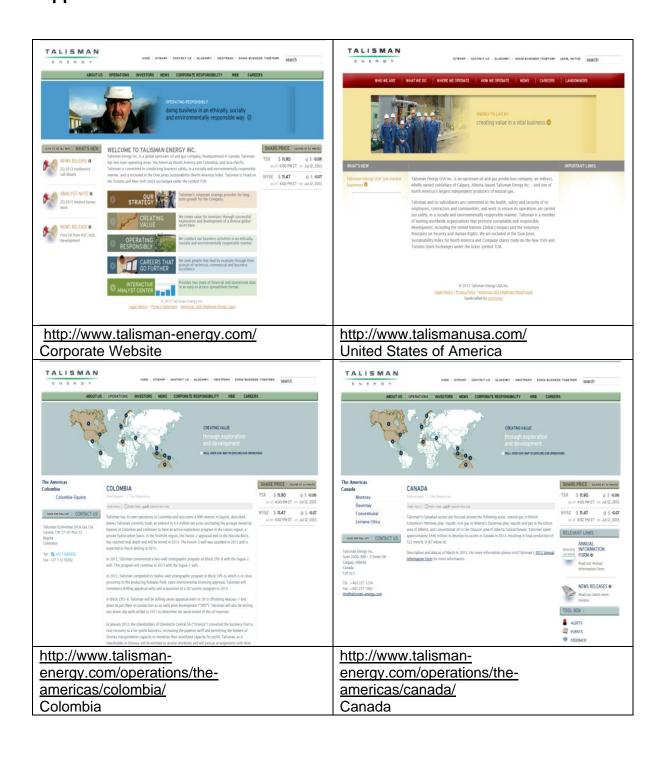
http://www.omv.com.tr/portal/01/tr Turkey

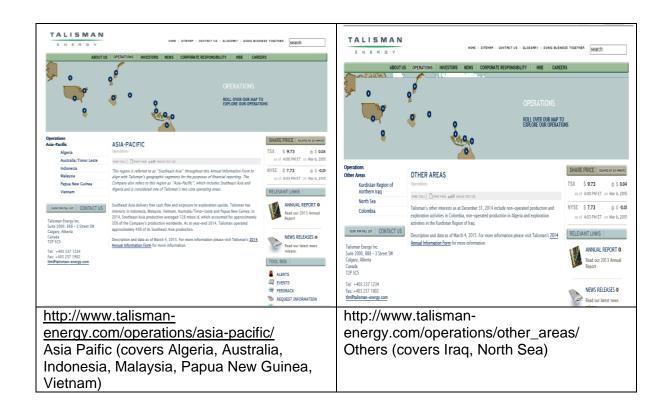
### http://www.omv.bg/portal/01/bg/private Bulgaria



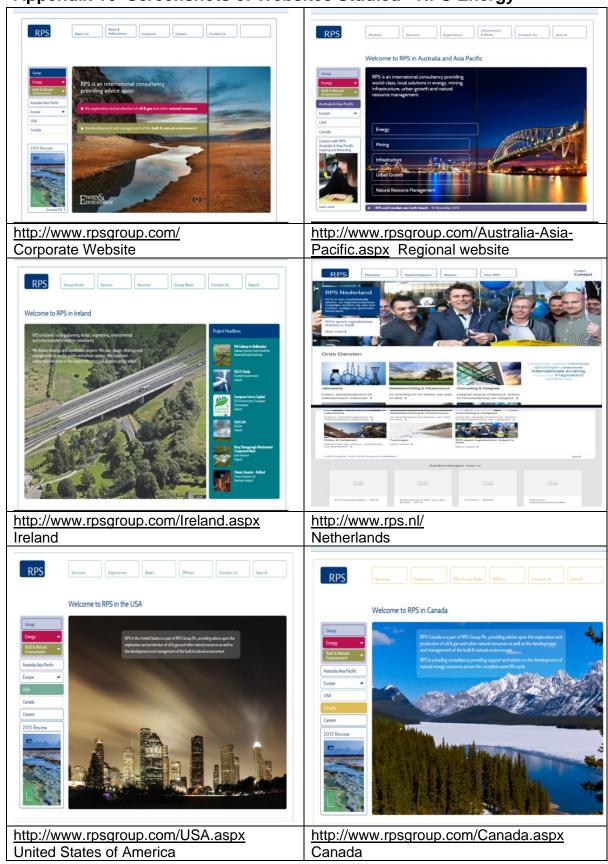
http://www.omvnorge.no/portal/01/no/private Norway

## **Appendix 15 Screenshots of Websites Studied – Talisman**



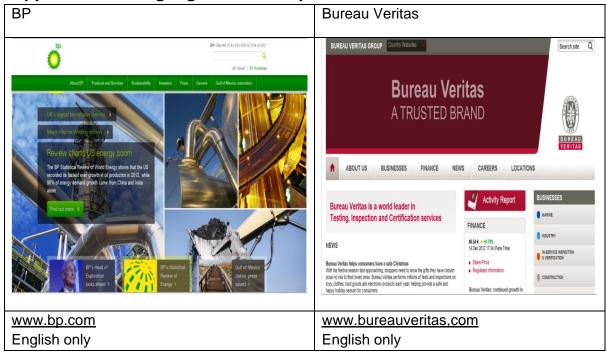


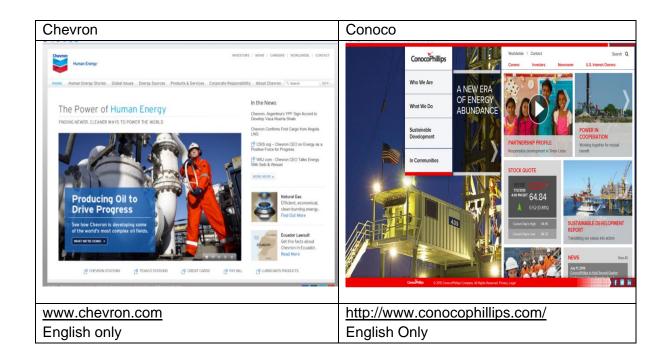
## Appendix 16 Screenshots of Websites Studied - RPS Energy



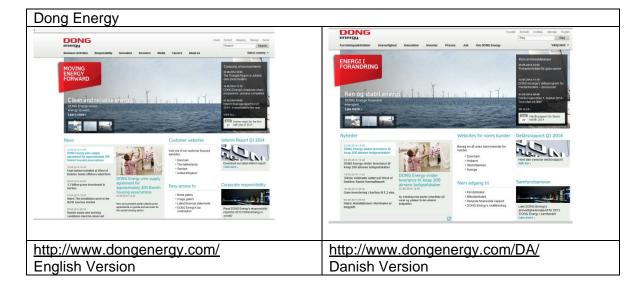


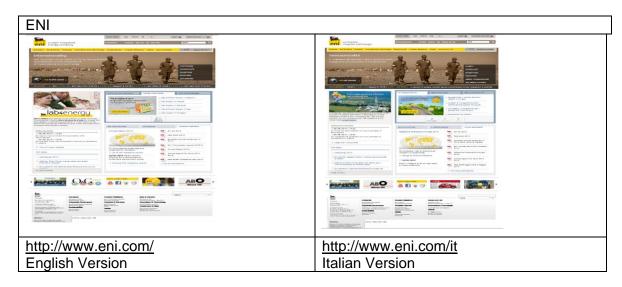
## Appendix 17 Language use on corporate websites

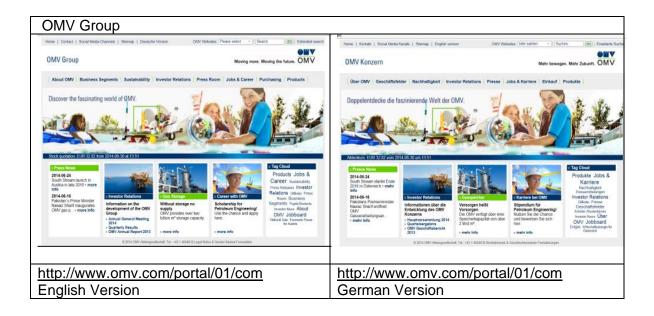




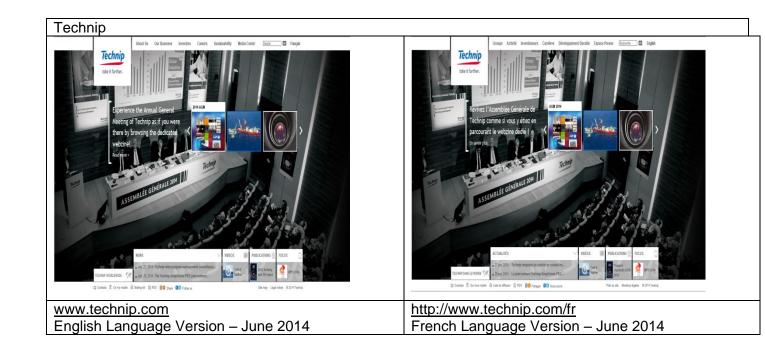


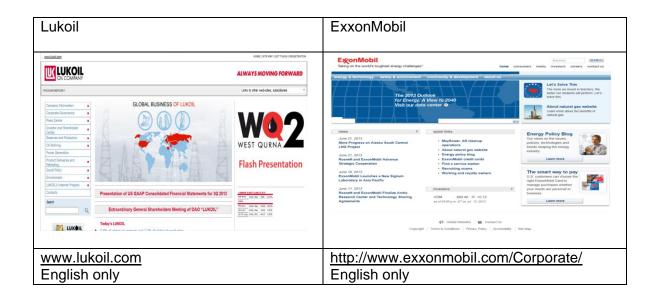


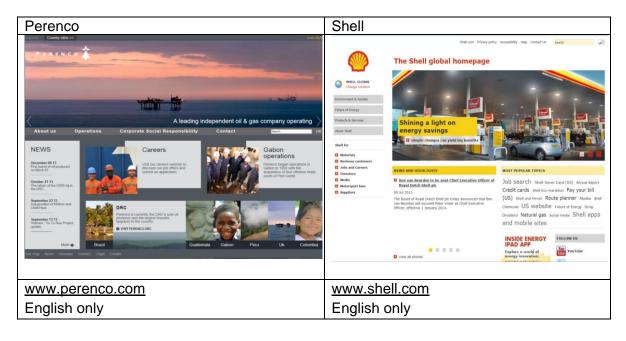














# Appendix 18 Language Use on Country Specific Websites

ENGLISH	Language Use on Country Opecinic Websites
Fugro	Africa, Belgium, Canada, Egypt, Hong Kong, Italy, Norway, Pakistan (Arabic version available, Saudi Arabia, S.E. Asia, UAE, UK, Vietnam, China
Shell	Australia, Canada, Egypt, Guam, Hong Kong, Macau, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Kuwait, Madagascar, Malaysia, Mali, New Zealand, Nigeria, Oman, Pakistan, Philippines, Puerto Rico, Qatar, Singapore, South Africa, Tunisia, UAE, UK, USA
ВР	Azerbaijan, Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Georgia, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg, Russia, Slovak Republic, Sweden, Canada, Trinidad and Tobago, USA, Australia, China, India, Indonesia, Mainland China, Malaysia, New Zealand, Philippines, Singapore, Taiwan, Algeria, Angola, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Mozambique, Oman, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, UAE
ENI	Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Netherlands, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Switzerland
Bureau Veritas	Pacific Zone, Bahamas, Middle East, South Asian, North America, Africa, South East Asia, Greece, India, Serbia, Thailand, United Kingdom
Technip	Azerbaijan, Angola, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Asia Pacific, Middle East, Italy, Nigeria, Norway, Spain, Netherlands, United Kingdom, United States of America
Conoco	Canada, China, Norway, Australia, Poland, United Kingdom, USA
Chevron	Argentina, Australia, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Cambodia, Canada, Chad, China, Colombia, Kuwait, Kazakhstan, Liberia, Malaysia, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nigeria, Philippines, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, South Africa, South Korea, Trinidad and Tobago, United States of America, Venezuela, Vietnam
ExxonMobil	Canada, Egypt, Ireland, United Kingdom, United States of America, Asia Pacific, Finland, France, Germany, Ghana, India
Perenco	Brazil, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Guatemala, Peru, United Kingdom
Petrobras	Angola, Benin Republic, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, China, Colombia, Gabon, Japan, Libya, Mexico, Namibia, Netherlands, Nigeria, Paraguay, Peru, Portugal, Singapore, Tanzania, Turkey, USA, United Kingdom, Uruguay, Venezuela
Dong Energy	United Kingdom
Lukoil	USA
OMV Group	Hungary
Talisman	The Americas (Canada, Colombia), USA, Asia Pacific(Algeria, Australia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Papua New Guinea, Vietnam), Other Areas (Iraq, North Sea)
RPS Energy	Australia and Asia Pacific, Ireland, USA, Canada, UK

	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ITALIAN	CHINESE	ICELANDIC
Fugro	France	Austria			China	
Shell	France, Luxembourg	Germany, Switzerland	Argentina, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Spain, Venezuela	Italy	China	Iceland
BP	France	Austria, Germany, Switzerland	Spain, Mexico	Italy		
ENI	France	Austria, Germany, Switzerland,	Spain	Italy		
Bureau Veritas			Chile, Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, Spain, Venezuela	Italy	China, Taiwan	
Technip						
Conoco				Italy		
Chevron						
ExxonMobil	Benelux, France	Germany	Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Mexico		China	
Perenco						
Petrobras						
Dong Energy		Germany				
Lukoil	Belgium			Italy		
OMV Group		Austria, Germany				
Talisman						
RPS Energy						

	DUTCH	PORTUGUESE	LITHUANIAN	DANISH	FINNISH
Fugro	Netherlands	Brazil		Denmark	
Shell	Austria, Netherlands	Brazil		Denmark	Finland
BP	Netherlands	Portugal, Brazil			
ENI					
Bureau Veritas	Belgium, Netherlands	Brazil, Portugal	Lithuania	Denmark	Finland
Technip		Portugal			
Conoco					
Chevron		Angola, Brazil	Lithuania		
ExxonMobil	Netherlands, Switzerland	Brazil		Denmark	Finland
Perenco					
Petrobras					
Dong Energy	Netherlands			Denmark, Norway	
Lukoil	Belgium		Lithuania		
OMV Group					
Talisman					
RPS Energy	The Netherlands				

	GREEK	HUNGARIAN	JAPANESE	KOREAN	TURKISH	SWEDISH
Fugro			Japan			
Shell	Greece	Hungary	Japan	South Korea	Turkey	Sweden
BP		Hungary	Japan	South Korea	Turkey	
ENI						
Bureau Veritas		Hungary	Japan	South Korea	Turkey	Sweden
Technip						
Conoco						
Chevron						
ExxonMobil			Japan	Korea	Turkey	Sweden
Perenco						
Petrobras						
Dong Energy						Sweden
Lukoil						
OMV Group					Turkey	
Talisman						
RPS Energy						

	SLOVENIAN	RUSSIAN	NORWEGIAN	VIETNAMESE	POLISH
Fugro					
Shell	Slovenia	Kazakhstan, Russia	Norway	Vietnam	Poland
BP			Norway	Vietnam	Poland
ENI					
Bureau Veritas	Slovenia	Kazakhstan, Russia, Ukraine, Uzbekistan	Norway	Vietnam	Poland
Technip					
Conoco					
Chevron					
ExxonMobil		Russia	Norway		Poland
Perenco					
Petrobras					
Dong Energy					
Lukoil		Ukraine, Russia, Belarus			
OMV Group	Slovenia	Serbia	Norway		
Talisman					
RPS Energy					

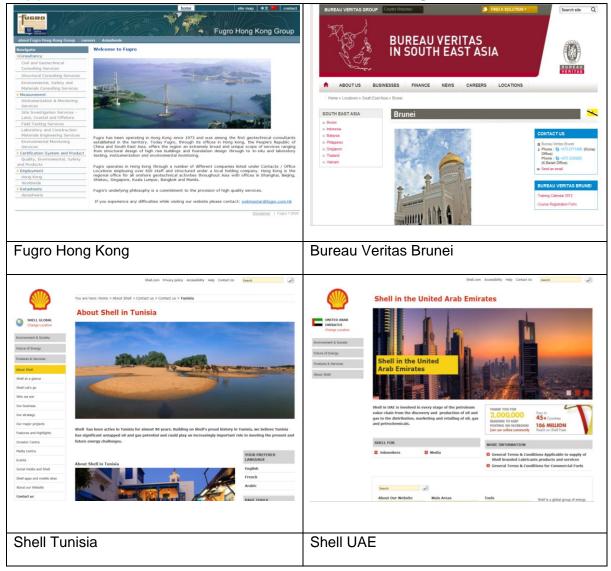
	CZECH	ROMANIAN	SLOVAK	BULGARIAN	ESTONIAN	LATVIAN
Fugro						
Shell	Czech Republic		Slovakia	Bulgaria		
BP						
ENI						
Bureau Veritas	Czech Republic	Romania	Slovakia		Estonia	Latvia
Technip						
Conoco						
Chevron		Romania		Bulgaria		
ExxonMobil		Romania				
Perenco						
Petrobras						
Dong Energy						
Lukoil		Romania		Bulgaria		
OMV Group	Czech Republic	Romania	Slovakia	Bulgaria		
Talisman						
RPS Energy						

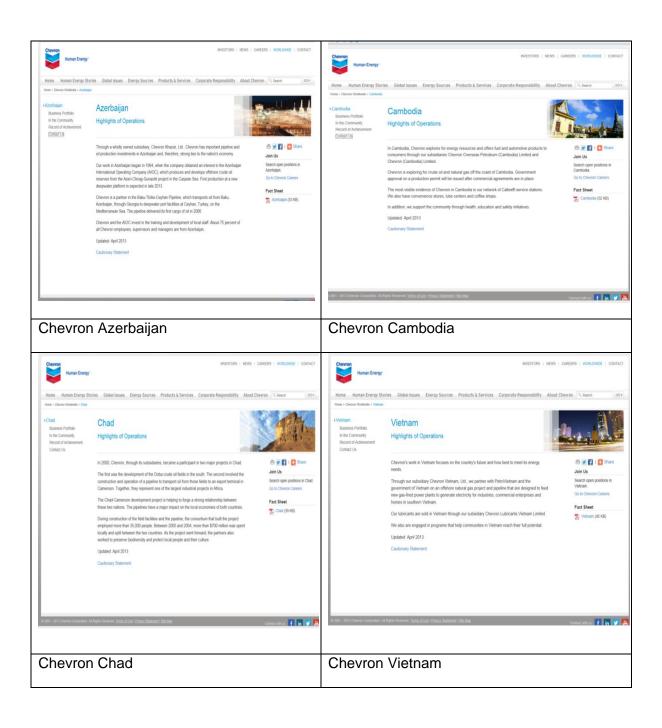
	THAI	TAIWANESE	CROATIAN	SERBIAN	INDONESIAN	UKRAINIAN
Fugro						
Shell	Thailand	Taiwan				Ukraine
BP	Thailand					
ENI						
Bureau Veritas			Croatia			
Technip						
Conoco						
Chevron	Thailand				Indonesia	Ukraine
ExxonMobil	Thailand	Taiwan				
Perenco						
Petrobras						
Dong Energy						
Lukoil				Serbia		
OMV Group						
Talisman						
RPS Energy						

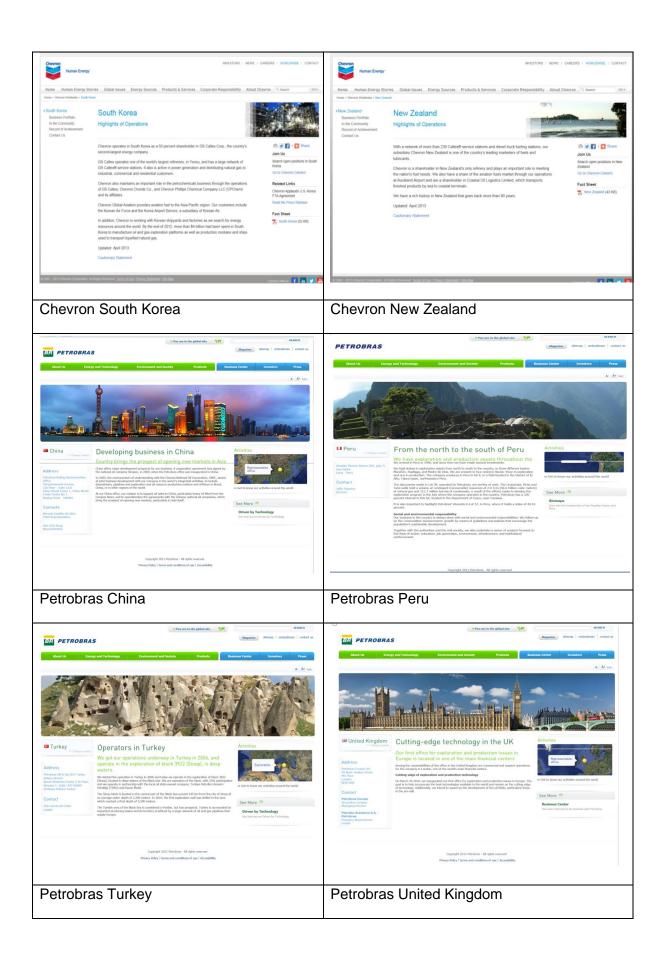
## **Appendix 19 List of Standardised Websites**

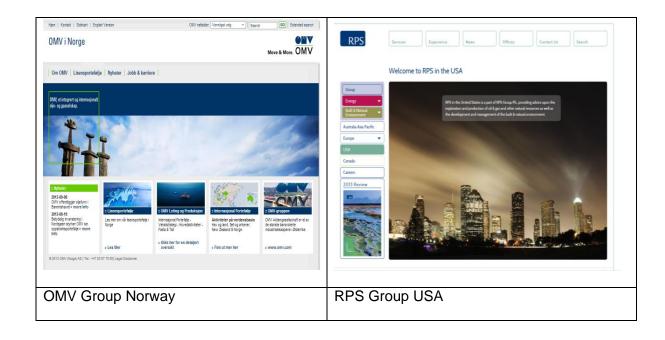
Fugro	All Websites have a standard layout apart from Japan, South East Asia,
	Saudi Arabia, Pakistan, Italy, Egypt, Africa, Austria
Shell	All Websites have a standard layout apart from Morocco, Mali,
	Madagascar, Japan, Gabon
BP	All Websites have a standard layout apart from Japan, Philippines and Turkey.
	Turkey.
ENI	All Websites have a standard layout.
Bureau Veritas	All the websites have the same layout apart from Uzbekistan and Serbia
Technip	All the websites apart from Portugal.
Conoco	US, Poland, Libya, Norway
Chevron	Angola, Australia, Bangladesh, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Indonesia,
	Lithuania, Romania, Thailand, Ukraine
ExxonMobil	All the same apart from Brazil and Chile
Perenco	All Websites have a standard layout.
Petrobras	All the same layout apart from Argentina, Chile and Colombia which are different.
Dong Energy	All Websites have a standard layout.
Lukail	Italy France and the Netherlands have the correlative to the stage.
Lukoil	Italy, France and the Netherlands have the same layout. The others have varying layouts.
	varying layouts.
OMV Group	All Websites have a standard layout.
Talisman	All Websites have a standard layout.
RPS Energy	All Websites have a standard layout apart from the Netherlands.

## **Appendix 20 Cross Section of Websites Featuring Local Sites**









# **Appendix 21 List of Websites with Corporate Logos**

Fugro	All Websites have a logo.
Shell	All Websites have a logo.
BP	All Websites have a logo.
ENI	All Websites have a logo.
Bureau Veritas	All Websites have a logo.
Technip	All Websites have a logo.
Conoco	All Websites have a logo apart from the Canada website.
Chevron	All Websites have a logo.
ExxonMobil	All Websites have a logo.
Perenco	All Websites have a logo.
Petrobras	Angola, Benin, Brazil, China, Gabon, Japan, Libya, Mexico, Namibia, Netherlands, Nigeria, Portugal, Singapore, Tanzania, Turkey, USA, UK
Dong Energy	All Websites have a logo.
Lukoil	All Websites have a logo.
OMV Group	All Websites have a logo.
Talisman	All Websites have a logo.
RPS Energy	No distinguishable company logo.

# **Appendix 22 Celebrity Representation on Websites**

Fugro	None
Shell	None
BP	None
ENI	None
Bureau Veritas	None
Technip	None
Conoco	None
Chevron	Australia
ExxonMobil	Egypt, France, Germany, Ireland, Thailand
Perenco	None
Petrobras	None
Dong Energy	None
Lukoil	None
OMV Group	Slovakia –local celeb
Talisman	None
RPS Energy	None

# **Appendix 23 Office Building Representation on Websites**

Fugro	China, Pakistan, UAE
Shell	None
BP	None
ENI	None
Bureau Veritas	None
Technip	None
Conoco	None
Chevron	None
ExxonMobil	China, Egypt, Germany, Ireland, Mexico
Perenco	None
Petrobras	None
Dong Energy	None
Lukoil	None
OMV Group	None
Talisman	None
RPS Energy	None

# Appendix 24 The Use of Flags on Websites

Fugro	China, Hong Kong, Vietnam, Japan
Shell	Dominican republic, Egypt, Gabon, Japan, Madagascar, Mali, Morocco, Tunisia, Venezuela and Vietnam.
BP	None
ENI	All websites
Bureau Veritas	Algeria, Angola, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Benin Republic, Botswana, Brunei, Iraq, Serbia, Uzbekistan
Technip	Ghana
Conoco	None
Chevron	Canada
ExxonMobil	None
Perenco	None
Petrobras	All websites
Dong Energy	None
Lukoil	Romania (used for translation)
OMV Group	None
Talisman	None
RPS Energy	None

# **Appendix 25 Representations of Local News Stories**

Fugro	Netherlands
Shell	All websites (Except Finland, Iceland, Luxembourg, Puerto Rico, Sweden, Venezuela, Vietnam)
BP	All websites
ENI	Slovenia, Spain
Bureau Veritas	Spain, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Chile, China, Croatia, Venezuela, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Pacific Zone, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, India, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, South Korea, Latvia, Lithuania, Mexico, The Netherlands, Norway, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden
Technip	None
Conoco	All Websites
Chevron	All Websites
ExxonMobil	All Websites
Perenco	Brazil, DRC, Gabon, Guatemala, Peru, UK
Petrobras	All websites
Dong Energy	Norway, Germany
Lukoil	All websites
OMV Group	All websites
Talisman	Canada
RPS Energy	None

# **Appendix 26 List of Promotions with Other Companies**

Fugro	None
Shell	Chile (Chevrolet), Hong Kong and Macau (Smart Phone), Luxembourg (coke), Philippines (coke), Sweden(ice cream)
BP	None
ENI	Slovenia (Bo
Bureau Veritas	None
Technip	None
Conoco	None
Chevron	None
ExxonMobil	None
Perenco	None
Petrobras	None
Dong Energy	None
Lukoil	Promoting CK perfumes on Belgium website
OMV Group	Hungary, Slovakia, Romania
Talisman	None
RPS Energy	UK (M&S)

# **Appendix 27 List of Websites Representing Environmental Issues**

Fugro	None
Shell	Canada, Egypt, Vietnam
BP	All Websites
ENI	None
Bureau Veritas	Bahamas, Barbados, Bermuda, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland
Technip	None
Conoco	China, Canada
Chevron	Australia, Brazil, Canada
ExxonMobil	None
Perenco	Brazil, Guatemala
Petrobras	Peru page emphasises environmental issues, Brazil. However, all websites have a tab which deals with "Environment and Society".
Dong Energy	None
Lukoil	None
OMV Group	None
Talisman	None
RPS Energy	USA, Canada