The role of culture in website localization:  
Clarks International – A case study
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Introduction

The rapid growth of the web in the recent years has considerable implications for companies operating in the global market which need to communicate with different locales, i.e. sociolinguistic communities around the world (Jiménez-Crespo 2013). Indeed, even though English language is considered the lingua franca for communication all over the world, the vast majority of web users are not English native speakers, and therefore, multinational companies need to adapt their web contents in the languages of their target audiences because it has been proved that websites adapted to the local cultures and languages are perceived more favorably than standardized websites in English as regards navigation, attitude towards the site, higher purchase intention and perception of cultural congruence (Spring et al. 2004). As a result, for companies wishing to reach a wider range of consumers, an useful strategy is website localization, which is the process of making web contents available, linguistically and culturally, to different locales (Jiménez-Crespo 2013).

The aim of this paper is to localize the Clarks International Site for Italian consumers because it is available online in English only. In particular, I suggest that adapting the contents of the Clarks website could increase the general attitude of Italian consumers towards the website, the purchase intention and the number of sales. Localization could be an effective strategy in the Italian market where the competition for foreign companies is very high because Italy is the biggest shoes producer in EU and because the label “Made in Italy” is highly valued.

The first chapter provides a general overview of the characteristics of promotional texts and focuses on website localization, giving some information about its origin, the entire process and the influence of technology. In particular, it underlines the importance of culture to increase website usability and, in order to understand the cultural differences between UK and Italy, it introduces Hofstede’s model, whose main dimensions will be used for the analysis of the Clarks website. Furthermore, the chapter contains the main linguistic strategies and procedures at the macro and micro levels which can be used to face translation problems related to language and culture differences.
The second chapter deals with global and EU footwear industry focusing especially on the position occupied by Italy and it also includes an overview on the importance of the label “Made in” which can influence consumers’ behavior and choices. In particular, the first part of the chapter provides the history of Clarks company and analyzes the main features of its website, while the second part contains the translation of the textual contents extracted from the website.

The third chapter includes the comment of the localization process and it is basically divided into three parts. The first part deals with the analysis of the linguistic strategies and procedures used during the translation phase. In particular, it lists all the translation procedures used – from the most used such as restructuring, explicitation and equivalence to the rarest ones such as explanation and compensation – and provides some relevant examples. It also makes reference to the use of anglicisms in Italian texts and analyzes the terms that have been kept in English.

The second part focuses on the design and visual elements of the Clarks website from the point of view of the localization process. Using the cultural dimensions suggested by Hofstede and considering the preferences of the target audience, it suggests some changes that could increase the website usability for Italian users. In particular, as regards the British and Italian cultures, the main differences can be found in the dimensions of individualism, uncertainty avoidance and contextuality and the main implications regard the customer services, the presence of family themes, the navigation menus and the importance of visuals.

Finally, the chapter closes with a comment about the subtitling of the video available in the Clarks website. In particular, the third part contains general guidelines for subtitling considering time and space constraints and it also introduces Amara, the free cloud-based program used for subtitling the video.
Chapter 1

Website localization and ‘culturability’

1.1 Promotional texts as a genre

In the last 50 years, genre theory has contributed to our understanding of the way discourse is used in different academic and professional contexts. Genre is “a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of a culture” (Martin 1985: 25). This means that genre helps us to understand how people use language and how language itself is structured for use. Halliday (1985) suggests that the realization of genre is mediated through three variables: field, tenor and mode. Field indicates what the text is about, mode refers to the role that language plays in a text, and tenor deals with the interpersonal relationship between interactants. All these elements describe “the immediate situational context in which a text is produced” (Eggins 1994: 26). As regards genre theory, Bathia (2004: 23) emphasizes two main aspects to identify a genre: the importance of conventions and the fact that texts belonging to the same genre share a set of communicative goals.

As a result, promotional texts can be considered a genre because they share some features and the same communicative purpose, i.e. persuading potential consumers to buy a product or a service (Torresi 2010: 26). In particular, Torresi (2010) distinguishes four types of promotional texts: business-to-business (B2B), institution-to-institution (I2I), business-to-consumer (B2C) and institution-to-user (I2U). Business-to-business promotional texts are produced by commercial enterprises to promote their products or services to other commercial enterprises, while business-to-consumer promotional texts are created by private companies that want to sell their products or services to consumers who are not supposed to have in-depth knowledge about the object of promotion (Torresi 2010: 26). Finally, institutional promotional texts are produced by institutions to promote the institution with other institutions or to inform the public (Torresi 2010: 26). In turn, B2C promotional texts can be of two main types: corporate promotional texts and commercials. The promotional texts are informational texts...
created by a company with the aim of informing users about the company itself, its story, mission, products and services. On the other hand, commercial texts are texts whose aim is to promote, commercialize and sell products and services (Torresi 2010: 26). In this paper, the focus will be on B2C corporate promotional texts which are present online in the form of websites.

1.2 Globalization and the Web: the origins of localization

Since the late 1980s, with the advent of the Internet, there has been a profound economic, political, technological and social change, which is commonly referred to as globalization (LISA 2003: 8). According to Levitt (1993), globalization is a new commercial reality where companies can sell the same products all over the world. The result is the emergence of a global market characterized by “enormous economies of scale in production, distribution, marketing, and management” (Levitt, 1993: 249). This is possible thanks to technology, in particular thanks to the Web, which is a tool that allows millions of people to connect, communicate and do business. Therefore, the Web has created new opportunities for business to expand globally as companies can easily reach international consumers (Vengadasamy et al. 2004).

In the beginning, the Web was totally in English given its American origin, but in order to reach more consumers, companies – after succeeding in popularizing their products in the US – started to turn toward the international market (Jiménez-Crespo 2013). These economic reasons are the main driver for the emergence and evolution of localization, which is the process of making web contents available, linguistically and culturally, to different locales, i.e. sociolinguistic communities around the world (Jiménez-Crespo 2013).

The origins of localization date back to the late 1970s and the early 1980s when US computing companies such as Sun Microsystems, Oracle and Microsoft decided to expand their business in the global market. In particular, the initial targets were Japan and the FIGS countries (France, Italy, Germany and Spain). Consequently, these companies needed to translate their products in the language of the target countries;
thus, localization was originally a translation process from English into other languages (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 8).

In this first phase, localization was a linguistic process independent of the software development process. Indeed, after that developers had finished the programming of a software product, they extracted all the textual strings and hired linguists to translate them. When the translation was completed, developers reintegrated it in the software (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 9). In this period, software publishers either had in-house translation departments or outsourced translation work to freelance translators (Esselink 2000: 5). However, with the increasing complexity of localization projects, software publishers, which did not have time and knowledge to manage multilingual localization processes, were forced to rely on an outsourcing model (Esselink 2000: 5). As a result, in the mid 1980s, the first multi-language vendors (MLVs), companies specialized in the management and translation of technical documentation and software such as INK and IDOC, started to emerge (Esselink 2000: 5).

However, it was soon clear that separating the translation process from the development stages of the software was impractical for many reasons. For example, translated segments were normally longer than source texts and could not be fitted in the space allotted for them (Jiménez-Crespo 2013). As a consequence, MLVs started to offer engineering, testing, desktop publishing, printing and support services in addition to translation (Esselink 2000: 6). Furthermore, in 1990, the Localization Industry Standards Association (LISA) was founded in Switzerland with the aim of bringing together the IT industry and the translation services (Esselink 2000). LISA was a private, non-profit association, which operated until the 2011 and whose aim was:

promoting the localization and internationalization industry and providing a mechanism and services to enable companies to exchange and share information on the development of processes, tools, technologies and business models connected with localization, internationalization and related topics. (LISA 2003: 40)

LISA also organized forums and workshops where members could share information about the new trends of the localization industry (Esselink, 2000). Now it has been replaced by the Globalization and Localization Association (GALA) and the Translation
Automation User Society (TAUS), which are working on the relationship between the Translation and Localization academics and the localization industry (Pym 2014: 46).

Two more important organizations, which were founded with the aim of improving the localization services for computing companies, should be mentioned: the Software Localization Interest Group (SLIG) and the Localization Research Centre (LRC). They both focus on the business interests of the localization industry in Ireland (Esselink 2000: 8). Indeed, in the 1990s, Ireland became the leader in the localization industry thanks to the Irish government that offered many benefits to multinational companies willingly to invest in Ireland because of its favorable tax policy and thanks to the fact that it is an English-speaking country (Esselink 2000: 7).

In the second half of the 1990s, the localization industry started to consolidate and was not longer considered as an isolated phase of the software production, but it became an essential part of the so-called GILT process or Globalization, Internationalization, Localization and Translation process (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 9), which combines IT industry and localization services. In particular, in the GILT process, localization does not exist in isolation and goes beyond the mere translation of textual strings extracted from the Web as it needs to be considered from the early stages of product and software development (Jiménez-Crespo 2013).

The broader process in the GILT cycle is globalization, which is, according to LISA, the “process of making the technical, financial, managerial, personnel or making decisions necessary to facilitate localization” (LISA 2003: 5). At this stage, globalization includes a global and local product analysis, that if correctly implemented, could allow enterprises to localize a software in many different language versions minimizing the costs (LISA 2003).

The second developmental stage is internationalization, which is defined by LISA (2003: 43) as the process of “ensuring, at a technical and design level, that a product can be easily localized”. This means that the goal of internationalization is to reduce the number of changes and the amount of work that will have to be done during the localization stage (McDonough 2006: 86), and this could include, for example, the use
of a controlled language to facilitate translation or to prepare the text for machine translation or translation memory programs.

The next step in the GILT process is localization, which is defined as the process of “modifying products or services to accommodate differences in distinct markets” (LISA 2003: 43). The changes made during this phase do not just involve the translation and adaptation of the existing text from the source language to the target language, but they also involve the replacement or editing of images and icons, the change of colors, currencies, maps and time zones displayed to the users (McDonough 2006: 86). This means that translation, which is the last step of the GILT cycle, only involves the linguistic process of translation of texts and is a part of the localization process. The next section (section 1.3) will provide a general overview on the main linguistic difficulties that can be faced when translating promotional texts and will also provide some strategies that can be used to solve translation problems.

To conclude, it can be said that the GILT cycle is “an interactive bottom-up and top-down process” in which globalization and internalization are the planning stages of a software product used to solve cultural and linguistic issues that could arise during localization and translation (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 26). Figure 1.1 shows the interdependence of all the stages involved in the GILT process.

![Figure 1.1 Interdependence of all stages in the global GILT cycle (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 26).](image)
1.3 Translation problems and strategies

This section will focus on the last stage of the GILT cycle, translation, and in particular it will analyze the main difficulties that translators might face when rendering a promotional text. Finally, it will also suggest some strategies scholars suggest to overcome translation problems in general and those related to websites localization.

According to Arffman (2007: 64), translation problems are:

linguistic problems that the translator is faced with when making a translation, [...] more specifically, they occur when the translator realizes that s/he is unable to transfer adequately a source language text segment into the target language.\(^1\)

In particular, Arffman (2007) distinguishes three main translation problems: problems related to language-specific differences, problems related to differences in cultures, and problems related to the strategies used and the choices made by the translator.

As regards problems related to language, they can involve both the form and the meaning (Arffman 2007). The main problems related to form deal with orthography, punctuation, capital letters, word order conventions, ways of indicating given and new information, different phrase, clause and sentence structures (Arffman 2007: 65). Translators need to be aware of these differences to avoid severe grammatical and syntactic mistakes, which could damage the image of the company or of the website. However, according to Arffman (2007), the most insidious problems relate to meaning because it can be denotative and connotative. Denotative meaning is a “word’s basic meaning that is found in a dictionary”, while connotative meaning refers to “the attitudes and emotions suggested by and associated with the word” (Arffman 2007: 77). For example, the English word ‘June’ and its Italian equivalent ‘giugno’ have the same denotation (Online Cambridge Dictionary, Dizionario Italiano Treccani), but are likely to have different connotations: in Italy June is the month when school ends and summer holidays begin, while in UK children still go to school and because of weather conditions summer may start later.

\(^1\) In her analysis, Arffman chooses a restricted view of translation and focuses only on the linguistic problems related to translation in the localization process.
Meaning does not only divide into denotative and connotative meanings but also into the literal and figurative ones. According to Coulson and Oakley (2005: 1512), the literal meaning of a word is its original and basic meaning, whereas figurative meaning refers to words and phrases that are not used with their basic meaning and thus “need to be supplemented by contextually driven inferences”. In promotional texts, figurative language, that can include metaphors, puns and irony, is often used to involve and persuade the readers. In these cases, translators can decide to use equivalent rhetorical figures in the target language, to use other rhetorical devices that may convey the same meaning, or simply omit them. However, translating figurative language literally is always strongly discouraged because this approach often leads to misunderstandings and mistranslations. Therefore, it can be said that associative and figurative meanings are more difficult to transfer across languages than denotative and literal meanings.

The second kind of translation problem is about differences in culture. Indeed, according to Arffman (2007: 161), the contents of a text in two different languages should be equally familiar in the cultures involved, and this is a difficult task, even for two similar western countries, such as UK and Italy. Indeed, what usually happens is that texts contain topics which are more familiar to the source culture than the target culture. As a result, it is necessary to add more explicit information to make the text more informative for the target audience. However, this process can be problematic as well because the translated text risks to be too long and overloaded with information (Arffman 2007: 84). In particular, for websites, which are subject to space and time constraints, the issue of length is fundamental.

Finally, the last category of translation problems relates with the behavior of translators and their choices. In particular, Arffman (2007: 162-3) states that the main issues can be interferences with the translator’s first language, writing errors, mistranslation and the translator’s desire to improve the source text.

Over the years, scholars have suggested many different strategies which can be used to overcome all kinds of translation problems. In particular, this section will provide the strategies suggested by two authors: García (2013) and Xiaojuan (2010).
However, before presenting the different strategies, translators have to consider four main aspects: the source and target audience, the context of distribution, the information-to-persuasion ratio and the combination of the four (Torresi 2010: 29). In addition to the importance of source and target culture and language, Torresi (2010: 30) emphasizes the importance of the context of distribution, which is the “space – physical or virtual – in which the text circulates”. Furthermore, she also talks about information-to-persuasion ratio, which is the combination of the source, the target and the context of distribution and it usually “varies substantially across cultures, depending on specific textual conventions” (Torresi, 2010: 31). In particular, she suggests that in Western European cultures, B2B texts are highly informative and “are translated as closely as possible”. On the contrary, B2C is a high persuasion and low information text genre that includes websites, brochures and advertising, and thus, the translator can be less linked to the source text (Torresi 2010: 26).

After considering all these elements, all the different strategies that can be used during the translation process can be listed. García (2013: 353-4) suggests the following four main translation strategies.

- Foreignization aims to maintain the translated text as close as possible to the source text to preserve “the sense of prestige that the foreign language may have in the target culture”.
- Literal translation is a method which want to maintain a high level of similarity between the source and target text in terms of format, extension and content.
- Adaptation aims to translate a text considering the target audience and culture, and, thus it eliminates or replaces cultural specific elements that are not acceptable for the addressees.
- Creation is a modus operandi which involves the creation from scratch of a text, maintaining an equivalence with the source text only in terms of pragmatic effect.

According to Torresi (2010) adaptation is the best solution in consumer-oriented translations and, thus, in promotional texts because their function, i.e. to sell a product or a service to potential consumers, is the main element to keep on mind, and this is the
reason why she talks about functionalist approaches when defining this translation strategy.

However, in addition to the four strategies, García (2013: 354) also lists several translational procedures, which are applicable at a micro-textual level, and they are the following:

- Amplification is used when an expression is translated using a larger number of words if compared to the original expression in the source language.
- Explicitation is used when implicit elements of the source text are made explicit in the target text.
- Omission occurs when translators delete some information from the target text.
- Modulation is used by translators to reflect a change of attitude in the target text compared to the source text.
- Equivalence is used when words or expressions of the source text are replaced in the target text with expressions that convey the same function even though they may differ in form and meaning.
- Compensation is used when an element of the source text is placed in a different position in the target text.

However, as Xiaojuan (2010) states, the translation of websites requires particular strategies and procedures because websites have unique features and several space and time constraints. In particular, Xiaojuan makes a distinction between foreignization and domestication: “the former retains the foreign features of the ST, while the goal of the latter is to reproduce the ST author’s intended meaning in an idiomatic and natural style appropriate to the TL” (Xiaojuan 2010: 136-141). In her opinion, the main translation strategies are the following:

- Explanation is the addition of further details within brackets or footnotes to bridge the cultural gap between source text and target text.
- Deletion is the loss of some information, which is inevitable in every translation.
- Restructuring is used when translators need to reproduce the source message in the target text and need to change the structure of the text because of particular
needs of target readers (e.g. the structure of articles may vary depending on the culture).

- Headings strategy deals with the front page of a website; they have to capture the essence of the event and attract readers’ attention and in order to be effective, they need to carry the meaning of the source text to the target culture.

In conclusion, this section looked at the different translation strategies and procedures for promotional text, and in particular websites. Even though the step of translation is just the last linguistic phase in the GILT process, it plays an essential role and translation errors may damage the image of the company or website.

1.4 Defining localization

After introducing the concepts of globalization, internationalization and localization in the GILT cycle, it is important to provide a more detailed description of ‘localization’ and its multiple definitions. The multiplicity of definitions can be explained by looking at the different agents involved in the localization process and their approaches.

In general, the term localization derives from the word ‘locale’, which relates to the combination of a socio-cultural region and a language in an industrial setting (Jiménez-Crespo, 2013: 12). The term refers to a set of discourses dealing with cross-cultural text production and adaptation with regards to software and web technology (Pym 2014: 37). Moreover, localization refers both to the process of modification of digital texts and to the product of the process itself. However, when the process refers to digital texts on the Web, the terms used are different: website localization (Jiménez-Crespo 2013, Sandrini 2005), e-localization (Schaler 2001) or web-content localization (Esselink 2000). In this paper, the term suggested by Jiménez-Crespo (2013) – website localization – will be used.

When trying to define localization, there are two main groups of definitions that can be found: industry definitions and Translation Studies definitions (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 12). The first group focuses on the idea of locale, i.e. the linguistic, cultural, technical and geographical conventions that companies have to keep in mind to sell a product to a
target audience. An important point in the industry definitions of localization is that localized texts have to “look and feel” locally made products (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 14). This aspect was criticized by McDonough (2006) who talks about ‘disguised otherness’. In her opinion, localized products present a wrong image to consumers because they believe to relate with a local company while they are actually relating with a foreign company.

On the other hand, in the Translation Studies definitions of localization, two main trends can be found. The first underlines that localization is a translation modality shaped by specific technological and project-based features, while the other trend has a descriptive approach of the industrial practices (Jiménez-Crespo 2013). However, it should be noticed that, even though in the context of the GILT cycle, translation is considered a sub-process of localization, the incorporation of localization into Translation Studies has been a slow process (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 12).

In the early attempts at description within Translation Studies, localization was considered a new modality and scholars (Esselink 2000, Sprung 2000) adapted an industry-based discourse with a tendency of focusing on the description of the process, rather than paying attention to Translation Studies theoretical approaches (Jiménez-Crespo 2013). On the other hand, the second trend was characterized by the idea that localization is what translators have always been doing (Pym 2003, Jiménez-Crespo 2013). Indeed, as suggested by Jiménez-Crespo (2013), during the process of localization, the role of user expectation is essential, and thus, website localization can be identified as an example of target-oriented translation.

Firstly, in the 1970s and 1980s in the Western culture, the concept of ‘equivalence’ became central in the Translation Studies and a theorist in particular, Eugene Nida, talked about two kinds of equivalence: formal equivalence which looks at the form, and dynamic or functional equivalence which looks at the function (Nida 1964). As suggested by Pym (2003: 3), the concept of dynamic equivalence can be applied to website localization because translators need to adapt or localize date formats, currencies, time zones, and symbolic codes in order to make the content available for a different audience.
Another theory which can be used to show that localization is something that already existed in Translation Studies is the so-called *Skopos theorie*, which was introduced in the 1970s by Reiss and Vermeer (2013). In their opinion, a translational action is determined by its skopos or aim and, thus, translation is not dominated by the source text, but by the function or purpose that the translation has to achieve in the target culture (Pym 2003). Moreover, a major functionalist who discussed the skopos theory, Christiane Nord, made a difference between documentary translation and instrumental translation. A documentary translation “serves as a document of a source culture communication between the author and the source text recipient” (Nord 2005: 80). An example is literary translation, where the audience is aware that the text is a translation. On the other hand, an instrumental translation “serves as an independent message transmitting instrument in a new communicative purpose without the recipient being conscious of reading or hearing a text which was used before in a different communicative situation” (Nord 2005: 80). Finally, the distinction suggested by Nord (2005) bears some resemblance with House’s concepts of covert and overt translation (1997). In an overt translation “the addressees of the translation text are quite “overtly” not being directly addressed” (House 1997: 66), while a covert translation is “a translation that enjoys the status of an original source text in the target culture” (House 1997: 69). According to House (1997: 95), in order to achieve a covert translation, translators need to take into account the cross-cultural differences in the norms and expectations of the cultures considered and, thus, they need to modify cultural elements that point at the source culture.

A recent definition suggested by Jiménez-Crespo (2013: 20) states that localization is:

> a complex communicative, cognitive, textual and technological process by which interactive digital texts are modified to be used in different linguistic and socio-cultural contexts, guided by the expectations of the target audience and the specifications and degree requested by initiators.

This definition will be used in this dissertation because it emphasizes the importance of technology for the localization process and because the role of user expectations is included as well. Indeed, one of the main revolutionary characteristics of the Web is that, unlike the other mass media, it provides information and control to the user or
client and this is why it is defined ‘New Media’ by Reis (in Vengadasamy 2004) and, thus, in the localization process, this needs to be considered.

1.5 The localization process

The localization process involves a series of steps in which a wide range of professionals have to collaborate (Gouadec 2007). However, the process can vary depending on the nature of the project, the technologies involved, the resources available and the type of translation procedures used (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 29). Jiménez-Crespo (2013: 29) suggests that four main procedures can be found: large corporations, medium and small ones, volunteer-crowdsourcing and individual localization where a single agent performs all the tasks. The latter is quite unusual because the localization project requires a significant division of labor among people competent in terminology, revising, testing, software engineering and translation. Furthermore, the project managers themselves do not possess all those skills, but they generally have good business and organization skills (Pym 2014: 42). According to Stoeller (2011: 290), localization projects can be performed thanks to the web, which allows a virtual team, i.e. a group of people who “interact through interdependent tasks guided by a common purpose” to work together.

Finally, another popular trend is volunteer-crowdsourcing, which is a new mode of collaborative translation and localization that is made possible thanks to the interactive nature of the Web. Indeed, crowdsourcing refers to “a self-selected community of volunteers on the web” which uses a platform on the web to complete a translation project (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 193). However, this procedure is employed only in specific contexts because of the lack of professionalization, and generally companies rely on professional corporations.

Despite the differences, a general localization process can be described, and the majority of scholars agree in its main points (Esselink 2000, Gouadec 2007, Jiménez-Crespo 2013, Pym 2014) which can be subdivided into three main phases.
The first phase of the localization process deals with the project preparation and acceptance and it is performed by localization managers and engineers (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 29). In particular, the localization manager needs to define with the client the scope of the localization project, which means developing a detailed description of the project and product (Levitina 2011). This first step is essential because it helps to divide the project work into smaller and more manageable components, but also because it will be a guideline for checking the status of the project in all its phases (Levitina 2011: 96). After that, engineers need to prepare the project for localization: they have to retrieve the site contents and architecture and identify, process and analyze the content that will be translated (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 30). This stage is also important for the scheduling and budgeting of the project (Sandrini 2005, Pym 2014). Indeed, it should be remembered that the economic aspect of localization is the most important for the clients: they want to expand their market and find new consumers, but the benefits for the company need to be higher than the costs of translation, otherwise there would be no more translation assignment (Sandrini 2005: 136).

The second step is performed by localization specialists or translators (Jiménez-Crespo 2013). In particular, after that a glossary is prepared by a specialized terminologist (Karsh 2009), all the components – linguistic, cultural and visual – are localized.

As regards linguistic translation of the content, the section 1.3 has already provided the information about translation problems and suggested some strategies to solve them. Moreover, according to LISA (2007: 12), the stage of processing text is the most significant one or “the bulk of the localization process” and it is essential to localize all the other non-linguistic elements present in the text.

As regards cultural elements, Gibb and Matthaiakis (2007: 669) compile a list of the most important cultural aspects that should be considered during the localization process. First, it is important to check the conventions concerning date order, currency and measures, that may vary depending on the country. Second, characters as well should be adapted if necessary, for instance Latin numbers that can be used to denote centuries might not make sense for every culture. Furthermore, examples need to be adapted and contextualized too, for instance Renauld cars in France can be considered equivalent to BMW cars in Germany, or Inter Milan football team can be used as an
example in Italy, but in Spain the Barcelona team is more adequate. Finally, Gibb and Matthaiakis (2007: 669) suggest that colors used need to be checked during the localization process, for example the colors of the traffic lights is not the same in all the countries: in Italy the colors are red, yellow and green, but in Japan they are red, yellow and blue.

Finally, the graphics and visual components as well need to be analyzed and, when necessary, adapted (Gibb and Matthaiakis 2007, Jiménez-Crespo 2013). However, the idea of ‘translating’ the visual dimension is seldom taken into consideration because there is a common perception that visual signs, unlike verbal ones, do not impede comprehension and communication (Torresi 2008: 65). As regards this issue, Roland Barthes talks about a paradox because a photograph, which simply encodes the reality it depicts, should be perceived as a message without a code, but in fact photographic images can be used to create significations that are established a priori. The paradox can be solved by considering the fact that images can carry two kinds of message: one is not coded and is based on perception, the other is coded and based on culture (Torresi 2008: 66). As a result, Barthes’ paradox suggests that images can and sometimes have to be translated in advertising or promotional texts. Indeed, adjusting the message to the addressee’s social and cultural values is essential for the success of an advertising campaign and whenever the addressee does not fully understand, or feel moved or compelled by the translated advertisement, the effectiveness of it would drastically reduce (Torresi 2008: 67-8). In particular, according to Torresi (2008) there are two main elements that need to be taken into consideration when ‘translating’ an image: the presence of clear indexical and symbolic elements in the image and the norms of visual composition in the culture depending on reading directions or other traditions.

The third and last step of the localization process deals with Quality Assurance (QA) and Integration, which can be performed by QA specialists, engineers or localization specialists (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 31). In particular, this stage involves the proofreading of the translation and the integration in the websites of all the components, both the translated segments and the parts created from scratch. Finally, websites are ‘staged’ for testing and when they are approved, the website is delivered to the client.
Among the different types of localization, this paper will focus on website localization. i.e. the translation of a website for a specific locale. There are two main reasons for this process: on one hand, there is the demand of the final clients who want to access a website in their own native language, and, on the other hand, there is the request of a company or institution that wants to reach the client of a particular locale. As a result, website localization can be defined as “a function of the international marketing strategy” (Sandrini 2005: 134). In the localization process, the function should be specified by the company or the organization represented by the website, but in practice the vast majority of companies and institution lack a strategy for a multilingual web presence (Sandrini, 2005: 135). What is most common is that a website has gradually evolved without a planned strategy. In particular, according to Lockwook (2000, in Sandrini 2005), there are three main de facto strategies which are used when localizing a website to manage linguistic and cultural contents. First, there is the monarchist approach which involve the translation of the whole website following the traditional translation strategies without considering the characteristics of the locale to which it is addressed. Secondly, there is the anarchist approach which is characterized by multiple local sites that are produced independently without a corporate strategy. Finally, there is the federalist or subsidiary approach which integrates global, regional and local contents: the global content is the outcome of a corporate strategy, is produced centrally, and then is adapted to be used internationally and locally. It is only in the latter approach that localization becomes relevant because the content needs to be localized (Sandrini 2005: 135).

1.6 The role of technologies in the localization process

The idea of translating a text from one language to another with the help of a computer appeared for the first time in 1949 in a paper called “Memorandum on Translation” by the mathematician Warren Weaver (Naldi 2014: 7). Since then, new technologies made this idea possible and in particular, in the last three decades, they have changed the ways texts are produced, translated and distributed (Jiménez-Crespo 2013, Naldi 2014). Moreover, they are also essential for the economic aspects of translation because they help translators to reduce time and costs (Sandrini 2005).
A distinction between Computer Assisted Translation (CAT) tools and Machine Translation (MT) tools needs to be made. CAT tools, also called Machine Assisted (or Aided) Human Translation (MAHT) by Naldi (2014: 9), require that the translation is made by professional human translators which can use many technological tools in order to speed up the translation process. On the other hand, MT tools, or Fully Automatic (or Automated) Machine Translation (FAMT) (Naldi 2014: 11), do not require any human interventions. However, it should be noticed that there are currently no FAMT systems which are completely reliable and a post-editing process checked by a human translator is still necessary. As a result, for the interest of this study, only CAT tools will be analyzed in more detail and to conclude, the last paragraph will be about corpus-based translation studies, which provide another tool – corpora – that can be used by in the translation process.

1.6.1 CAT tools and Translation Memory tools

CAT tools are all the instruments that can help translators such as online dictionaries, glossaries, spelling and style checkers (Naldi 2014: 9). However, one of the most relevant tool which changed the translation process is the Translation Memory (TM). The 1990s were characterized by a wide adoption of Translation Memory tools which are based on the principle of “subdividing the text into segments, presenting them to the translators, and subsequently storing them in pairs in order to enable future reuse” (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 51). In particular, a text is segmented in smaller units, short sentences or words called segments, and, for each of them, the software looks for a match in the Translation Memory. The result could be an ‘exact match’ or a ‘fuzzy match’, and then the translator can decide the best options or can make a new translation (Naldi 2014: 50). An example of a software based on the use of a translation memory tool is SDL Trados Studio, but many other can be found, such as OmegaT or MateCat (Naldi 2014: 52).

The advantages of using a TM tool are the fact that it can speed up the translation process and guarantee a consistent terminology. Consequently, it is important to continue to enrich Translation Memories during the translation activities, and in order to
do it, it is generally used the TMX (Translation Memory eXchange) format because it allows translators to enlarge their Translation Memories and to integrate them with others (Naldi 2014: 53).

The 2000s saw the emergence of other translation technologies which are currently widely used in website localization: Content Management Systems (CMS) and Global Management Systems (GMS) (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 51). These tools are very helpful because nowadays software and websites are rarely developed as a whole, but they are built by adding new components one at a time (Pym 2014: 124). As a result, both the CMS and GMS facilitate the localization process because they identify the segments that have been modified or added (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 52). Specifically, CMS allow this process to be controlled in one language and GMS allow content to be coordinated in many language versions (Pym 2014: 124).

Despite the value added by these new technological tools, some scholars warned about the dangers of using technology in translation (Bowker 2006, Pym 2014). Indeed, they state that translators no longer work with complete source texts, but only with decontextualized textual segments. Moreover, according to Bowker (2006), the use of TM tools also has clear implications in terms of cohesion and coherence because only a global unitary text can constitute the minimal unit of translation (Neubert and Shreve 1992). Indeed, according to Bowker (2006: 180), the use of TM produces a text that is grammatically correct, but that lacks coherence and cohesion, and that contains oversimplified syntax.

1.6.2 Corpus-based translation studies

Another instrument that translators could use to improve the quality of their work is a corpus of texts. Corpora are collections of authentic texts in both the source and target languages that can be used to reduce the amount of interferences of the source language in the translation by providing the translator with an inventory of attested “units of meaning, i.e. conventional ways of expressing specific meanings and performing specific functions in the target language” (Bernardini and Castagnoli 2008: 39).
In particular, there are three main types of corpora which can be used for different purposes. Firstly, there are monolingual corpora, which are collections of texts in the same language which share some features such as the genre, the author or a period of time and they can be used to analyse a particular kind of texts. There are also large monolingual corpora such as the British National Corpus and the COBUILD Bank of English which can be used to check the naturalness of a translation by looking at the collocations used (Munday 2016: 292). Secondly, there are comparable bilingual corpora, which are collections of similar texts in two languages and which can be used for terminology or other equivalences. Finally, there are parallel corpora, which contain pairs of translated segments in two languages and which can be used to analyse translation strategies. Online examples are Linguee (www.linguee.com) or Reverso (https://context.reverso.net) (Munday 2016: 293).

1.7 The role of institutions and the future for localization

The growth of volume of web contents requires an ever greater number of localization experts, and, thus, training institutions need to build localization training programmes to create these new emerging figures in the labour market (Jiménez-Crespo 2013, Pym 2014).

As regards localization training, there are two main points of view: the industry approach and the Translation Studies or the academics approach. The first one states that the main difference between localization and ‘regular’ translation is the technological component and for this reason, training focuses on knowledge of tools, technological processes and workflow management (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 162). On the other hand, Translation Studies academics believes that their aim is to educate future localizers, and not just giving them compartmentalized knowledge on specific technological topics. This idea is suggested by Bernardini (2004: 19) who believes that:

the core aim of [translator] education is to favour the growth of the individual, to develop cognitive capacities, and those attitudes and predispositions that will put her in a position to cope with the most varying professional situations.
As stated by Pym (2014), the relationship between academics and localization industry is difficult for many reasons, but the main problem is that academics do not take the localization industry seriously and that localization experts believe that the academics do not know anything about the real-world industry. However, in the case of localization training, the industry approach seems to have a more powerful influence on institutional education than the academics approach (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 163). As a result, the figure of the localization expert is a person who possesses both an advanced translation competence and a high degree of knowledge of localization and terminology management tools and processes. Therefore, it can be said that localization competence is an extension or addition to general translation competence. In particular, Quirion (2003) proposed a model where localization competence involves four main components: translation and adaptation skills; technological skills; knowledge of the main process and methodologies in the life of a localization project; and knowledge of project management. Furthermore, Jiménez-Crespo (2013) suggested another model where he gathers instrumental-technological sub-competences; knowledge about translation-localization competences; specialized bilingual and extra-linguistic sub-competences; and, strategic competence.

In conclusion, what can be said is that localization training should be as polyvalent and versatile as possible in order to allow students and professionals to constantly adapt to new trends and to seek their own way in the labyrinths of the so-called new satellite professions, which are continually evolving thanks to the ongoing technological developments (Jiménez-Crespo 2013, Pym 2014). Indeed, translation and localization are “being determined by new technologies” (Munday 2016: 299).

As regards the future of localization, according to Jiménez-Crespo (2013: 189), there are two main trends for localization. First, it should be considered the impact of technology on the web localization process and one recent phenomenon is that of crowdsourcing, which refers to a “volunteer translation produced in some form of collaboration by a group of Internet users forming and online community, often using specific platforms” (O’Hagan 2011: 14). The key features of crowdsourcing are the fact that volunteers work without monetary compensation and that the community can involve non-professional translators. Moreover, this new phenomenon could have
interesting consequences on translation training and could also forester the development of novel kinds of translation tools and platforms to accommodate collaboration among users (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 196). Secondly, another possible consequence of the use of technologies in the localization process could have some effects on Translation Studies in general. Indeed, Munday (2016: 275) believes that the emergence and proliferation of new technologies will have an impact on the theorization of translation itself. Finally, it is worth mentioning that new technologies have already changed and will continue to change the work of translators. Indeed, nowadays translation cannot be conceived without a computer and the Internet as a tool, and translators in the localization industry do not always translate texts or segments, but they just pre-edit a text that will be translated by the machine or they post-edit the machine output (García 2009).

1.8 From text to hypertext

Until now, the terms ‘text’ and ‘textual content’ were used when talking about the localization process, but it should be noted that the notion of ‘text’ is challenging in the Translation Studies field and in particular in website localization, because in the Web no traditional texts can be found. As a consequence, in this section, the notion of ‘text’ will be analyzed considering the point of view of Translation Studies academics and that of professionals working in the field of localization.

In linguistics, there is no universal definition of text, but over the last century, many scholars tried to give a definition by suggesting different points of view on the issue (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 44). In the 1960s, the definitions were based on the structural features that texts had to contain, but then texts started to be described according to their function in the communicative situation where they were produced. The latter approach, called functionalism, is now the most influential. According to de Beauagrande and Dressler (1981: 3) a text is a communicative occurrence which needs to meet seven standards of textuality, which are the following. Cohesion is the continuity of a text on the syntactic level; coherence is the continuity of a text at the semantic level; intentionality refers to the purpose of a text; acceptability, i.e. the fact that a text has to
be relevant or meaningful for the receiver; informativity means that a text has to include new information; situationality refers to the fact that a text needs to make sense with regards to the situation where it is presented; and intertextuality is the characteristic of a text of dependence and reference to previous texts (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981). If any of these standards is not satisfied, the text is considered non-communicative, and non-communicative texts are treated as non-texts.

As regards Translation Studies definitions of ‘text’, originally different linguistic approaches were incorporated, such as de Beaugrande and Dressler’s model (1981), even though translation scholars agree that not all the standards of textuality are equally relevant, but coherence and intentionality are the most relevant for translation purposes. Furthermore, Hatim and Mason (1990: 178) employing the Hallidayan systemic-functionalist approach define a text as:

a coherent and cohesive unit, realized by one or more than one sequence of mutually relevant elements, and serving some overall rhetorical purpose.

It can be noted that they highlight three of the standards already mentioned by de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981): coherence, cohesion and intentionality. Thirdly, Nord (2005: 16), from a functionalist perspective states that a text is “the totality of communicative signals used in a communicative interaction” and thus, this means that a text is the combination of verbal and non-verbal means.

To summarize and give a general overview of the multiple definitions of text, Jiménez-Crespo (2013: 48-9) suggests a list of five common elements that were found in the vast majority of the definitions of text considering all the different perspectives. First, the most important and repeated principle is that a text represents a unit (Halliday and Hasan 1976, de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981, Hatim and Mason 1990, Pym 2004). Second, the unitary character of any text is referred to as textuality (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981) or texture (Hatim and Mason 1990), which is the combination of the linguistic, semantic and pragmatic aspects of a text. Third, any text needs a receiver, this means that a text is ‘actualized’ through a specific reception situation (Jiménez-Crespo 2013). Fourth, texts are defined not only on the base of linguistic aspects, but also on non-verbal ones (Nord 2005). Finally, all texts need to possess a communicative purpose (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981, Hatim and Mason 1990).
However, the technological revolution has challenged the traditional idea of ‘text’. Indeed, with the development of the Internet, it was necessary to widen the notion of ‘text’ because the Web incorporates visual, sound, interactive and typographic aspects (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 43). As a consequence, since the 1970s, the notion of ‘hypertext’ started to be used in order to distance printed texts to contents available on the Web. In particular, the main differences are the fact that hypertexts can be modified more often than printed text; the fact that hypertexts contain a number of multimodal elements such as audio, graphics, icons and animations; and the fact that they are accessed by a larger audience than printed text (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 44).

The first definition of hypertext was suggested by Nielsen (1993: 2), who defines hypertexts as “non-sequential writing-text that branches and allows choices to the reader, best read at an interactive screen”. However, hypertexts commonly refer to complete websites (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 55), which can be defined as all the web pages that are accessible under a common Web address or domain name (Sandrini 2005: 13). The most significant feature of websites is the fact that they are not just a linear sequence of textual and visual contents, but they are composed by short chunks of texts and by visual elements which readers can access if they are interested (Sandrini 2005: 132). These elements are linked together thanks to links or hyperlinks, which are composed of two parts: the trigger, which is the element that can be activated and the target, which is the element that is activated (Janoshka 2003: 179).

The lack of a linear structure in hypertext challenges the idea of coherence and cohesion of a text. Indeed, cohesion and coherence are two basic properties that apply to all texts, no matter the medium. For example, hyperlinks introduce the possibility of lack of continuity of sense because it is the reader that choose whether to continue to read or select the trigger (Jiménez-Crespo 2013). Many scholars (Hatim and Mason 1990, Storrer 2002, Janoschka 2003, Baker 2011) tried to investigate this issue and they regard coherence of a hypertext as the result of “the interaction between knowledge presented in the text and the reader’s own knowledge and experience of the world” (Baker 2011: 219). Therefore, the active participation of the reader is essential because coherence is not considered a static feature of a text, but it rather depends on the reader. In particular, Storrer (2002) makes a distinction between local coherence and global
coherence. Local coherence is the relationship between “two semiotic neighbors in general”, for example between a figure and its caption, while global coherence is the linkage of text constituents mediated by the global theme of the document and by its rhetorical function (Storrer 2002: 4). Furthermore, in order to create coherence, hypertexts offer coherence cues such as navigation menus, headings or topic indicators, which allow the user to understand the relationship between the currently visited node and the global hypertext (Storrer 2002: 12).

1.9 Retail websites and ‘usability’

This paper will deal with retail websites, which are websites that facilitate buying and selling on the Internet because they fulfill marketing functions, such as advertising, trading, providing service, sales, etc. (Vengadasamy et al. 2004: 18). It is important to notice that retail websites have some peculiar features with regards to their design and the language used (Crystal 2001, Vengadasamy 2004, Cry and Trevor-Smith 2004, Sandrini 2005).

In their research, Vengadasamy et al. (2004) found three main characteristics relating with design features of retail websites. First, they found that in the vast majority of websites, background information on the products or services provided are present in the front page or homepage. However, the information was easy to comprehend and written in short sentences which highlight only the main features. Second, all the websites have on their homepages navigation aids which cover an extensive range of details concerning the product or service provided. Third, another common feature is the fact that all websites had very few written texts because most of writing was confined to description of the products or service and could be found next to pictures (Vengadasamy et al. 2004: 19-20).

As regards the language used on the Web, Crystal (2001) coined the term ‘Netspeak’ because he found some linguistic characteristics that are unique to the language of the Internet. Indeed, the language used is a result of the medium of communication and the way it can be used by consumers. For example, consumers usually do not really read the
web, but they scan only a part of the information presented, and for this reason text is mostly in the form of blurbs, headings and captions. Only second level pages contain some written texts because consumers who decided to browse them want to have more information (Vengadasamy et al. 2004: 21). Furthermore, paragraphs are not common in e-commerce websites, except for those which contain the history of the product or of the company and advice to buyers, but even in these cases the recommended length is four or five lines (Vengadasamy et al. 2004: 21). As a result, the language used on the web is very simple: simple sentences dominate, the active voice is preferred and strong verbs, usually written in the imperatives, are often used to talk directly to potential consumers (Vengadasamy et al. 2004: 23). Finally, creativity in language is an important aspect for the success of a website because, such as in conventional advertising, web-writers need to attract, interest and motivate users to act. Creativity cannot be applied in menu items or captions, but is still essential for headings or longer texts (Vengadasamy et al. 2004: 24-5).

Another consequence of the fact that users do not usually read completely a webpage is the fact that its design is as important as the linguistic content and Niels (2006), in a study with eye-tracking, suggests that English language users starts at the top-left and look across the page horizontally, and then skim down the page vertically, creating a F-shaped pattern. As a result, he suggests that key contents should be allocated in this area.

The target-oriented perspective of web localization is closely related to web usability, which examines the reception of websites by users and which is increasingly seen as a measure of their quality (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 36, Pym 2012: 6). Niels (2012) suggests that websites usability is composed by five main dimensions: learnability, efficiency, memorability, errors and user satisfaction. First, learnability is the ease with which users can accomplish basic tasks the first time that they access the website. Second, efficiency is the speed at which users can perform tasks once they know the website. Third, memorability is the speed at which users can re-establish proficiency with the website after a period of not using it. Fourth, errors refer to the number of errors that users are likely to make, the severity of them and how they can recover from them. Finally, satisfaction refers to the agreeableness of the use of the website. Niels
(2012) states that there are many other attributes for websites usability, but the one that can summarize all the other is utility, which refers to the functionality of the websites, and thus, it is the dimension that measures whether the website performs the tasks that users need. Usability and utility are equally important because they determine if the website is useful, because, if it is not, all the other dimensions matter little.

The main premise behind the concept of websites usability is that users do not read web texts, but they just scan the pages and when they find an item of interest they focus on it (Nielsen 2012). One important consequence of this aspect is the fact that websites success is measured by its ‘stickiness’, which is “the ability to attract new and repeat visitors and keep them on a site” (LISA 2003: 35).

The importance of websites usability is even more important for retail websites, which try to offer their products across national borders to larger attract number of visitors. Originally, having an online presence and proposing low prices was considered sufficient for success in e-commerce. However, Nantel and Glaser (2008: 113) underline that neither the simple fact of being online nor low prices guarantee the success of a website. Indeed, in their poll they found out that when consumers experience a problem, such as difficulty in the navigation, inability to carry out online transactions, non-compliance with delivery times, inaccessible or inadequate information, 34% of the consumers decided to switch to a competitor. A similar result was found out by Nielsen and Loranges (2006), who, in their study, found out that users normally leave a website if some elements are too complex to process and move on to search for similar information somewhere else.

This means that websites and their localized version should be as clear, concise and efficient as possible. However, some of the encountered problems may be due to technical issues and translators are not normally in charge of any usability changes in the design or visual components (Jiménez-Crespo 2013: 37).
1.10 The importance of culture on website usability

Many scholars (Sun 2001, Barber and Badre 2001, Singh et al. 2005, Pym 2012, de Mooij 2019) agree that the criteria for website success are not the same for all cultures, but they vary depending on the values of a particular culture. Indeed, even though globalization brought a convergence of technology and the disappearance of income differences, consumer behavior will become more heterogeneous because of cultural differences (de Mooij 2002: 61). This phenomenon, called ‘the paradox of culture’ by Hall (1976), is true for websites as well. Evidence shows that local websites depict the cultural values of that specific country (Singh et al. 2005, Singh et al. 2004) and, thus, cultural factors can be considered the major variables in determining the acceptability and usability of a website. As a result, in order to launch a successful website, cultural nuances and cross-cultural issues must be considered (Sun 2001: 96).

Before classifying countries according to their cultural values, it is essential to provide a definition of ‘culture’. According to de Mooij (2019: 72), the term ‘culture’ is used in two ways by scholarly literature. On one hand, culture represents the common ideas on which a society rests or the collective ways by which society understands its experience. On the other hand, culture is seen as the practices or the entire way of life of a group. In both cases, culture is what defines a human community, its individuals and social organizations (de Mooij 2019: 72). Similarly, Sun (2001: 96) defines culture as:

the common knowledge shared within a culture, the hierarchical structure of society and workplace, culturally specific rhetorical strategies, cultural differences in processing information.

This definition is particularly useful because it emphasizes the fact that culture is fundamental to process information. Indeed, processing information is closely linked with cognitive schemas, which help people to store information in specific categories and which are the result of the adaptation to a certain environment and are shared by members of a specific culture (D’Andrade 1992: 53). Therefore, as regards website success, a culturally adapted website results in greater ease of navigation and a more positive attitude towards the site itself (Nantel and Glaser 2008: 114).

Furthermore, Barber and Badre (1998) coined the concept of ‘cultural markers’ to refer to the interface design elements that are preferred by a particular cultural group. In
particular, they create different categories of cultural markers, and the most significant are: the HTML specifics such as the number of images and links, the tables, audio and video; the icons used such as clocks, stamps, flags, musical notes and paper clips; the colors and the shapes. They also suggest that the incorporation of cultural markers in Web design will improve the usability of a website and they define the way to combine culture and web usability as ‘culturability’ (1998).

As a result, it can be said that in the localization process, an excellent translation cannot guarantee that web users will properly decode the original message, which was written in a different language, and instead, it is important to consider the culture-specific frames of the target language and culture (Nantel and Glaser 2008: 113).

1.11 Dimensions of national culture: Hofstede’s model

The parameters which are the most used to typify national cultures are those suggested by Hofstede et al. (2005) which are: individualism and collectivism; power distance; uncertainty avoidance; masculinity and femininity; long-term and short-term orientation. In his study, Hofstede measured these dimensions on index scales from 0 to 100 and he derived the data by submitting more than 116,000 questionnaires to employees from national subsidiaries of one multinational firm, IBM, which involved 72 countries and 20 languages in total. To the 5 dimensions of Hofstede’s model, the high and low contextuality dimension is added, as proposed by Hall (1976). Each of these dimensions and their consequences as regards websites usability will be explored below.

The individualism vs. collectivism dimension focuses on individuals’ relationships with society and other individuals. In particular, individualism pertains to societies where the ties between individuals are loose (Hofstede et al. 2005: 76), personal freedom is valued and individual decision-making is encouraged (Singh et al. 2005: 74). On the contrary, collectivism pertains to societies where ties between individual are strong because they are integrated into powerful and cohesive groups from birth (Hofstede et al. 2005: 76). As a result, in individualistic societies, the use of the world ‘I’ is encouraged, people
score more extrovert on personality test and occupational mobility is higher (Hofstede et al. 2005: 76). Australia, Canada, the UK and the USA are the countries that score highly on collectivism, while China, Columbia, Japan and Mexico are countries that score highly on collectivism (Singh et al. 2005: 74).

As regards website preferences, Singh and Matsuo (2004: 866) hypothesize that in collectivist societies, websites will have some peculiar characteristics. First, these websites underline the importance of community relations, which is shown by the presence of clubs, chat rooms and newsletters. Second, they often present family themes, for example there are pictures of family or pictures of teams of employees and there is an emphasis on customers as a family. Third, they are characterized by symbols and pictures of national identity such as flags, pictures of historic monuments or country specific symbols. Finally, they often have some kind of loyalty programs, such as special membership programs or cards for specific countries.

According to Hofstede et al. (2005: 167), uncertainty avoidance is “the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations”. This means that cultures that score high on the avoidance of uncertainty give importance to security and low-risk situations, while cultures that score low can better tolerate uncertainty and ambiguity. Furthermore, in weak uncertainty avoidance societies anxiety and stress levels are relatively low, emotions should not be shown, what is different is curious, and risky investments are more frequent.

As regards websites, in strong uncertainty avoidance societies, they have some peculiar aspects. First, they give great importance to customer service, and this can be shown through FAQ’s, customer services in general such as toll-free numbers to call at any time, free service information and mentions of contact information for local stores and offices. Second, the navigation is guided thanks to sitemaps, well-displayed links, links in the form of pictures or buttons etc. Finally, they also have local terminology and use country-specific metaphors, names of festivals, puns which show that the website is not just a mere translation (Singh and Matsuo 2004: 866).

The power distance dimension can be defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept
inequalities in the society (Hofstede et al. 2005). Societies which are high on power
distance, such as Mexico, China and India, accept power and hierarchy and the ideas of
‘status’ and ‘legitimacy’ are important. On the other hand, countries which are low on
power distance, such as Canada, Denmark and the US, are more egalitarian, respect
equal rights and discourage status symbols (Singh et al. 2005: 75). In particular, in
societies with large power distance inequalities are expected and desired, and less
powerful people should be dependent (Hofstede et al. 2005).

Websites of countries which show higher levels of power distance usually contains
company hierarchy information, such as information about the personnel, pictures of the
CEOs or managers and titles to refer to them are very important. Furthermore, they
often have mentions of award won or quality certification by international and local
agencies (Singh and Matsuo 2004: 866).

The masculinity vs. femininity dimension explains how gender roles are allocated in
different cultures. In short, men are supposed to be assertive, competitive and tough,
while women are more concerned to be taking care of the home and children (Hofstede
et al. 2005: 117). Masculine cultures value assertiveness, ambition, success and
performance and in such cultures there are clear gender roles. According to Hofstede,
Germany scores highest on this dimension, followed by the US and France. On the
contrary, feminine societies value beauty and nature and there is not a clear division
between gender roles (Singh et al. 2004: 75).

As a result, websites in masculine societies contain more quizzes and games if
compared to websites of feminine societies, are characterized by realism themes,
contain information about product effectiveness and usually there are separate pages for
men and women (Singh and Matsuo 2004: 866).

Long-term orientation dimension refers to the extent to which a society is oriented
towards the future, and thus, values perseverance and thrift. On the other hand, short-
term orientation societies deals with virtues related to the past and present, and in
particular value tradition and social obligation as important aspect of the life. Long-
oriented cultures are found in the East Asia, for instance China has the highest long-
term orientation score.
Finally, the last dimension, which does not belong to Hofstede’s model and which was proposed by Hall (1976: 91), makes a distinction between high and low context cultures. In his opinion,

a high context communication or message is one in which most of the information is already in the person, while very little is in the coded, explicit, transmitted part of the message. A low context communication is just the opposite; i.e., the mass of the information is vested in the explicit code.

This means that in high context cultures, communication is implicit, indirect and embedded in the context, while in low context cultures, communication is direct, explicit and more informative (Singh and Matsuo 2004: 867). As a consequence, websites of high context cultures are likely to be characterized by politeness and indirectness, for instance in the language there may be indirect expressions such as ‘perhaps’ and ‘probably’; they give particular attention to aesthetic details and use a soft-sell approach. On the contrary, websites of low-context cultures use a hard-sell approach, where discounts, promotions and product advantages are emphasized; and, contain clear and easily accessible terms and condition of purchase (Singh and Matsuo 2004: 866).

1.12 Other models and implications on consumers’ behavior

Even though the Hofstede’s model is often employed to measure the impact of culture on website usability and the implications for international retailing (de Mooij and Hofstede 2002, Singh and Matsuo 2004, Singh et al. 2005, Nantel and Glaser 2008), there are at least other two models that have been developed and that could be use for the same purpose.

The first model that will be introduced is Schwartz’s theory (1999) which contains seven cultural dimensions: conservatism, intellectual autonomy, affective autonomy, hierarchy, egalitarianism, mastery and harmony, which can be gathered into three main issues. The first group describes the way the individual is viewed in the society: conservatism refers to the fact that the individual is embedded in the collectivity and finds meaning in social relationships, which are based on social order, respect for tradition and family security, while autonomy dimension refers to the fact that the
people are viewed as an autonomous entity who finds meaning in their own uniqueness. In particular there are two kinds of autonomies: one that emphasizes the intellectual autonomy, with consequences on curiosity and creativity and the other that deals with affective autonomy, with a focus on pleasure and living an exciting life (Schwartz 1999: 27). The second group looks at how societies preserve the social fabric and Schwartz found two opposite poles: hierarchy, which emphasizes the legitimacy of an unequal distribution of power, role and resources; and egalitarianism, which favors equality, social justice and freedom. Finally, the third group deals with the relationship between humankind and the natural world. Even in this case there is a dichotomy between mastery, which refers to the attitude of self-assertion and which values ambition, success and competence; and harmony which values the unity with nature, the protection of the environment and of Beauty (Schwartz 1999: 28).

The second model that will be analyzed in this paper is suggested by House and belongs to a research program on culture and leadership which involves 61 nations called GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness). It counts the following nine dimensions (House 2002: 5-6):

1. **Uncertainty Avoidance** is defined as the extent to which members of a society rely on social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices to alleviate the unpredictability of future events.
2. **Power Distance** is the degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be unequally shared.
3. **Societal Collectivism** reflects the degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.
4. **In-Group Collectivism** refers to the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in their organizations or families.
5. **Gender Egalitarianism** is the extent to which an organization or a society minimizes gender role differences and gender discrimination.
6. **Assertiveness** is the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in social relationships.
7. Future Orientation is the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification.

8. Performance Orientation refers to the extent to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.

9. Humane Orientation 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.

De Mooij (2016) compared these three models to measure national culture and concluded that sometimes dimensions with the same name do not explain similar concepts, for instance GLOBE’s and Hofstede’s uncertainty avoidance are very different. At the same time, other dimensions are more similar, such as the dimensions of masculinity and femininity with the dimensions of egalitarianism and assertiveness. In conclusion, the results of this study show that a choice can be made from different models to analyze human behavior related to culture, but de Mooij suggests that Schwartz and GLOBE’s models provided only limited advancements if compared with Hofstede’s original work (de Mooij 2016: 447). As a result, in this paper the five dimensions included in the model suggested by Hofstede and the contextuality dimension suggested by Hall will be used.

Hofstede’s model shows that there are significant differences in the depiction of cultural values for different countries. This idea needs to be used for websites as well: the Web is not a culturally neutral medium, but it is loaded with cultural values of the Web site’s locale (Singh and Matsuo 2004: 869). As a result, when creating a website from scratch or when a website needs adapting for a different locale, it is important to consider the cultural dimensions of the countries involved in order to design culturally congruent and country-specific websites that will be perceived positively by the target audiences.

Many scholars (Sun 2001, De Mooij and Hofstede 2002, Cyr and Trevor-Smith 2004) analyzed some interesting implications of cultural differences in consumer behaviors and consumptions related to websites usability. In their opinion, business managers need to consider them to avoid faux pas in the global online market. In particular, they
have been gathered into three different groups: the first deals with products and services, the second is about the websites characteristics and the third focuses on the communication style.

First, it is important to consider the characteristics of the various products and of the service categories offered by the company. For example, in cultures with large power distance, free time is spent with family and relatives, whereas in culture with small power distance, more time is spent on the organization of leisure activities. As a result, the percentage of consumption expenditures allocated to leisure and entertainment is negatively correlated with power distance. Another example deals with the consumption of food: in collectivist cultures, food has an important social function and more time is spent in preparing food if compared to individualist cultures. For this reason, in the supermarkets of collectivist cultures, the variation and display of food needs a particular attention, while in individualist cultures people are more focused on convenience and fast food (de Mooij and Hofstede 2002: 64). As regards clothing and footwear, in cultures with a high level of uncertainty avoidance, consumption expenditures on these products is higher than in countries with lower levels of uncertainty avoidance because people place great value to the fact of being well groomed (de Mooij and Hofstede 2002: 64). Finally, another example relates to luxury articles: they are likely to be more attractive in masculine cultures than in feminine cultures because they can be used as a manifestations of one’s success (de Mooij and Hofstede 2002: 65). All these examples show that the same product cannot be sold in the same way in different countries.

Second, the cultural dimensions can also be used to determine some of the characteristics of the website itself. For instance, users of low context cultures prefer arrangement in alphabetical order, logical and structured layouts, while users from high context cultures share a strong preference for visuals (Sun 2001: 100). Moreover, another example is about the methods of payment: in long-term orientation cultures, cash and debit cards are the preferred methods of payment, while short-term orientation culture are characterized by a daily use of credit cards. This has consequences for the development of e-commerce websites, which need to provide different methods of payment according to the target audiences. Another example deals with the preference for discounters: they are related to short-term orientation culture because they offer only
short-term saving opportunities. On the contrary, long-term orientation cultures prefer promotional activities that offer long-term saving opportunities, such as saving stamps, because that can help to build a relationship with a retailer or brand (de Mooij and Hofstede 2002: 66). Another aspect of long-term orientation cultures, which are prone to thrift, is that they are less receptive to e-commerce (de Mooij and Hofstede 2002: 66).

Finally, as regards websites communication, in high context cultures it is indirect, subtle, complex, evasive and situational, while in low context culture it is direct, easy to follow and characterized by overt guidance in textual processing such as parallelism, organization and symmetry (Sun 2001: 100). According to the communication styles, different cultures would expect different kind of online interactions, i.e. online, e-mail, telephone. Indeed, high-context cultures are likely to prefer more personal forms of communication such as the telephone (Cyr and Trevor-Smith 2004: 1201).

1.13 Hofstede’s model: comparison of UK and Italy

This paper will deal with the English and Italian cultures as its main object is to localize an English website for the Italian locale. Before analyzing all the aspects of this process in detail in the next chapters, it is important to use the cultural dimensions suggested by Hall (1987) and Hofstede et al. (2005). As regards contextuality, the dimension suggested by Hall (1987), it can be noted that British culture is a low-context culture, while Italy is a high-context culture (see figure 1.2). Secondly, as regards individualism, it can be noticed that both UK and Italy are individualistic societies, but the score of UK is higher than that of Italy (see figures 1.3 and 1.4). As a result, this means that these two cultures could show some little differences in this dimension too. On the other hand, as regards power distance and masculinity vs. femininity dimensions, it can be said that no significant differences can be found because the scores of the two countries are very similar: they are two masculine societies (see figure 1.4) and they have a medium level of power distance (see figures 1.3 and 1.5). Finally, as regards uncertainty avoidance, it can be observed that Italy is a strong uncertainty avoidance culture, while Great Britain is a weak uncertainty avoidance culture (see figure 1.5).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale score</th>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low context</td>
<td>1  Germans, Swiss, Austrians</td>
<td>• Message is made explicit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2  New Zealanders, (white) South Africans</td>
<td>• Interpretation of messages rests on the written or spoken word – focus on content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3  North Americans and Canadians</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4  Scandinavians, Finns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5  British, Australians</td>
<td>• Seek information from a research base (reports, databases, internet, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6  Benelux people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7  Other American cultures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8  Slavs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9  Central Europeans</td>
<td>• Interpretation of messages rests on contextual cues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10 Koreans, South East Asians</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 Indians, and other Indian sub-continent</td>
<td>• Seek information from personal information networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12 Arabs, Africans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13 Latin Americans</td>
<td>• Becoming well-informed about the facts before making a decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14 Italians, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Other Mediterranean peoples</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High context</td>
<td>15 Chinese</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16 Japanese</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.2** High and low context countries and their characteristics (van Everdingen and Waarts 2003: 223).

**Figure 1.3** Uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism dimensions for country (Hofstede et al. 2005).
Figure 1.4 Uncertainty avoidance and masculinity/femininity dimensions for country (Hofstede et al. 2005).
In conclusion, it can be said that significant cultural differences can be found even for two relatively similar Western countries such as Italy and UK. In particular, the main differences are expected to be found for the dimensions concerning contextuality, uncertainty avoidance and individualism vs. collectivism, while for power distance and masculinity/ femininity dimensions no differences are expected to be found.

Figure 1.5 Power distance and uncertainty avoidance dimensions for country (Hofstede et al. 2005).
1.14 E-commerce websites: localization or standardization?

There is an ongoing debate over the issue of standardization or localization of web communication contents. Studies by Sun (2001), de Mooij and Hofstede (2002), Singh and Matsuo (2004), Spring et al. (2004), Nantel and Glaser (2008) encourage companies to use the strategy of localization because of the existence of cross-cultural differences in the perception of websites. On the other hand, some scholars (Luna et al. 2002, Liu et al. 2016) believe that cultural factors do not impact consumers perception of websites and thus suggest that the best strategy for company is standardization. This issue does not have a definitive answer because companies have successfully employed both strategies. For instance, McDonald's maintains its Ronald McDonald House Charity program across America, Europe, Asia and Australia, while Abbott Pharmaceuticals diversifies the content of its websites by suggesting country-specific contents (Merz et al. 2010: 234).

Before deciding what strategy is the best for the current study, it is important to understand the pros and cons of both standardization and localization. As regards standardization advantages, it should be noted that this strategy allows the company to focus on a single international market and, thus, the firm is likely to be better positioned. Moreover, standardization can help reduce the costs to support local projects which need to be aligned to the global strategy of the firm (Merz et al. 2010: 236). On the other hand, localization allows local managers to better understand local consumers’ demands and needs, and, thus, this corporate country-specific strategy could be considered more effective (Merz et al. 2010: 237). Furthermore, Rigby and Vishwanath (2006) suggest that nowadays localization is the best strategy because it is more difficult for competitors to emulate it, but many factors should be analyzed such as offer, location and time variables.

The study carried out by Spring et al. (2004) provides evidence that users of five different countries (Italy, India, Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland) evaluate local country websites and websites adapted to the local culture more favorably than standardized websites in English as regards navigation, attitude towards the site, higher purchase intention and perception of cultural congruence. This is due to the fact that linguistically and culturally congruent web contents activate shared schemas for
consumers who share the same culture, and, thus, help them to better process web contents (Spring et al. 2004: 73). In particular, the study focuses only on business-to-consumers shopping websites, which are gathered into three groups: local, adapted and standardized websites. First, local websites belong to a local company, are developed in the national language and are targeted to the local consumers of that country. Second, adapted websites belong to multinational American companies and have been designed for specific countries. They share three main characteristics: they have a country-specific template which reflects the country URL’s like (such as .it for Italy), they have some degree of localization as regards country-specific time, date, currency, etc. and they are displayed in the language of the country. Finally, standardized websites are in English and are not specifically targeted to the local consumers of other countries. The general results show that websites depicting high levels of cultural adaptation rank higher than standardized websites. As regards Italy, Italian consumers show better attitude towards the site and higher purchase intention for local websites, while for presentation and navigation no significant differences are found (Spring et al. 2004: 78). As a consequence, it can be said that localization for e-commerce website is the best strategy for multinational companies wishing to expand their business in the Italian market because what is most important for a company is to sell the products, and evidence shows that localization increase the purchase intention.

However, some companies are still hesitant about localization of their web contents and decide to either have standardized global websites or develop machine-translated versions for different countries (Spring et al. 2004: 71). Furthermore, other companies need to consider their market segment and cannot apply the general rule that localization is always the best solution. An example is provided by Liu et al. (2016) who study the context of luxury fashion retailers’ internalization into the Chinese marketplace. Indeed, in their opinion, as regards to luxury fashion market, over-localization can create confusion over brand identity and country of origins to Chinese consumers, who instead prefer to feel members of a global élite (Liu et al. 2016: 362). Finally, another study carried out by Luna et al. (2002) suggest that the congruity of a website with a visitor’s culture is one aspect that can determine the success of the website itself, but also point out that websites that are too congruent and, thus, are not challenging enough, may lead to tedium or boredom. As a consequence, they suggest
that moderate cultural congruity in websites, where visitors can relate to the contents but are also challenged by new information formats or settings, are optimal for online success (Luna et al. 2002: 400). A similar idea is suggested by Tixier (2005), who talks about ‘glocalization’ as the best option in the debate between localization and standardization. Glocalization is a third path which makes possible to “combine worldwide unity of the brand image and a perfect adaptability to the specificities of national expectations” (Tixier 2005: 15). In particular, Tixier (2005) examined different sectors of industry in the US and Europe, especially France, and found out that for airline companies and for the sectors of hotel and banking, standardization is the most natural path chosen by US and French companies; for the sectors of business to consumers, entertainment and advertising the best strategy is the localization; while for e-commerce glocalization is often the preferred option (see figures 1.6 and 1.7).

Figure 1.6 Differences among industries in the United States (Tixier 2005: 25).
In conclusion, it can be said that there is no definitive answer to the debate between localization and standardization because each company needs to analyze the geographical context, consumers’ preferences and the peculiar aspects of the product or service that is offered, considering that a third option, glocalization, is valuable as well. However, as regards the present study, localization will be employed for the English website which will be made available – linguistically and culturally – to the Italian audience.
1.15 Assessing website localization

This last section will deal with different frameworks that have been developed to measure the level of localization on websites. In particular, two main methods will be analyzed in detail.

This first framework was suggested by Gibb and Matthaiakis in 2007, who do not only focus on websites localization, but they also analyze all the cases where different versions of web contents are required for specific audiences or channels. Indeed, they talk about repurposing, which is the process which ensures that “information can be output to different end users in a format which reflects their specific needs (e.g. users with visual impairment or language requirements) and/or for their channel of choice (e.g. web browser or mobile phone)” (Gibb and Matthaiskis 2007: 664-5).

In their research, they use language and non-language dimensions to evaluate websites localization level. In the language dimension, a score was used to indicate the number of languages a site is translated. As regards the non-language dimensions, a score of 0-7 was given depending on the number of criteria which were contained in the website. The non-language criteria are: layout and menu change; color changes; changes in icons; changes in images; currency adaptation; measurement adaptation; date/time conventions (Gibb and Matthaiskis 2007: 672). The scores obtained are then used to create a matrix with two dimensions: the breadth of localization, which is the number of speaking communities that were considered; and the depth of localization, which refers to the range of localization features used in the website. The two dimensions create four areas which can used to categorize websites according to their level of localization. Floundererers are websites that have made no or limited attempts to localize their contents; fishers have made some attempts only by translating their websites; focusers have concentrated on a small number of languages, but have enhanced their translation with localization features; finally, farmers have targeted large number of languages and focused on the needs of foreign customers considering the non-language criteria (Gibb and Matthaiskis 2007: 673). Figure 1.8 shows the matrix suggested by Gibb and Matthaiskis:
The second diagnostic framework that will be provided is that suggested by Singh et al. (2009). In their research, they included four primary constructs: content localization, cultural customization, local gateway, and translation quality. First, content localization refers to all the aspects that provide a general understanding of how the company has localized the websites. The main elements that need to be considered are: the percentage of translated web pages; the extent of the content made available to the foreign users in terms of product information; the frequency of the content synchronization; the ease of navigation considering site maps, hyperlinks, etc. compared with the original website; and, the web-site service and support offered to the different audiences (Singh et al. 2009: 283). Second, cultural customization refers to all the cultural elements that resonate with the foreign culture. In particular, the model takes into account the overall design and feel of the website, the presence of pictures that relate to the target culture, the colors used with reference to their meaning in the target culture, and the presence of products or services specific for the target audience. Third, local gateway refers to the ease of finding the web pages with a search engine, the presence of links to foreign web pages from the company’s English home page, and whether the English URL is easily distinguishable from the URLs relating to other countries. Finally, translation quality provides an assessment of the translation of the content, focusing on vocabulary, idiomatic and conceptual equivalence (Singh et al. 2009: 283).

Singh et al. (2009) provided a scorecard that summarize all the 12 variables, that can be divided into the four aforementioned categories, and for each of them a score from 1 to
5 can be cast (see figure 1.9). In particular, they suggest that this scorecard can be used by companies to assess the localization quality of their site.

**Figure 1.9** Scorecard for localization quality (Sing *et al.* 2009: 293).
Chapter 2

Case study: Localization of the Clarks’ website

2.1 Global and EU footwear industry

The global footwear market is a multi-million US dollar industry, which comprises a great range of products: shoes, sneakers, luxury footwear, athletic footwear, sporting shoes and other related goods. According to Statista (2019), the size of the global footwear industry was 246 billion US dollars in 2017 and the forecast for the years 2018-2023 shows a constant increase of the size of this industry, that will reach about 320 billion US dollars of value in 2023 (see figure 2.1).

![Figure 2.1 Size of the global footwear industry in 2017 and forecast for the years 2018-2023 (Statista 2019).](image)

The EU is one of the most important market for the footwear industry and traditionally has been an important supplier of high quality footwear in the global market, but recently production of shoes has been outsourced to Asia (Blery 2014: 91). Figures for
2017 show that in the main footwear exporting countries there were six European countries - Italy, Germany, Belgium, Netherlands, France and Spain - for a total of more than 34 billion US dollars. However, the leader in the exportations in 2017 was China with more than 45 billion US dollars. As regards Europe, in 2017, Italy was the biggest footwear producer with 32.9% of the production and was third in the global production after China and Vietnam. Furthermore, if considering leather footwear production, Figure 2.2 shows that in 2017 Italy ranked second with almost 8 billion US dollars of exportations after China with 9 billion US dollars (Assocalzaturifici 2019).

![Figure 2.2 Main footwear exporting countries worldwide year 2017 (million Usd) (Assocalzaturifici 2019).](image)

The European, and in particular the Italian footwear industry has peculiar characteristics. In 2018, there were approximately 4.5 thousand companies active in the Italian footwear manufacturing sector for a total of 75.7 thousand employees (Statista 2019). This means that most of these were family business employing less than 20 people (Blery 2014: 91). Furthermore, the European footwear production industry focuses on providing added value in better design, quality materials, comfort and in other innovations to meet the strict environmental rules and to compete with China, Vietnam and India (Blery 2014: 92). As a result, the origin of the product is fundamental in the marketing strategy of the Italian footwear industry that uses the famous “Made in Italy”.
The label “Made in” can influence consumers’ behavior. According to Kapferer (2008: 22) it is perceived as a brand because it performs the eight functions that are usually performed by brands, which are the following:

1. Identification, which refers to the fact that the product is immediately seen and identified with the brand.
2. Practicality is the fact that a well-established and known brand allows the consumer to save time and energy.
3. Guarantee gives to the consumer a constant quality assurance.
4. Optimisation is the function that gives consumers the certainty of buying the best product of the category.
5. Badge is a tool that allows consumers to create a self-image related to the value of the brand or to create an image to present to others.
6. Continuity is the fact that consumers feel satisfaction when they create a relationship of familiarity and intimacy with the brand.
7. Hedonistic is the enchantment linked to the attractiveness of the brand or logo.
8. Ethical is the satisfaction linked to responsible behavior of the brand in its relationship with the society.

Each country can benefit from the label “Made in” if in the popular imagination the connotations of that country are positive. In this case, the company should reinforce the link between the place of production and the product for the marketing strategy. As regards the clothing and footwear industries, the label “Made in” is required by law and does not always bring a positive value to the company. For example, the label “Made in China” brings a negative value to the product and company because it is linked to low quality level. As a consequence, the place of origin of shoes is perceived by consumers as a condition that established a priori the relationship with the quality of the product (Associazurriturifici 2019).

In particular, according to Han (1989) the label “Made in” gives rise to two main and cyclic processes. First, there is the ‘halo construct’ which refers to the fact that consumers use the common knowledge of the country of origin to understand the quality of the product because they are not able to assess the product attributes. Second, there is the ‘summary effect’ which refers to the fact that consumers assess the product
attributes using previous experiences. It should be noted that the experiences do not need to be direct, but can also derived from other people.

Furthermore, Assocalzaturifici (2019) provides some significant examples about the relationships between the label “Made in” and some countries of origin. As regards the UK, it states that English shoes are famous worldwide for the quality and the design of man shoes. The label “Made in UK” is particularly appreciated in France and Germany, but in Italy this label is perceived slightly differently because the quality is considered inferior to the Italian quality. Moreover, French shoes are generally perceived as high-quality shoes produced by the major brands in the luxury sector and they are recognizable thanks to their peculiar style and the attention to the detail. On the contrary, shoes produced in Asia (China, India, Vietnam, Indonesia etc.) are perceived as low-quality products. Finally, “Made in Italy” shoes are perceived as high-quality products and are linked to the idea of elegance, fashion, and uniqueness. As a result, the Italian shoes have higher prices than the shoes produced in other countries even though they are in the same market segment because consumers are willing to pay a higher price, also called premium price, for the label “Made in Italy”. Figure 2.3 shows the average of the export prices for a pair of shoes in US dollars for the top 15 exporting countries and it can be noted that the average price for “Made in Italy” products is much more higher than the average of the shoes produced in other countries.

![Figure 2.3 Average export price among top 15 exporters in 2017 (Assocalzaturifici 2019).](image)
2.2 Clarks company

Clarks was founded in 1825 in the Somerset village of Street by two brothers, James and Cyrus Clarks, who started to produce just a few pairs of home-made slippers, but now Clarks sells more than 50 million pairs of shoes per year, has a turnover of almost £1.4 billion and counts more than 15,000 employees (Palmer 2013).

All started from a partnership between the two brothers: James went to work for his brother Cyrus, who was ten years older than him. The terms of his apprenticeship did not mention a stipend, but James, keen to earn some money, had a brilliant idea: he started to produce slippers with some of the sheepsin offcuts that could not be used for the manufacturing of rugs. At the beginning, Cyrus showed little interest in his brother new business and the making of sheepsin rugs remained straightforward, but the success of shoe manufacturing was rapidly increasing and ‘ready-mades’ was first introduced. It was a huge transformation because all shoes were made on last - a shaped piece of wood or metal around which the shoe is built, but ready-mades involved an universal rather than one made for a particular individual (Palmer 2013).

In 1833 James completed his apprenticeship and became partner of his brother of the C. & J. Clark company, which produced rugs, socks, slippers and shoes. At the beginning, 60% of the company sales derived from rugs production and just 20% was from shoes sale. However, those figures changed dramatically over the next decades and in 1851 the footwear production represented the 75% of the total revenue (Palmer 2013). The company started to expand: the number of employees rise from one in 1829 to 38 workers in 1841, even though Cyrus and James had problems in finding workers because Street did not have experience of the footwear industry; 60 lined of footwear were produced in 1835 and the bestsellers were boots for ladies and men; in addition to sheepsin, other materials were used; and the sales tripled in just few years, from 1832 to 1836. Furthermore, thanks to some contacts James had in Liverpool, some shoes and rugs were sold to America and Canada (Palmer 2013).

The company experienced some difficult periods: the first was at the beginning of the 1840s because of the national situation of crisis and to recover, Cyrus and James started to travel and expand their trade to Australia. The second financial crisis happened in
1863 and the help of the Quaker friends and cousins was essential. However, over those years the company continued to grow and establish new contacts with different countries such as Turkey during the Crimean war. Furthermore, different strategies to face the competition were employed, such as using a marketing communication appealing directly the consumers without appearing to do so; guaranteeing the quality of shoes but offering them at a lower price in comparison with the competitors; and giving importance to the style of the shoes (Palmer 2013).

After Cyrus’s death in 1866, the company was left to James’s son, William, who was one of the earliest shoemakers that introduced machinery into the production process. He led the company for more than 50 years and made the company a pioneer of new technology and footwear innovation. In 1903, the company passed to the third generation of family members in form of private limited company. An important event happened in 1945 when the company launched its new collection of shoes for children with a wide range of widths. Indeed, still nowadays, the company dominates the children’s market and for many people in Britain, their first pair of shoes is bought from Clarks (Palmer 2013).

There was an important phase of expansion after the WWII when the company’s volume market share in the UK increased from 1.1% in 1945 to 9% in 1970. This growth brought the company to decide to move the business management to professional managers, but with a family shareholder council serving as intermediary, as a sounding board and as a democratic elected body (Palmer 2013). In 1959, the company also created to Clark Foundation which supports a series of charitable events in the UK and which shows the values of the company about the care for people within and outside the company (http://clarkfoundationpdx.org).

At the beginning of the 21st century, the company had to close down several factories in the Western countries, especially in UK, Ireland and in the US, and outsourced the production overseas, primarily in Vietnam and China. However, the headquarters of Clarks remain in Street, where it was founded almost 200 years ago and where the CEO operates – from the 2019 it is the Italian manager Giorgio Presca. Despite the challenges faced since its origin and those that the company has to face nowadays in a new economic paradigm, Clarks is an extraordinary example of a British business that
revolutionized the footwear industry and that became an international brand thanks to its values, the family’s determination to remain independent and its iconic shoes – such as the famous Desert Boot (Palmer 2013).

2.3 Clarks website

The aim of this paper is to localize the Clarks website for the Italian market to increase Clarks’ sales in Italy. In particular, the website which will be subject to localization can be defined as a B2C corporate website (Torresi 2010) because it contains information about the company, its story, products and materials. It is available online at the link www.clarks.com and it is only in English. There are versions in other languages that can be found online, but they are more sales-oriented and do not provide any information related to the company. As regards the Italian version, it is a retail website available at the link www.clarks.it which allows consumers to buy the product online offering information about the different models, sizes and prices (see figure 2.4)

![Figure 2.4 Homepage of the Italian Clarks website](image)

I suggest that to attract new consumers, it could be important to localize the English website which contains all the information about the company or to add those information in the existing Italian website. Indeed, as already stated in Chapter 1,

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2 Available at www.clarks.it.
consumers are more prone to buy a product if the website is in their native language and if contains some cultural markers that usually are found in local websites.

Before the localization process and the translation of all the textual content, it is important to analyze the English website and its main features. The homepage (see figures 2.5 and 2.6) has 4 main menus at the top – our story, corporate responsibility, franchise opportunities and careers – and the main body contains the marketing communication strategy that is used. The homepage is more subject to changes than the second level pages, indeed the endorsers, Freida Pinto and Alexander Skarsgard, that are present in the homepage will be there only for a short period. Then another strategy is likely to be chosen by the company.

Figure 2.5 Homepage of the English Clarks website with the endorser Freida Pinto³.

³ Available at www.clarks.uk.
It can be noted that in the homepage, as suggested by Vegadasamy (2004), clear references to the product of the company are made through the images and the logo (CLARKS SHOES), but there is practically no written information of the product itself. On the contrary, second level pages are characterized by much more textual information with long paragraphs and more complex sentence structures. In particular, in this case, it can be noted that in the homepage, the company decided to use one traditional marketing strategy, that is using an endorser and an easy-to-remember key phrase: “Being myself makes me feel most comfortable” and “Comfort is coming home”.

The same strategy has been used in the Italian retail website and, therefore, it can be noted that the Clarks company decided to use a single communication marketing strategy for both the countries (see figures 2.7 and 2.8). In particular, the key phrases have been translated with “Essere me stessa mi fa sentire più comoda” and “Comfort è tornare a casa”. They are literal translations, but they are effective in Italian as well because the words ‘comoda’ and ‘comfort’ are generally used for shoes or clothing. Finally, in the Italian website can be found a video where Alexander Skarsgard is talking, but it is available only in English and no subtitles are provided. I suggest that in the localization process, all the contents – textual and visual – should be made available to Italian consumers, and thus, the subtitling of the video will be included.

Figure 2.6 Homepage of the English Clarks website with the endorser Alexander Skarsgard.
Figure 2.7 Homepage of the Italian Clarks website with the endorser Freida Pinto.

Figure 2.8 Homepage of the Italian Clarks website with the endorser Alexander Skarsgard.
As regards the cultural markers that need to be considered during the localization and translation processes, the cultural dimension suggested by Hofstede (see Chapter 1) will be included. In particular, both UK and Italy are individualistic cultures, and therefore, the websites should not contain country-specific symbols and images and family themes. Moreover, they are both masculine cultures and should focus on the brand identity and the relationship between the image of the individual and the product. As regards the main cultural differences, Italy is a strong uncertainty avoidance country and therefore the Italian website should give more attention to customer services and employ terminology, metaphors and puns related to the Italian culture. Furthermore, UK is a low context country and thus the local websites are generally more logical and structured, characterized by symmetry and organization, while Italy, which is a high context culture, generally has websites which focus more on the visual elements and that are less organized.

2.4 Translation of the textual content of the Clarks website

STORIA

PRODUTTORI DI SCARPE DAL 1825

Sono passati quasi 200 anni da quanto i fondatori, Cyrus e James Clark, realizzarono la loro prima ciabatta utilizzando dei semplici ritagli di pelle. Quello che fecero allora fu rivoluzionario: riuscirono a combinare la loro creatività con una lavorazione artigianale eccellente. È quello che Clarks continua a fare ancor oggi, ma invece di utilizzare un semplice ritaglio di pelle, ogni paio di scarpe è prodotto partendo da un blocco di legno di carpino e utilizzando tecniche di costruzione all’avanguardia, tecnologie innovative e materiali di alta qualità che permettono di realizzare calzature adatte al mondo d’oggi.

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4 The source text is available in the Appendix 1.
TRA TRADIZIONE E INNOVAZIONE

Fin dall’inizio abbiamo sempre agito e pensato diversamente dagli altri. Le nostre idee ci hanno sempre fatto emergere, ad esempio la realizzazione della prima scarpa su misura al mondo, i modelli e le misure per bambini che per primi abbiamo iniziato a produrre, il nostro rivoluzionario strumento per misurare il piede e le solette ammortizzanti per le scarpe, fino alla prototipazione rapida e alla stampa in 3D.

ECCELLENZA ARTIGIANALE

Leonardo da Vinci definì il piede “un capolavoro di ingegneria e un’opera d’arte”. E noi, per essere sicuri di prendercene cura a meglio, abbiamo deciso di studiarlo: da quello dei neonati fino a quello degli anziani, concentrandoci su tutte le fasi dello sviluppo. In particolare, abbiamo analizzato la biomeccanica, il modo in cui si muove, si riposa e si diverte. E tutto quello che abbiamo imparato, lo abbiamo utilizzato per creare le scarpe perfette per voi e per rendere i vostri piedi sani e felici.

CALZATURE ICONICHE

Nel nostro archivio si trovano più di 22.000 tipi di scarpe con diversi stili che hanno rivoluzionato le generazioni, definito nuove mode e catturato l’immaginazione. Come gli iconici Desert Boot, che sono stati disegnati e lanciati da Nathan Clark negli anni ’50 e il cui fascino persiste ancora oggi. Oppure come il modello Nature, una scarpa sportiva e innovativa entrata in voga negli anni ’80 e che ancora oggi, dopo averle conferito un design più moderno, è venduta in tutto il mondo. O ancora come le scarpe Trigenic Flex, che rappresentano il perfetto connubio tra la lavorazione classica e l’innovazione.

RESPONSABILITÀ SOCIALE D’AZIENDA

“UN BUSINESS RESPONSABILE È UN BUON BUSINESS”
Clarks è da sempre consapevole dell’importanza della responsabilità sociale d’impresa, definita seguendo i valori che da sempre hanno costituito il DNA di quest’azienda familiare: rapporti sempre onesti e trasparenti con consumatori, azionisti, impiegati e la comunità.

Il programma di responsabilità sociale d’impresa si occupa di ridurre l’impatto ambientale e di instaurare un rapporto di correttezza con gli stakeholders. Clarks si impegna ad applicare questi valori in tutto il mondo: è infatti un requisito essenziale per un’azienda di successo che lavora a livello globale.

Cliccare i seguenti link, per maggiori informazioni riguardo la responsabilità sociale d’impresa, accedere al codice di etico e di condotta per i fornitori.

Non esitate a contattarci per altri dubbi.

CONTATTACI

IL NOSTRO APPROCCIO

Clarks è l’azienda leader mondiale nel settore delle scarpe casual ed ogni anno crea e vende più di 50 milioni di paia di scarpe. La nostra crescita è stata esponenziale sin da quando Cyrus e James Clark iniziarono a fabbricare delle ciabatte in pelle nel 1825. Tuttavia, i principi che da sempre ci hanno guidato e ci hanno permesso di diventare una prestigiosa azienda a livello globale sono rimasti gli stessi.

Clarks attua delle strategie operative diversificate nei singoli mercati, che vanno dall’America, all’Europa e all’Asia e che si incontrano nella sede in Inghilterra nel Somerset, per affrontare le diverse sfide e opportunità sul piano sociale, ambientale ed etico. In particolare, Clarks si impegna a studiare l’impatto dell’azienda nel contesto in cui si trova e a sviluppare programmi specifici.

Al fine di integrare l’azienda con gli obiettivi di sviluppo sostenibile delle Nazioni Unite, Clarks sostiene l’iniziativa “Better Retail, Better World” del British Retail Consortium, un’associazione inglese che si occupa di promuovere la vendita al dettaglio e che partecipa a vari eventi riguardanti aspetti fondamentali di questo settore.
industriale. Questa collaborazione permette all’azienda di rispettare gli obiettivi di sviluppo sostenibili concordati dall’Organizzazione delle Nazioni Unite per quanto riguarda le problematiche legate al nostro settore di produzione.

Per ulteriori informazioni sulle attività del British Retail consortium, cliccare su ‘Sostenibilità’, ‘Chi siamo?’, ‘Prodotti sostenibili’, ‘Community’ e ‘I fornitori’ in cima alla pagina.

SOSTENIBILITÀ

Per ridurre il consumo energetico prodotto da negozi, uffici e magazzini, nel 2018 Clarks è passata all’energia elettrica verde per la maggior parte dei suoi edifici del Regno Unito. Ha anche adottato altre soluzioni intelligenti per il risparmio come l’installazione di luci a LED, la sostituzione di sistemi di riscaldamento e raffreddamento non efficienti e l’isolamento termico.

A livello mondiale, noi di Clarks ci stiamo impegnando in un progetto che prevede l’uso esclusivo di luci a LED. Queste luci, infatti, consumano meno energia, riscaldano meno l’ambiente e durano più a lungo. Sono stati anche installati dei sensori di movimento nei magazzini della sede centrale nel Somerset in Inghilterra, che hanno contribuito a creare un migliore ambiente di lavoro e a diminuire il consumo energetico.

Inoltre, il principale centro di distribuzione in nord America è stato premiato per le strategie adottate per ridurre l’inquinamento acustico. Questo edificio, che si trova a Hanover in Pennsylvania, ha ottenuto il certificato d’oro LEED dal Green Building council, un’organizzazione non-profit americana che si occupa di promuovere la sostenibilità degli edifici.

Tutto ciò permette all’azienda di vantare delle ottime prestazioni ambientali, assicura un posto di lavoro sano per tutti i dipendenti e accessibile alle persone con disabilità.
SUPERFICIE

465.000 metri$^2$

L’equivalente di circa 65 campi di calcio.

SOSTENIBILITÀ

Per ridurre le spese di manutenzione e falciatura, al posto dell’erba sono stati piantati prati fioriti.

MATERIALI E RISORSE

Oltre il 97% dei rifiuti urbani sono stati recuperati.

VOLUME CUBICO

912.000 metri$^3$

L’equivalente del consumo di 2.000 famiglie.

EFFICIENZA IDRICA

Il sistema di raccolta di acqua piovana permette di riutilizzare l’acqua in tutta l’azienda e di ridurre il consumo di acqua potabile del 79%.

AMBIENTE INTERNO

La qualità dell’aria all’interno dell’azienda è migliorata grazie all’utilizzo di materiali basso emissivi nelle vernici, nei pavimenti e dei prodotti compositi.
LUNGHEZZA DEI NASTRI TRASPORTATORI

7,25 kilometri

L’equivalente di 2,26 piste aeroportuali.

ENERGIA E ATMOSFERA

Sistemi di illuminazione ad alta efficienza hanno permesso di ridurre il consumo energetico del 30%.

DESIGN INNOVATIVO

È il risultato dell’utilizzo di materiali da costruzione riciclabili, dell’aumento di spazi aperti e degli sforzi per un maggiore risparmio idrico.

Oltre ad aver ottenuto il certificato d’oro LEED quando è stata costruita, nel 2018, la sede americana ha anche ricevuto la certificazione Energy Star perché è stata costruita usando il 95% della struttura precedente e recuperando i materiali laddove possibile per limitare i consumi energetici e la produzione di rifiuti. Inoltre, produce una bassa impronta di carbonio grazie all’installazione di luci a LED, ad un efficiente sistema di riscaldamento e di ventilazione dell’aria, e all’utilizzo di pannelli solari che generano il 13% dell’energia utilizzata dall’edificio.

Clarks si sta impegnando a ridurre gli sprechi: la percentuale di rifiuti riciclati nei negozi, uffici e magazzini è passata dal 40% nel 2012 al 90% nel 2018. Come è stato possibile? Clarks si è impegnata a far sì che la maggior parte del packaging delle scarpe fosse costituito da materiali facilmente riciclabili, ha implementato con successo la gestione dei rifiuti e ha formato i dipendenti con corsi e supporto di varia natura.

Ulteriori informazioni riguardo il programma di responsabilità sociale d’azienda sono disponibili al seguente link.
CHI SIAMO?

Quando nel 1903 Alice Clark divenne direttrice dell’azienda, il Regno Unito era ancora un paese in cui le donne non potevano votare e nemmeno gestire grandi aziende a livello mondiale. Quindi come è stato possibile per Alice occupare una tale posizione, quando per la maggior parte di donne il soffitto di cristallo nel mondo del lavoro era la regola? La risposta è che Alice Clark non era una donna comune e nemmeno Clarks era una famiglia comune. Continuiamo ad essere un’azienda a conduzione familiare e ciò influenza sull’etica che abbiamo adottato: i nostri valori fondamentali sono l’integrità e l’attenzione al personale.

Il codice etico aziendale fornisce le norme che tutti gli impiegati devono rispettare. Infatti, è importante che tutto il personale dimostri una visione condivisa dei valori dell’azienda e che offra lo stesso trattamento a tutte le persone con cui entra in contatto, dai clienti fino ai soci commerciali. Il codice etico, inoltre, garantisce che tutti i processi decisionali siano in linea con i valori di Clarks.

Alla base dell’azienda ci sono le persone, che ci permettono di essere il leader mondiale nella produzione di scarpe casual. Per noi è importante che tutti i dipendenti siano motivati, orgogliosi del loro lavoro e che il loro contributo sia riconosciuto. Per questo motivo, Clarks conduce regolarmente delle indagini a cui tutti i dipendenti possono partecipare per esprimere la loro opinione sugli aspetti positivi dell’azienda e su quello che invece può ancora essere migliorato (più del 75% dei dipendenti aderisce a questa iniziativa).

Se dovesse insorgere un problema specifico, Clarks ha creato una linea telefonica, chiamata ‘Speak Up’, che fornisce supporto a tutti i dipendenti grazie all’intermediazione di una terza parte indipendente. I dettagli di questo servizio sono presenti in tutti i negozi, uffici, magazzini ed altri luoghi di lavoro dell’azienda.

Ulteriori informazioni riguardo il programma di responsabilità sociale d’azienda sono disponibili al seguente link.

La nostra politica anti-corrutzione, in conformità al codice etico, è disponibile qui.
PRODOTTI SOSTENIBILI

PELLE

La pelle è un materiale fondamentale delle calzature Clarks e proviene da concerie che rispettano i più alti standard di prestazioni socio-ambientali. Clarks è un membro fondatore del Leather Working Group, un’associazione che promuove l’adozione di pratiche sostenibili e responsabili nell’industria della pelle. In particolare, l’obiettivo di questa associazione è di lavorare in modo trasparente e coinvolgere fornitori, brand, rivenditori, i migliori esperti tecnici dell’industria della pelle, organizzazioni non governative (ONG) come il WWF, istituti accademici e altre organizzazioni delle parti interessate.

Siamo orgogliosi di affermare che oltre il 90% dei nostri fornitori di pellame hanno ottenuto i certificati d’oro, d’argento o di bronzo da parte del Leather Working Group, che garantisce il rispetto di pratiche sostenibili per l’ambiente e di rigide regolamentazioni da parte delle concerie, per quanto riguarda:

- Sostanze soggette a restrizione,
- Consumi energetici,
- Consumo idrico,
- Inquinamento atmosferico e acustico,
- Gestione di rifiuti,
- Trattamento delle acque reflue,
- Tracciabilità.

Clarks si assicura anche che tutti i fornitori di pellame del Brasile non siano legati ad alcun tipo di attività di deforestazione della foresta amazzonica da ottobre 2009.

BENESSERE ANIMALE

Clarks si impegna a lavorare con concerie responsabili le cui pelli sono un prodotto secondario dell’industria alimentare. Tuttavia, per i clienti che preferiscono evitare prodotti di origine animale o per coloro i quali preferiscono evitare un particolare tipo di pelle, come per esempio la pelle di maiale, Clarks offre una varietà di calzature prodotte con tessuti o pelli sintetiche nel rispetto dei valori di tutti i clienti. Per avere maggiori informazioni riguardo i materiali di origine animale delle singole calzature, si prega di contattare il Servizio Clienti disponibile nel sito web.

GESTIONE RESPONSABILE DELLE SOSTANZE CHIMICHE

La nostra politica sulle sostanze soggette a restrizione prevede dei test periodici svolti da laboratori esterni riconosciuti ed effettuati su tutti i nostri prodotti, dalla pelle ai sintetici, dai vari componenti fino al prodotto finito, di calzature e borse. Questa politica viene rivista e aggiornata ogni anno in modo da considerare le più recenti disposizioni di legge in materia. Affinché questo sia possibile, Clarks collabora con organizzazioni esterne riconosciute che si occupano di svolgere valutazioni inter pares per assicurarsi che l’azienda soddisfi i bisogni di un mondo globale in continua evoluzione. Clarks inoltre si impegna per una gestione responsabile dei prodotti chimici e continuerà a fare ricerca, esaminare e sensibilizzare la filiera di produzione in tutti gli aspetti concernenti la politica di sostanze soggette a restrizione.

Sessioni di formazioni sulle normative e sugli aggiornamenti della politica aziendale sono regolarmente svolte da Clarks e da laboratori indipendenti approvati.

PACKAGING

Il packaging svolge un ruolo fondamentale affinché il prodotto arrivi al consumatore in ottime condizioni: un prodotto danneggiato non è un problema solo per i clienti, ma anche per l’ambiente. Per questo motivo, il nostro obiettivo è quello di ridurre il
packaging, di renderlo il più efficace possibile e riutilizzabile scegliendo materiali riciclati o facilmente riciclabili.

Clarks rinnova continuamente il packaging del prodotto finito che oggi è costituito dall’80% - 90% di materiali riciclati. Le nuove scatole per le scarpe, più leggere e costituite da una maggiore quantità di materiali riciclati, saranno introdotte a partire dall’autunno 2019.

Per quanto riguarda gli imballaggi usati per il trasporto, gli scatoloni di cartone con i quali vengono spediti i prodotti dagli stabilimenti di produzione ai centri di distribuzione sono stati ridotti di spessore per risparmiare materiale e saranno costituiti da materiale riciclato per almeno 95%. Anche il riutilizzo dei materiali è importante per il risparmio: nel centro di distribuzione del Somerset, utilizziamo circa il 30% degli scatoloni ricevuti per inviare i prodotti ai punti vendita.

Ulteriori informazioni riguardo qualsiasi aspetto del programma di responsabilità sociale d’impresa sono disponibili al seguente link.

SOSTEGNO ALLA COMUNITÀ

Clarks ha da sempre avuto un forte legame con le comunità nelle quali opera. Quando William Clark iniziò a guidare l’azienda negli anni ‘60 dell’Ottocento, si impegnò per la tutela della dignità dei lavoratori seguendo i valori cardine e le radici religiose della sua famiglia. Oltre ad investire nello sviluppo commerciale dell’azienda, egli diede un importante contributo alla comunità e ai suoi dipendenti, costruendo delle case per loro, molte delle quali circondano ancor oggi la sede centrale nel Somerset, in Inghilterra.

Oggi, come in passato, la responsabilità verso la comunità è uno dei valori fondamentali dell’azienda, che si impegna a sostegno di molte iniziative per permettere a tutti una vita migliore. Uno dei principali obiettivi dell’azienda è quello di sostenere i bambini e i giovani, promuovendo l’istruzione e la salute per dar loro la possibilità di un futuro migliore.
I dipendenti svolgono un ruolo fondamentale all’interno dell’azienda: non solo aiutano a stringere collaborazioni con nuovi partner, ma hanno anche la possibilità di proporre cause benefiche da supportare e di svolgere attività di volontariato all’interno della comunità.

Maggiori informazioni sui partner dell’azienda sono disponibili qui sotto.

I NOSTRI PARTNER

UNICEF è la più grande organizzazione mondiale che si occupa della tutela dei diritti dell’infanzia, in particolare interviene a difesa della salute dei bambini offrendo vaccini, istruzione, nutrimento e protezione. UNICEF collabora con famiglie, comunità locali, governi e altre associazioni di più di 190 paesi per garantire a tutti i bambini un futuro migliore.

Nel Regno Unito, Clarks collabora con UNICEF dal 2008 e contribuisce economicamente all’istruzione dei bambini più bisognosi attraverso ShoeShare, un’iniziativa che permette di donare scarpe usate ai bambini più sfortunati e che si occupa anche del loro riciclo. Per scoprirne di più guarda il video al seguente link.

Clarks supporta anche l’iniziativa ‘Rights Respecting School Award’ di UNICEF, che si occupa di far rispettare i diritti scolastici dei bambini stabiliti dalla Convenzione ONU sui Diritti dell’infanzia attraverso la collaborazione con circa 5000 scuole di tutto il Regno Unito. Per scoprire più informazioni cliccare il seguente link.

Un’altra organizzazione con la quale Clarks ha instaurato una lunga relazione è Miraclefeet, un ente di beneficenza a livello globale che si occupa dei bambini nati con malformazioni congenite del piede. Miraclefeet tratta un bambino su 800 con deformità del piede al mondo, ma il suo contributo non è ancora sufficiente: si pensi che l’80% dei bambini nati con queste problematiche nei paesi in via di sviluppo hanno accesso ad un limitato o a nessun tipo di trattamento, che invece è necessario per garantire una migliore qualità di vita e per evitare la stigmatizzazione.
Grazie alla nostra collaborazione, Miraclefeet è stata in grado di crescere e di costruire più di 130 cliniche in 25 paesi in via di sviluppo, consentendo così l’accesso alle cure a più di 30.000 bambini. Clarks ha contribuito a diverse raccolte fondi e ha anche utilizzato la propria esperienza nel campo della scarpa collaborando con l’Università di Stanford e l’ente benefico Suncast per innovare il trattamento curativo e renderlo meno invasivo e accessibile a tutti.

Nel 2019, è stata instaurata una nuova collaborazione con l’ente benefico indipendente National Literacy Trust per supportare il progetto ‘Skills Academy Programme’ il cui obiettivo è quello di aumentare il livello di alfabetizzazione nelle comunità più povere del Regno Unito attraverso dei progetti che diffondono la consapevolezza del problema tra politici, genitori e scuole. In particolare, il progetto ‘Skills Academy Programme’ si occupa di bambini dai 10 anni in su ed utilizza metodi di insegnamento alternativi attraverso lo sport o attività di gruppo in classe. Maggiori informazioni sul progetto sono disponibili al seguente link.

Lo spirito di comunità è fondamentale nel nostro lavoro anche nella sede americana dove ci sono infinite possibilità di lavorare come volontari, di ricevere borse di studio e altro supporto da associazioni non-profit. Questo è quello che rende Clarks un ottimo posto di lavoro! Il nostro obiettivo è quello di sostenere cause benefiche che possano aiutare le persone in difficoltà e tutta la comunità ad avere una vita migliore.

Tra le organizzazioni che sosteniamo ci sono: Limbs for Life, un’organizzazione non-profit che si occupa di offrire protesi a coloro i quali non se le possono permettere; Triangle, un’organizzazione non-profit che aiuta le persone con diverse disabilità a condurre una vita più indipendente; Two Ten Footwear Foundation, una fondazione benefica che offre assistenza finanziaria, servizi di consulenza, fondi comunitari e borse di studio ai lavoratori nel settore calzaturiero; Halton Women’s Place, il cui obiettivo è la lotta contro la violenza sulle donne e sui bambini; l’Associazione Cristiana dei Giovani e l’organizzazione Waltham Boys & Girls Club che operano in vari stati americani.
L’ente benefico Clarks è un’organizzazione non-profit che offre borse di studio ai figli dei propri dipendenti con difficoltà economiche e che permette loro di proseguire gli studi.

Oltre alle collaborazioni e ai progetti che Clarks supporta a livello globale, l’azienda si occupa anche di altre attività benefiche nei diversi paesi attraverso raccolte fondi, volontariato, attività pro-bono e supporto tecnico. Alcune delle organizzazioni con cui ha collaborato negli ultimi anni sono le seguenti:

- Centrepoint
- Dorset and Somerset Air Ambulance
- Family Nurturing Centre
- Footwear Friends
- For the Love of a Veteran
- Macmillan Cancer Support
- Marie Curie
- National Autistic Society
- National Animal Welfare Trust
- Sal’s Shoes
- Shelter
- Surfers Against Sewage
- St Margaret’s Hospice
- The Worshipful Company of Patternmakers
- The Royal British Legion
- Toys for Tots
- Trussell Trust
- WaterAid

Ulteriori informazioni riguardo la responsabilità sociale d’azienda sono disponibili al seguente link.
SUPPLY CHAIN

Il gruppo Clarks attribuisce grande importanza non solo al benessere dei suoi dipendenti, ma anche ai lavoratori dei fornitori. Clarks infatti si occupa in prima persona del design e dello sviluppo del prodotto, ma esternalizza la produzione delle calzature. Tuttavia, crediamo sia nostra responsabilità conoscere le condizioni di lavoro di coloro i quali producono le nostre scarpe e per questo motivo controlliamo e valutiamo che gli stabilimenti di produzione dei fornitori rispettino il codice di condotta aziendale.

Nel 2018, i controlli di auditing hanno coinvolto il 99% delle aziende di fornitori di primo livello, ovvero tutti gli stabilimenti di produzione che si occupano del prodotto finito, e ci siamo anche occupati dei fornitori di secondo livello e dei fornitori delle materie prime. I controlli hanno coinvolto concerie e fornitori di suole che approvvigionano per almeno il 90% l’azienda.

I risultati raccolti aiutano l’azienda a selezionare le fonti di approvvigionamento e a collaborare con i fornitori per garantire i più alti standard delle condizioni di lavoro e di qualità dei prodotti.

I FORNITORI

Crediamo che costruire delle relazioni durature con i fornitori sia una scelta vincente. Infatti, più dell’80% della produzione proviene da fornitori con i quali collaboriamo da almeno 5 anni e nel 2018, circa l’80% delle calzature è stato prodotto da fornitori di fiducia. Invece, la produzione di borse e accessori rappresenta solo una piccola parte delle attività complessive dell’azienda. Nella maggior parte degli stabilimenti di produzione, le attrezzature sono utilizzate anche per la produzione di prodotti di altri brand e clienti. Le informazioni seguenti fanno riferimento alla produzione di calzature nel 2018.

La maggior parte della produzione avviene in Asia, mentre solo una piccola percentuale è ancora presente nei paesi europei.
Per seguire la politica di trasparenza aziendale, Clarks fornisce qui sotto una lista delle principali aziende produttrici nel 2018. Se desiderate queste informazioni in un altro formato, vi preghiamo di scrivere a crs@clarks.com.

La lista comprende i fornitori di calzature gestiti direttamente da Clarks, che producono circa l’80% dei prodotti, e i fornitori di calzature e borse gestiti da agenti e licenziatari. La seguente lista non è da ritenersi valida per l’anno 2019, sebbene la maggior parte di fornitori rimarrà invariata.

Clark è lieta di supportare il database ‘Open Apparel Registry’ che permette di caricare nel sito aziendale tutte le informazioni riguardo i propri fornitori. Per ulteriori informazioni, cliccare il seguente link: https://info.openapparel.org.

CONDIZIONI DI LAVORO

Clarks e le aziende terze che si occupano della produzione sono tenute a tutelare i diritti umani dei propri dipendenti, trattandoli con uguaglianza, dignità, rispetto e garantendo condizioni di lavoro sicure e igieniche. Il regolamento riguardo le condizioni di lavoro si trova nel codice di condotta aziendale, che prevedere l’osservazione di tutti i requisiti
normativi e legali del paese di produzione e il rispetto dei principi sanciti dall’organizzazione internazionale del lavoro.

Clarks garantisce ai lavoratori la libertà di associazione sindacale e il diritto di firmare accordi collettivi di contrattazione che siano adeguati per le loro necessità e che si adattino alla condizioni economiche del paese in cui sono impiegati. Inoltre, Clarks si assicura che i fornitori provvedano a remunerare in modo adeguato i dipendenti affinché possano soddisfare i loro bisogni primari ed avere un’occupazione lavorativa a lungo termine. L’azienda si assicura anche che i fornitori garantiscono il salario minimo previsto dalla legge locale ai lavoratori.

Clarks richiede a tutti i fornitori di firmare una copia del codice di condotta per dimostrare di essere a conoscenza delle regole aziendali, di averle comprese e di impegnarsi a rispettarle. Il rispetto del Codice è contenuto nell’apposito spazio riservato ai termini e condizioni di acquisto. Una copia è disponibile al seguente link.

Nei casi in cui il Codice aziendale non venga rispettato, Clarks si impegna a collaborare con il fornitore per sviluppare un piano volto al miglioramento dell’azienda, individuando le cause del problema e fornendo una soluzione. Infatti, Clarks crede fortemente che relazioni di lunga durata con i fornitori e lavoratori che si occupano della produzione delle calzature sia un punto di forza dell’azienda e per questo, qualora insorga un problema, la prima risposta è la comprensione. Tuttavia, nei casi in cui persista la non conformità dell’azienda e non sussistano prove che dimostrino la volontà della stessa di migliorare, Clarks interromperà ogni tipo di rapporto.

Per quanto riguarda i casi di lavoro minorile, Clarks segue i principi dell’UNICEF che sono definiti nel nostro Codice e che devono essere rispettati da tutti i fornitori. Una copia del piano è disponibile al seguente link.

CONTROLLI DI AUDITING

Clarks, come altre aziende del settore, conduce controlli di auditing interni o si affida ad aziende terze specializzate in attività di monitoraggio. Clarks effettua direttamente audit nei paesi che rappresentano la fonte principale di approvvigionamento
dell’azienda in modo da instaurare un rapporto duraturo con i fornitori volto ad una continua crescita. Per gli altri paesi invece, Clarks si affida ad aziende terze tramite l’intermediazione di team di professionisti specializzati.

Gli audit possono essere effettuati su ogni nuovo potenziale fornitore anche prima di stabilire un ordine di produzione. Per quanto riguarda i fornitori che già collaborano con Clarks, gli audit sono effettuati periodicamente considerando gli esiti degli audit precedenti e le capacità manageriali del fornitore. Gli audit possono inoltre essere concordati insieme o effettuati senza necessità di un precedente avviso in base al paese di produzione, al rapporto con il fornitore ed agli esiti di precedenti controlli, che prevedono generalmente il controllo di tutta la documentazione, colloqui con responsabili e dipendenti, ed ispezioni allo stabilimento di produzione.

Controlli di auditing nel 2018

Nel 2018, Clarks ha svolto 250 audit sociali tra tutti i suoi fornitori: 210 di essi hanno avuto luogo in Cina, India e Vietnam e sono stati svolti da esperti di monitoraggio dell’azienda, mentre 40 audit sono stati effettuati da aziende terze. Inoltre, 53 audit di sicurezza sono stati condotti sui fornitori del prodotto finito in osservanza degli obblighi doganali.

MISURE DISCIPLINARI

Svolgere controlli di auditing non è sufficiente per cambiare le condizioni di lavoro nelle aziende dei fornitori, ma è un punto di partenza per migliorarle. Clarks infatti utilizza i risultati ottenuti per identificare i problemi e risolverli positivamente per i lavoratori di ogni stabilimento di produzione. In particolare, per ogni violazione del codice riscontrata, Clarks richiede al proprio fornitore di compilare un piano, identificare il problema, le soluzioni che verranno messe in atto, una serie di responsabili e una data di scadenza. Queste informazioni saranno poi utilizzate da Clarks per verificare che le misure di miglioramento siano state attuate.
Clarks inoltre si occupa di offrire ai propri fornitori formazione riguardo i diritti dei bambini, trasparenza aziendale, retribuzione, salute, sicurezza nel luogo di lavoro (compresa la sicurezza antincendio), gestione ed esposizione a sostanze chimiche. Questi incontri formativi sono sia formali che informali, gestiti direttamente dall’azienda o da terze parti e possono anche essere aperti al pubblico.

RAPPORTI DI COLLABORAZIONE

Clarks ritiene che la collaborazione sia un valore fondamentale per una crescita continua e per questo ha condotto controlli di auditing congiunti per i fornitori in rapporti lavorativi con più aziende del settore calzaturiero in modo da utilizzare le proprie risorse in modo più intelligente e attuare cambiamenti più efficaci.


Clarks è orgogliosa di essere una delle prime aziende ad impegnarsi contro le forme schiavitù moderna: dal 2016 è membro del Mekong Club, un’organizzazione che si occupa di aiutare le aziende a sradicare la schiavitù attraverso gruppi di lavoro specifici per settore di produzione. Per maggiori informazioni cliccare il seguente link https://themekongclub.org.

Inoltre, nel 2018 Clarks è diventato membro del Slave Free Alliance, un’associazione che si occupa di contrastare il lavoro forzato presso i nostri fornitori. Per maggiori informazioni cliccare al seguente link: https://www.slavefreealliance.org.
COMMUNITY

Clarks si impegna da sempre a contribuire allo sviluppo della comunità in cui l’azienda e i propri fornitori operano. Dal 2016, Clarks sostiene uno dei propri fornitori più importanti in India offrendo mammografie e pap test a cui le lavoratrici non potrebbero accedere altrimenti grazie alla collaborazione con l’ospedale Penn Nalam, che gestisce un’unità mobile completamente attrezzata. Inoltre, alle lavoratrici è anche stato offerto un maggiore sostegno e aiuto in caso necessitassero di ulteriori test o trattamenti. Per maggiori informazioni visitare il sito al seguente link: https://pennalamhospital.org.

Inoltre, nel 2018 Clarks, insieme ad altre aziende, ha collaborato al progetto pilota ‘Better Factories’ in Cambogia per provvedere alla formazione degli operai di fabbrica sulla sicurezza stradale.

COLLABORAZIONE CON TRUSTS

L’obiettivo principale di Trusts è quello di aiutare gli attuali dipendenti ed ex dipendenti di Clarks, le loro famiglie e la comunità in cui vivono. Trusts, fondato da Clarks, ora è indipendente, ma l’azienda contribuisce ancor oggi al fondo attraverso sovvenzioni in conto capitale per supportare progetti nell’ambito dell’istruzione, della salute, di risorse comunitarie e ricreative. Alcuni di questi progetti sono stati effettuati nei paesi di produzione dei nostri fornitori, per esempio sono stati raccolti dei fondi per migliorare le strutture scolastiche in Cina, oppure un’ambulanza e un sistema di filtraggio dell’acqua sono stati donati in India e Vietnam.

Ulteriori informazioni riguardo il programma di responsabilità sociale d’azienda sono disponibili l’ seguente link.

LA STRATEGIA FISCALE

La strategia fiscale di Clarks agisce in modo efficace e bilanciato applicando puntualmente tutti gli obblighi fiscali in conformità con le linee guida internazionali. Per assicurare l’attuazione di questi principi generali, che sono delineati qui sotto, la
strategia fiscale di Clarks si conforma alla strategia commerciale e ai valori fondamentali dell’azienda che prevedono onestà, integrità e rispetto nei confronti di clienti, partner e fornitori.

Uno dei valori fondamentali di Clarks è quello di instaurare rapporti tra aziende che permettano di gestire in modo efficace consulenze commerciali riguardanti le più importanti transazioni e attività finanziarie (si parla di ‘business partering’). Per questo motivo, il settore amministrativo lavora a stretto contatto con i settori finanziario e commerciale in modo tale da avere una conoscenza più approfondita riguardo l’intera strategia aziendale rispettando i valori di integrità e onestà. Ciò permette al settore finanziario di essere in grado di fornire consulenze dettagliate e in tempi brevi per qualsiasi tipo di decisione aziendale. Clarks offre molte opportunità ai propri dipendenti occupandosi direttamente della loro formazione in modo che abbiano le conoscenze necessarie per lavorare all’interno del team amministrativo.

Al fine di garantire integrità ed onestà delle operazioni fiscali, Clarks si impegna a migliorare continuamente ed efficacemente la governance fiscale dell’azienda, massimizzando le opportunità di business e minimizzando invece i rischi fiscali. Per questo, prima di accettare qualsiasi proposta commerciale, Clarks conduce attente e dettagliate valutazioni dei rischi, che sono anche esaminate dal Chief Financial officer. Inoltre, si assicura di utilizzare un efficace sistema di controllo finanziario che permetta di analizzare il controllo ambientale dell’azienda e di identificare e gestire i rischi finanziari.

Per quanto riguarda le politiche dei prezzi di trasferimento, Clarks tiene costantemente aggiornata la propria documentazione e si assicura che le norme vengano rispettate in modo da poter assicurare coerenza tra i profitti e la tassazione in un determinato luogo di produzione. Clarks inoltre revisiona regolarmente la propria governance fiscale per assicurarsi che i sistemi di controllo siano efficaci e per attuare dei miglioramenti laddove fosse necessario. Infatti, avere un sistema di governante finanziaria continuamente controllato e revisionato permette di aiutare il capo contabile del Regno Unito.
L’obiettivo di Clarks è quello di migliorare la vita dei propri consumatori attraverso prodotti di alta qualità a prezzi accessibili. Per farlo, Clarks utilizza metodi fiscali efficienti e incentivi fiscali statali rispettando le normative dei diversi paesi, ma non ricorre ad una pianificazione fiscale aggressiva o basata su attività non commerciali, perché contro i principi aziendali. I manager dell’azienda hanno firmato un patto fiduciario con il quale si impegnano ad evitare costi superflui e ad ottenere sgravi fiscali solo se nel rispetto della legge. In questo modo, Clarks si impegna a contribuire allo sviluppo della comunità in cui l’azienda e i fornitori operano ed a soddisfare le aspettative dei propri clienti. Clarks inoltre usufruirà di incentivi statali disponibili per i contribuenti solo se sono in linea con i principi aziendali e se rilevanti per l’attività commerciale stessa. In caso di dubbi sulla corretta applicazione della normativa fiscale, l’azienda si impegna a condurre una valutazione dei rischi dettagliata ed a consultare esperti del settore.

Clarks mantiene un rapporto onesto, collaborativo e trasparente con le autorità fiscali, collaborando con quest’ultime affinché possano acquisire la piena comprensione dei fatti sottesi all’applicazione delle norme fiscali. La collaborazione con le autorità fiscali permette all’azienda di avere una maggiore stabilità e di evitare contenziosi onerosi. Clarks inoltre agisce secondo i valori dell’onestà e dell’integrità per quanto riguarda i reporting di conformità aziendale e assicura le migliori condizioni di lavoro ai propri dipendenti avvalendosi di consulenti professionali che le certifichino laddove le conoscenze locali risultassero insufficienti.

FRANCHISING

Clarks è una grande azienda internazionale che vende più di 105 paia di scarpe al minuto e ciò è reso possibile grazie ad un’ampia rete di distribuzione che comprende anche un gran numero di negozi in franchising. Le nostre calzature si contraddistinguono per l’eccellente abilità artigianale combinata a conoscenze e tecnologie ingegneristiche all’avanguardia e per il design inconfondibile.
APRI UN NEGozIO CON NOI

Noi crediamo che tutti dovrebbero indossare delle ottime calzature e stiamo cercando degli affiliati in tutto il mondo che possano realizzare questo nostro desiderio.

Se condividi la nostra filosofia aziendale e se sei dotato di passione e spirito imprenditoriale, Clarks ti aiuterà a realizzare le tue aspirazioni e i tuoi obiettivi lavorativi grazie ad un programma personalizzato che ti supporterà passo dopo passo: dall’ubicazione, progettazione e allestimento del negozio fino alla formazione dello staff e allo sviluppo di un piano di trading.

CONTATTACI

VIDEO

Stoccolma è la mia casa, soprattutto questo quartiere, Södermalm, dove sono cresciuto. È tornare a casa. Le Clarkdale Gobi… naturalmente ne avevo un paio. E mi ricordo che quando le comprai erano troppo nuove, così chiesi a mio padre di passarci sopra con la macchina, avanti e indietro, in modo che sembrassero usate e vissute.

Quel bel edificio giallo è dove ho recitato per la prima volta, e durante gli intervalli e tra uno spettacolo e l’altro, uscivo, camminavo avanti e indietro su questo ponte per respirare un po’ d’aria fresca. È stata praticamente la mia casa per otto mesi.

Ero seduto sul Monteliusvagen, è una montagna molto conosciuta per i tramonti e per bere se sei un adolescente è un ottimo posto per trovarsi con gli amici e scappare lontano dai genitori. Ho dei bei ricordi legati a questo posto, per esempio qui baciai una ragazza che mi piaceva molto. Comfort è tornare a casa.

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5 The transcription of the video is available in the Appendix 1.
Chapter 3

Comment to the localization process

3.1 Analysis of the linguistic procedures and strategies

During the translation process, a translator needs to make many decisions when more than one option in the target language is available. The strategy adopted depends on many factors, mainly on the features of the text and its scope. In this case, the website can be defined as a promotional text, and particularly as a B2C corporate website. As a result, the strategy used at the macro-level is adaptation because it considers the target audience’s needs and cultural knowledge. Indeed, as already stated in Chapter 1, the cultural elements included in a website determine the success and the usability of the website itself. For this reason, when translating a promotional text, it is important to delete cultural references that could not be understood by the target users and add some elements that reflect their culture. As Torresi (2010) suggests, adaptation is the best strategy for promotional texts, and thus for this localization process as well, because its aim is to sell a product to Italian consumers and to provide a better awareness of the Clarks company.

On the other hand, at the micro-level, different strategies have been adopted to face translation problems. The translation procedures suggested by García (2013) have been widely used to solve the majority of translation problems, in particular the most useful procedures are amplification, explicitation, omission, equivalence and compensation. Moreover, other website-specific strategies have been used to respect the length and design constraints of the website, such as restructuring and explanation (Xiaojuan 2010). However, in some cases, none of these strategies have been adopted, but the conventions used in local Italian websites were used as a model. Indeed, in order to be successful, the localized website should look as a local website, and therefore, contain similar features that Italian websites generally have.
The following table shows a summary of the procedures employed in the translation, their frequency of use and it also contains the number of anglicisms, i.e. English terms that are used in Italian and thus do not need to be translated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation procedures</th>
<th>Frequency of use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicitation</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amplification</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restructuring</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equivalence</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglicisms</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1 Translation procedures and their frequency of use.

In particular, Table 3.1 shows that the most used translation procedures are restructuring, explicitation and equivalence, while explanation and compensation are rarely used. Finally, it can also be noted that there is a relatively high number of anglicisms because, even though the strategy used is adaptation, and therefore, the general guideline suggests not to use foreign terms, for some technical topics such as economics and law, Italian language largely uses English terms. The following sections will provide an overview of all the procedures used and some relevant examples.

3.1.1 Explanation, explicitation and amplification

These three strategies have a common feature: they involve the addition of some elements that are not present in the source text to make the translation clearer to the target audience. In particular, the first peculiar translation strategy that Xiaojuan (2010:137-8) suggests is explanation, which is the addition in the target text of further details that are necessary to fill the cultural gap between the source and target culture. In
the following example, it can be noted that an explanation about the English initiative have been added because that information is well-known by British users, but it is not for Italian consumers.6

ST: Clarks are proud supporters of the British Retail Consortium’s Better Retail, Better World initiative.
TT: Clark sostiene l’iniziativa “Better Retail, Better World” del British Retail Consortium, un’associazione inglese che si occupa di promuovere la vendita al dettaglio e che partecipa a vari eventi riguardanti aspetti fondamentali di questo settore industriale.

Other kinds of addition do not involve the lack of cultural knowledge, but are linked to linguistic reasons. In general, in the Italian version some conjunctions or longer expressions were used to create a coherent and cohesive text. They are defined ‘explicitation’ by García (2013) because these elements make clearer the logical relationships between two sentences or paragraphs. In the following example, the expression ‘affinché questo sia possibile’ have been added to link two adjacent sentences and to make the paragraph more cohesive.

ST: The policy is continually reviewed and updated on an annual basis to ensure it incorporates the most up to date legislation. We work with several recognised external professional organisations who conduct peer reviews to ensure we continue to meet the needs of changing global requirements.
TT: Questa politica viene rivista e aggiornata ogni anno in modo da considerare le più recenti disposizioni di legge in materia. Affinché questo sia possibile, Clarks collabora con organizzazioni esterne riconosciute che si occupano di svolgere revisioni paritarie per assicurarsi che l’azienda soddisfi i bisogni di un mondo globale in continua evoluzione.

However, in the vast majority of cases, simple conjunctions have been employed, like ‘inoltre’(used 15 times) and ‘infatti’ (used 9 times), as shown by the following example.

ST: Globally, we’ve been rolling out our new shop fit programme which uses 100% LED lights. These lights require less energy to run, let off less heat and they last a long time.
TT: A livello mondiale, noi di Clarks ci stiamo impegnando in un progetto che prevede l’uso esclusivo di luci a LED. Queste luci, infatti, consumano meno energia, riscaldano meno l’ambiente e durano più a lungo.

6 In all the examples of this chapter, the relevant elements will be emphasized using the bolt type.
Finally, another related strategy which has been adopted in the translation process is amplification, which refers to all the situation in which an expression has been translated with a higher number of words if compared to the source text (García 2013). Amplification can involve the addition of just one word, such as in the following case, where I suggest that it is necessary to underline the information that Cyrus and James Clark are the founder of the company.

ST: Our story began almost 200 years ago when Cyrus and James Clark made a slipper from sheepskin off-cuts.
TT: Sono passati quasi 200 anni da quando i fondatori, Cyrus e James Clark, realizzarono la loro prima ciabatta utilizzando dei semplici ritagli di pelle.

Alternatively, amplification can involve a higher number of words such as in the following example, where, in order to make the sentence more idiomatic in Italian, it was necessary to increase the length of the sentence.

ST: The principle of supporting initiatives which enable communities to live healthy, fulfilling lives continues today.
TT: Oggi, come in passato, la responsabilità verso la comunità è uno dei valori fondamentali dell’azienda, che si impegna a sostegno di molte iniziative per permettere a tutti una vita migliore.

In general, it can be noted that all these three strategies considerably increase the length of the target text, especially if adopted many times. As a result, other strategies, such as omission and equivalence, need to be used to adjust the length of the target text, which needs to be similar to that of the source text in order to fit the same space in the pages of the website.

3.1.2 Omission

The strategy which involves the loss of some information of the source text which cannot be found in the target text can be defined ‘omission’ (García 2013) or ‘deletion’ (Xiaojuan 2010).
Omission can be applied in all those cases in which the information provided is obvious for the readers. This strategy is particularly useful when the translation is from a low-context culture – such as the British one – to a high-context culture – such as the Italian one, which prefers indirectness and implicitness. In the following example, the expression ‘from the roof’ has not been translated because it is quite obvious that rainwater comes from the roof of the building.

ST: The rain harvesting system collects rainwater from the roof, and is reused all throughout the facility, reducing potable water use by 79%
TT: Il sistema di raccolta piovana permette di riutilizzare l’acqua in tutta l’azienda e di ridurre il consumo di acqua potabile del 79%.

In other cases, some elements of the source text have been deleted because they make reference to the source culture and/or to different versions of the website. Indeed, the translation is the result of a localization process, and therefore, the Italian website is targeted to just one specific culture. For this reason, in the following example, ‘via your local Clarks website’ has been omitted.

ST: Please contact our Customer Care teams directly via your local Clarks website.
TT: Si prega di contattare il servizio clienti disponibile nel sito web.

The same principle can be applied to entire sentences that make reference to the source country and are not relevant for the target audience. For instance, the following sentence has been completely omitted because it regards UK only.

ST: Our published UK tax strategy has been prepared to satisfy our commercial objectives and comply with UK legislation as set out in the Finance Act 2016.
TT: -

Finally, in other cases omission can be used to avoid repetitions and reduce the length of the translation. Indeed, translations tend to be longer than their original texts, but as regards website pages, there are strict constraints and sometimes omissions are necessary to fit a sentence or a paragraph in the space allotted for them. This strategy has been adopted in the following example.
ST: In countries **where we do not have our own resources** we utilise a third party audit service provider **whilst maintaining our engagement** with the supplier by the supplier audit team.

TT: Per gli altri paesi invece, Clarks si affida ad aziende terze tramite l’intermediazione di team di professionisti specializzati.

### 3.1.3 Restructuring

A very common strategy used during the localization process is restructuring, a linguistic procedure which involves the change of the structure of the source text because of particular needs of the target language and/or culture (Xiaojuan 2010: 141). In particular, for this strategy two main trends can be found: there is a weak form of restructuring, which involves changes in the sentence structure, and a stronger form, which includes changes in the structure of the text as a whole or in the format of the webpage.

As regards the weak form of restructuring, many different examples and explanations for the use of this strategy can be provided. First, some examples of restructuring involve the change of punctuation and the merging of short sentences in English into longer sentences in Italian. Indeed, the use of punctuation in the two languages is different, and generally, Italian is more willingly to accept longer and more complex sentences. In the following example, it can be noted that the source text is composed by three short sentences, while the target text is one long sentence and a pause have been signaled with the colon. Moreover, there is also the omission of an obvious information as the English phrase ‘the people that we work with’ have been translated with ‘personale’.

ST: Clarks remains a family-owned company. This continues to have an influence on our ethics. Acting with integrity and caring about the people **that we work with** remain our top priorities.

TT: Continuiamo ad essere un’azienda a conduzione familiare e ciò influisce sull’etica che abbiamo adottato: i nostri valori fondamentali sono l’integrità e l’attenzione al personale.

Second, the merging of sentences allows to avoid repetitions and to reduce the length of the translation. Indeed, while repetitions in English are common and accepted, in Italian
they are avoided in the same sentence or in two adjacent sentences. For example, in the following example, the Italian version results shorter than the English version, and thus, problems related to the excessive length of the translation are solved.

ST: From the beginning we’ve always thought differently. And done things differently too.
TT: Fin dall’inizio abbiaamo sempre agito e pensato diversamente dagli altri.

However, in some cases the opposite strategy has been adopted: a sentence in English has been split in two sentences in Italian, because the English language can be more flexible and concise than the Italian language. This change has been made in the following example, and it can be noted that the translated version is much longer than the original sentence, and therefore, it is possible to talk about amplification as well.

ST: We put the consumer at the heart of what we do, managing costs by being tax efficient and considering government sponsored tax incentives, but we will not engage in aggressive tax planning which goes against our social responsibilities.
TT: L’obiettivo di Clarks è quello di migliorare la vita dei propri consumatori attraverso prodotti di alta qualità a prezzi accessibili. Per farlo, Clarks utilizza metodi fiscali efficienti e incentivi fiscali statali rispettando le normative dei diversi paesi, ma non ricorre ad una pianificazione fiscale aggressiva o basata su attività non commerciali, perché contro i principi aziendali.

Thirdly, another frequent case is the change of order of sentences and of the information provided. In Italian, a logic order is usually followed: the first sentence of a paragraph introduces a new topic and the following sentences provide more details. On the contrary, in the English text, this structure is not always followed and, if not changed during the translation, it could lead to confusion and repetitions in the target text with a negative effect for Italian readers. In the following example, the second sentence of the source text has been moved at the beginning of the paragraph in the target text.

ST: In 2016 Clarks became a member of the Mekong Club which is a membership-based organisation that works with companies to help them take steps to eradicate slavery from their business through industry-specific working groups. Clarks is proud to be one of the first brands to commit to the Mekong Club Business Pledge against Modern Slavery.
TT: Clarks è orgogliosa di essere una delle prime aziende ad impegnarsi contro le forme schiavitù moderna: dal 2016 è membro del Mekong Club, un’organizzazione che si
Finally, another interesting case worth mentioning is the restructuring of a sentence to create rhetorical figures and make the Italian text more effective and persuasive. In the following example, the English sentence contains four elements separated by commas, but the Italian translation separates with a verb the first element from the last three to create a tricolon. Moreover, in the tricolon a parallelism has been created because the pattern ‘noun + adjective’ has been used for all the three elements, and thus, it was necessary to add an adjective in the target text which was not present in the source text.

ST: And whilst now, as always, every pair of our shoes begins with a last carved by hand from a single block of hornbeam, advanced construction techniques, technologies and contemporary materials help us deliver perfection tailor-made for the modern world.

TT: È quello che Clarks continua a fare ancor oggi, ma invece di utilizzare un semplice ritaglio di pelle, ogni paio di scarpe è prodotto partendo da un blocco di legno e utilizzando tecniche di costruzione all’avanguardia, tecnologie innovative e materiali di alta qualità che permettono di realizzare calzature adatte al mondo d’oggi.

As regards strong forms of restructuring, they do not belong only to the phase of linguistic translation, but they are positioned in the wider stage of localization and software engineering. Therefore, they need to be careful planned because these changes cannot be made by the translator, but the intervention of the engineering team, which creates the webpage for the company, is required. However, in this study, I will suggest some changes that could be done in the Italian website to make it more similar to other Italian websites, and thus, more familiar and effective for the Italian audience.

The first example deals with the custom service and the contact between the company and the client. In this case, I suggest that the English sentence could be substituted with a shorter and more formal sentence because Italian websites do not provide direct emails to consumers, but they often have a form that users can compile.

ST: We know that there are always opportunities for us to do more and we welcome your feedback - please email us with your comments via crs@clarks.com.

TT: Non esitate a contattarci per altri dubbi. CONTATTACI.
In particular, the word ‘CONTATTACI’ in the Italian website, if clicked, should lead directly the users to the form. Two examples of forms that can be found on Italian websites are provided by the following figures. Figures 3.2 shows Geox website and the way in which Italian consumers can communicate with the company. Whereas, Figure 3.3 shows Melluso website and in the section ‘contattaci’ it can be found a link, which, if clicked, lead to the form shown by Figure 3.4.

**Figure 3.2** ‘Contattaci’ section of the Geox website.

**Figure 3.3** ‘Contattaci’ section of Melluso website with the link to the form.

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7 Available at [https://www.geox.biz/it/gruppo/geox-franchising.html](https://www.geox.biz/it/gruppo/geox-franchising.html).
8 Available at: [https://www.melluso.it/franchising/](https://www.melluso.it/franchising/).
This different characteristic of the English and Italian websites has to do with national culture. Indeed, as suggested by Hofstede (2005), Italy is a culture with a strong level of uncertainty avoidance, and thus, the Italian users prefer a greater attention to customer service and a guided navigation. In this case, the use of a form gives Italian users more certainty and guidance. On the contrary, UK has a lower level of uncertainty avoidance, and thus, users do not need guidance and forms in the website. Moreover, Italy is a high-context culture which prefers indirectness and a soft-sell approach, while UK is a low-context culture which favors directedness. As a result, the best solution for the Italian website would be the indirectness and guidance of a form, while emails can be more adequate for the needs of British users.

Furthermore, another change that could be made to modify the English website deals with the email contacts, which can be found at the end of almost all the web pages and which can be used to directly contact the company. For the same reason of the previous example, I suggest that in all these cases, the Italian website should just provide a link that users, if interested, can consult. For instance, in the following example, it would be sufficient to create a link addressing the Corporate Responsibility programme, which is available online.

ST: For further information of any aspect of our Corporate Responsibility programme, 
please contact: crs@clarks.com.

Figure 3.4 ‘Compila il form’ page of Melluso website.
TT: Ulteriori informazioni riguardo qualsiasi aspetto del programma di responsabilità sociale d’impresa sono disponibili al seguente link.

Finally, other minor changes of the website structure that could be made are the addition of links referring to the associations and organizations presented in the web. Indeed, in the English version, users are invited to search for online websites if they want more information, but I suggest that it would be better if users can found the link directly on the Clarks webpage. As a result, I added the links in the Italian version of the website, such as in the following example.

ST: Further information on the work undertaken by the Penn Nalam Hospital can be found on their website.
TT: Per maggiori informazioni visitare il sito al seguente link https://pennalamhospital.org.

3.1.4 Equivalence and register

Another translation procedure which has been frequently used in the localization process is equivalence and refers to all the cases when a word or a sentence in the source text have been translated with expressions that conveys the same function, but which differ in form and/or meaning (García 2013).

In the case where the target language does not have the equivalent concept in its culture, equivalence is the only option available. In the following example, there is a reference to ‘501(c)(3) organizations’, which are particular kinds of non-profit organization in the US, but the same distinction is not used in the Italian legal system, and therefore, in the translation, the general term ‘organizzazione non-profit’ has been used.

ST: Our Clarks Companies Foundation is a 501(c)(3) that provides scholarships for children in the community facing a significant need and for children of our employees as they pursue their educational goals.
TT: L’ente benefico Clarks è un’organizzazione non-profit che offre borse di studio ai figli dei propri dipendenti con difficoltà economiche e che permette loro di proseguire gli studi.
In other cases, equivalence is needed because of the use of idiomatic expressions, which are culture-specific and therefore not always available in two different languages. The translator can decide to use an equivalent idiomatic expression in the target language or to use a phrase that have a similar meaning. Both the strategies have been used in the translation of the website. For example, the English idiomatic expression ‘it comes as a second nature’ has been translated with the equivalent Italian idiomatic expression ‘costituisce il DNA dell’azienda’. On the contrary, in another case, the English idiomatic expression ‘tried and trusted’ have been translated with the Italian adjective ‘prestigiosa’ because no idiomatic expression available in Italian were considered adequate.

However, the vast majority of cases of equivalence do not depend on the lack of equivalents in the target language, but are due to several aspects, in particular they can be gathered into three main groups: difference in register, avoidance of repetitions and degree of explicitness.

First, as regards register, the Italian language used in websites and promotional texts in general is slightly more formal than English language. As a result, in many cases, the meaning of the translation is the same, but the form is different because it belongs to a higher register. In the following example, the English language uses the phrasal verb ‘roll out’ which is informal, and thus, has been translated with a standard verb in Italian ‘si sta impegando’.

**ST:** Globally, **we’ve been rolling out** our new shop fit programme which uses 100% LED lights.

**TT:** A livello mondiale, *Clarks si sta impegnando* in un progetto che prevede l’uso esclusivo di luci a LED.

Furthermore, it can be noted that the 1st person ‘we’ have been changed with the 3rd person and that the pronoun ‘our’ has been omitted. Indeed, Italian websites generally do not use the 1st person ‘we’ and repeat many times the name of the company. In order to localize the Clarks website and make it similar to local website, the change in the use of pronouns has been adopted, such as in the following example.

**ST:** And that’s why corporate responsibility is important to **us**.
Moreover, when addressing directly the audience, Italian websites use the infinitive form, while Clarks website uses the 2nd person ‘you’, which could be considered too informal. For this reason, in the following example, the pronoun ‘you’ has been substituted with the infinitive form ‘cliccare’.

ST: You can find out more about the CR activities by clicking on Operations, People, Products, Communities and Suppliers at the top of this page.


However, there are some cases in which the Italian websites as well use a more colloquial style. In particular, informal style can be found in the ‘Franchising’ section of the websites because companies want to involve users and make them feel as their pairs. Some examples can be found in the Geox website: “Se sei dotato di spirito imprenditoriale e vuoi accrescere le tue competenze o se hai già esperienze nel retail, [...]” (see Figure 3.2) and in the Melluso website “Vuoi diventare un imprenditore di successo?” (see Figure 3.3). For this reason, when translating the ‘Franchising’ section of Clarks website, I used a more colloquial and informal style.

ST: If you share our vision as well as our passion, we’ll support your ambition and business objectives.

TT: Se condividi la nostra filosofia aziendale e se sei dotato di passione e spirito imprenditoriale, Clarks ti aiuterà a realizzare le tue aspirazione e i tuoi obiettivi lavorativi.

In other cases, to avoid the use of an informal and colloquial language, figurative language that was used in the source text has been substituted with equivalent and more standard expressions in Italian, such as in the following examples.

ST: We put the consumer at the heart of what we do [...].

TT: L'obiettivo di Clarks è quello di migliorare la vita dei propri consumatori [...].

ST: Clarks has a low appetite for risk and as such, we conduct detailed tax risk assessments on any business proposals which are being considered.
TT: Per questo, prima di accettare qualsiasi proposta commerciale, Clarks conduce attente e dettagliate valutazioni dei rischi, [...].

The difference of register is particularly important when the topic deals with economics and law because in Italian these languages are very complex and rich in technical lexis and fixed expressions. For this reason, when I encountered these particular topics, I looked at fixed expressions that were used in Italian and I used them in the translation. In the following example, it can be noted that the translation is not close to the source text, but it is the form which is likely to be found in any kind of web page dealing with this particular topic.

ST: We work in a professional, honest and open way with tax authorities, promoting transparency to avoid unnecessary disputes. We are open and transparent with tax authorities about the group’s tax affairs and work collaboratively to achieve early agreement on disputed issues.

TT: Clarks mantiene un rapporto onesto, collaborativo e trasparente con le autorità fiscali, collaborando con quest’ultime affinché possano acquisire la piena comprensione dei fatti sottesi all’applicazione delle norme fiscali.

What can be noted is that often the result of equivalence is the substitution of an English word or expression with a longer periphrasis in Italian. However, this approach, if repeated many times in the translation, could lead to problem of length, as websites have determined spaces for texts. Moreover, the target text could be as too rich of information and too complex to users. As a result, in some cases, the change of register has been linked to the reduction of the target text. In the following example, it can be noted that the source text repeats the same concept in two different ways, while in Italian a more standard and shorter expression have been used.

ST: Our Corporate Responsibility programme plays an important role in helping us to manage our responsibilities, minimize our impacts and live up to the expectations of our stakeholders. Not just on our doorstep, but in all four corners of the globe.

TT: Il programma di responsabilità sociale d’impresa si occupa di ridurre l’impatto ambientale e di instaurare un rapporto di correttezza con gli stakeholders. Clarks si impegna ad applicare questi valori in tutto il mondo.

The avoidance of repetitions can also involve entire sentences, such as the following example.
ST: In 2018 we recycled almost 90% of our waste from our shops, offices and warehouses in the UK. This is a great improvement as back in 2012, just 40% of our UK shop waste was diverted from landfill.

TT: La percentuale di rifiuti riciclati nei negozi, uffici e magazzini è passata dal 40% nel 2012 al 90% nel 2018.

Finally, another interesting trend is the fact that Italian is a high-context culture, and thus, some information do not need to be explicit in the text for the correct comprehension. The following example, the English expression ‘was not sent to a landfill’ is explicit and provide clear information to users, while, the Italian equivalent ‘sono stati recuperati’ is more implicit but users are likely to understand the same message.

ST: Over 97% of the trash generated from construction was not sent to a landfill.

TT: Oltre il 97% dei rifiuti urbani sono stati recuperati.

### 3.1.5 Compensation

A minor translation strategy that has been used just two times is compensation and refers to the cases in which some elements of the source text are placed in a different position in the target text (García 2013: 354). However, in order to create a clear distinction, I suggest that compensation is a strategy used for elements inside the sentence, while the cases in which entire sentences were changed of place, but the order of the elements within the sentence remain unvaried, fall within the category of restructuring. The following example shows how the elements have been reordered to avoid repetitions and to create a more logic paragraph.

ST: **For customers who wish to avoid animal-derived products**, Clarks offer a variety of shoes in non-leather materials including textiles and synthetic leathers. **We also understand that customers may wish to avoid a particular leather type such as pig skin.** We endeavor to provide a range of products that will give our customers a choice in respect of their beliefs and values.

TT: Tuttavia, **per i clienti che preferiscono evitare prodotti di origine animale o per coloro i quali preferiscono evitare un particolare tipo di pelle, come per esempio la pelle di maiale**, Clarks offre una varietà di calzature prodotte con tessuti o pelli sintetiche nel rispetto dei valori di tutti i clienti.
The other example of compensation is different because, in this case, the repetition of the pronoun ‘we’ and the effect on consumers could not be replicated in the Italian language which do not require subjects before the verbs. As a result, the Italian pronoun ‘noi’ has been placed in a marked position at the beginning of the sentence. In this way, the use of pronouns in both the source and target texts play the same role and create a similar effect on readers.

ST: And to make sure we can look after it better than anyone else, we've studied it. From the cradle to old age, we've looked at the way it develops.

TT: E noi, per essere sicuri di prendercene cura a meglio, abbiamo deciso di studiarlo: da quello dei neonati fino a quello degli anziani, concentrandoci su tutte le fasi dello sviluppo.

3.1.6 Heading strategy

One of the strategy at the micro level suggested by Xiaojuan (2010) deals with web pages’ headings, which need to capture the readers’ attention and provide information about the content of the page, but they also need to meet length constraints. During the translation process, different factors were taken in consideration before deciding the best option for the translation of headings and different strategies have been used.

First, one of the most employed strategy has been the comparison with Italian retail websites of the footwear industry, in particular I used Geox, Tod’s, Melluso, Armani and Gucci websites. The firsts three websites have been used because they are positioned in the same market segment of Clarks, while Armani and Gucci are luxury companies, but their websites have been used as a model as well because the contents and the topics of some pages is very similar to the those of Clarks website.

As regards the use of conventions for headings, sometimes English and Italian website use similar heading and the strategy adopted is the literal translation of the English heading. For example, ‘our story’ becomes ‘storia’, ‘corporate responsibility’ becomes ‘responsabilità sociale’ and ‘tax strategy statement’ becomes ‘strategia fiscale’.

However, in the vast majority of cases, some kind of change was necessary. A common strategy used is the deletion of the verb in the -ing form and the nominalization of the
heading, some relevant examples are: ‘reducing the impact of our operations’ that becomes ‘sostenibilità’, ‘building sustainability into our products’ which was translated with ‘prodotti sostenibili’ and ‘coming together to help the community’ which was substituted with ‘sostegno alla comunità’. Another frequent strategy is the use of Italian idiomatic expression and the complete detachment from the source text. The most interesting examples are the following: ‘pioneers & innovators’ which becomes ‘tra tradizione e innovazione’ and ‘shoe experts’ translated with ‘eccellenza artigianale’.

An interesting example that mixes many different strategies is the heading ‘moving forward with our suppliers’ which has been rendered in the target text with the English expression ‘supply chain’. This case is an example of reduction because the target text is shorter than the source text, but there is a complete detachment from the source text due to the conventions found in other websites. Indeed, the use of English words or expressions in Italian websites is a common phenomenon which is used to give to the website an international appeal (section 1.3.7 will provide more information on the use of anglicisms in Italian language). Figure 3.5 shows that in the Italian website of Geox company, the heading used for the section dealing with suppliers is called ‘supply chain’, and therefore, the same choice have been made in the translation.

![Geox website page with the English heading ‘Supply Chain’](https://www.geox.biz/it/sostenibilita/supply-chain.html)

**Figure 3.5** Geox website page with the English heading ‘Supply Chain’.

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9 Available at [https://www.geox.biz/it/sostenibilita/supply-chain.html](https://www.geox.biz/it/sostenibilita/supply-chain.html).
Second, another approach used in translating headings is to make reference to the content of the section. In particular, three cases can be noted: the title ‘standards’ has been translated with ‘condizioni di lavoro’, ‘understand’ with ‘controlli di auditing’ and ‘improve’ with ‘misure disciplinari. The Italian titles reflect the content of the sections, provide useful information and similar headings can be found in Italian websites. On the contrary, literal translation of those titles would have been meaningless and the Italian readers would not understand the content because headings do not follow the conventions of local websites.

Thirdly, in other cases, the headings were not translated into Italian, because in local websites as well those titles could be found, such as ‘packaging’ and ‘community’. In particular, Figures 3.6 and 3.7 shows the use of the English heading ‘packaging’ and ‘community’ in Armani website.

Figure 3.6 Armani website page with the English heading ‘Packaging’\textsuperscript{10}.

Figure 3.7 Armani website page with the English heading ‘Community’\textsuperscript{11}.

\textsuperscript{10} Available at: https://www.armani.com/experience/it/corporate/social-responsibility/environment/.
Finally, a strategy that has been used only once is amplification of the heading. Indeed, the title ‘collaborations’ has been translated with ‘rapporti di collaborazione’ because similar heading was found in the website of Geox and because it provides more detailed information about the content of the section.

In conclusion, it can be noted that different strategies have been used for the translation of headings of web pages and that conventions used in other Italian footwear websites were used as guidelines. As regards the website’s feature, no significant observation have been made because the translation suggested are shorter than the source text or have a similar length.

3.1.7 Use of anglicisms in Italian texts

In the translation process, some English terms have not been translated into Italian, but they have been left in English. This phenomenon is quite common because nowadays, all the languages that operate in the global market have been affected by the English language, which is the lingua franca of international communication used in academic and professional contexts which counts more and more non-native speakers (Pulcini et al. 2010: 2). In particular, English language affects the lexis of other languages which contain a great variety of anglicisms, i.e. “English lexical items that, adopted by the receiving language, maintain some or most of their features” (Gaudio 2010: 307). In this definition, anglicisms are words that are recognizably English in their form, that maintain their spelling, pronunciation and/or morphology, and that are accepted in the vocabulary of the receiving language. It should be noticed that there are wider definitions of the term ‘anglicism’ which include any sign of interference which may be ascribed to the influence of the English language (Pulcini et al. 2010: 5), but for the interest of this study, the focus will be put on the lexis. Furthermore, Scarpa (2015) states that anglicisms are more frequently found in texts belonging to new and emerging disciplines such as economics and informatics.

11 Available at: https://www.armani.com/experience/it/corporate/social-responsibility/community/.
For the analysis of the English terms, Gaudio (2010: 308) suggests three main kinds of anglicisms: non-incorporated anglicisms are rare and appear with low frequencies; semi-incorporated anglicisms are English terms which are often accompanied by a translation and the domestic equivalent can be used as well; finally, fully-incorporated anglicisms are words that are normally used in the receiving language, which do not have any ready-made equivalent.

In particular, there are two main reasons to adopt anglicisms in another language. On one hand, anglicisms are used when in the local language an equivalent does not exist and in this case the use of a foreign word is useful because it is monoreferential, i.e. the anglicism has only one referent in the real world (Scarpa 2015: 227). On the contrary, when a language uses an existing term to refer to a new object and/or concept, the term would have different meanings and referents and this could lead to ambiguity and confusion. Moreover, anglicisms are used because sometimes it could be difficult to translate them and because the English language is more concise and flexible if compared to Italian (Scarpa 2015: 227). On the other hand, anglicisms are used even though and equivalent is found in the local language and in this case they can co-exist or the English term could substitute the Italian term. The main reasons for this approach are: the symbolism and the connotative power of the English term, the snobbery and the desire of using obscure language, or sometimes it could just reflect the laziness of translators (Scarpa 2015: 228).

As regards fully incorporated anglicisms, two examples can be found in the target text: ‘auditing’ and ‘reporting’. They both are contained in the Treccani dictionary, do not have an Italian equivalent and they are used only in the economical field to refer to activities of control of production and administration (www.treccani.it). Moreover, these terms are frequently used by Italian websites. However, other examples of fully incorporated anglicisms can be found in the target text, such as ‘packaging’, ‘partner’, ‘team’ and ‘franchising’, but, unlike the first two, they have the respective Italian equivalents: ‘imballaggio’, ‘socio’, ‘squadra’ and ‘affiliazione commerciale’. In the translation, the English terms have been preferred to the Italian equivalents because they are often used in Italian language and are accepted in the Treccani dictionary as well. Furthermore, in local websites, these English terms are generally preferred to the Italian
equivalents. For instance, Figures 3.8 and 3.9 show that in the Geox and Melluso websites, the English term ‘franchising’ is used instead of the Italian ‘imballaggio’.

Figure 3.8 Geox website page with the English heading ‘Geox Franchising’12.

Figure 3.9 Melluso website page with the English heading ‘Franchising’13.

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12 Available at: [https://www.geox.biz/it/gruppo/geox-franchising.html](https://www.geox.biz/it/gruppo/geox-franchising.html).
13 Available at: [https://www.melluso.it/franchising/](https://www.melluso.it/franchising/).
Besides fully-incorporated anglicisms, a significant number of semi-incorporated terms can be found as well. An example is the English term ‘carbon footprint’ which is found in many Italian websites, but often it is followed by the Italian equivalent ‘impronta di carbonio’ into brackets to explain the meaning or as a synonym to avoid repetitions. In this case, in the translation I preferred the Italian term as suggested by Terminologia etc. (2019). A different approach has been used for ‘stakeholders’, which was used instead of the Italian equivalent ‘parti interessate’ and ‘governance’ instead of ‘gestione’, where I used the English terms. Furthermore, the expression ‘governance fiscale’ has been preferred to the Italian ‘gestione del sistema fiscale’ because the English version is shorter and more concise. On the contrary, for the co-existent terms ‘performance’ and ‘prestazioni’, I chose the Italian term because it is followed by the adjective ‘ambientali’ and the occurrences for ‘prestazioni ambientali’ are higher than for ‘performance ambientali’, but also to avoid snobbery and an overuse of English terms.

Finally, other lexical items have been kept in their English form, despite the existence of an Italian equivalent, for reasons dealing with conventions. Indeed, ‘supply chain’ and ‘community’ have the equivalents ‘catena di fornitura’ and ‘comunità’, but the Italian websites of retail companies rarely use the Italian version. Consequently, I decided to align my translation choices to the websites conventions. See, for example, Figure 3.5 which shows the use of the English heading ‘Supply Chain’ in Geox website.

As regards the use of anglicisms, the use of English job titles in Italian is becoming increasingly frequent and they are used to fill lexical gaps, but they are also used in competition with national equivalents (Andreani and Pulcini 2016: 7). In the source text, there are two examples of job titles: ‘Chief Financial Officer’ and ‘Senior Accounting Officer’. For the first one, I decided to keep the English name because it is frequently used in Italian websites and more used than the Italian equivalent ‘direttore finanziario’. This English term can be considered a semi-incorporated anglicism because not every Italian speaker would understand it and because it is used to give to the job an international appeal, but it is not recognized by national dictionaries. On the other hand, for the second example, I preferred the Italian term ‘capo contabile’ because the English name is rarely found in Italian websites and thus can be considered a non-incorporated anglicism. Finally, I also used the term ‘manager’ which is a fully
integrated and relatively old anglicism and which is more used than the Italian equivalents ‘amministratore’, ‘direttore’ and ‘dirigente’ (Andreani and Pulcini 2016: 11-2). It is fully accepted by the Italian language, so that it can be found in the Treccani dictionary and it also has derived words, such as the adjective ‘manageriale’.

3.2 Analysis of design and visual elements

This section deals with the analysis of the design and of the visual elements of the Clarks website from the point of view of the localization process. In particular, the national dimensions suggested by Hofstede (2005) and the characteristics of other similar Italian websites will be used to adapt the English website to the Italian audience. As regards the national dimensions, the main differences for Italy and UK are found in the dimensions of individualism, uncertainty avoidance and contextuality (see section 1.13 in Chapter 1). As a result, the design of the website, the use of images and colors will be analyzed considering these differences and the changes suggested could improve the website usability and could fulfill the objective of the localization process, i.e. reach a higher number of Italian consumers.

First, as regards individualism, it should be noted that both UK and Italy are individualistic countries, but UK has a higher level of individualism in comparison with Italy and this difference is reflected in the characteristics of the websites. According to Singh et Matsuo (2004: 866), collectivist societies prefer websites which offer chat rooms and newsletter services to underline the importance of the community relations, while websites of individualistic societies do not provide any of these services. This is the reason why Clarks website did not provide any of these services, while some Italian websites do have newsletter services. For example, in the Geox website, in the left side of each page, there is a section called ‘email alert’ which invites user to subscribe to the newsletter (see Figure 3.10), or in Armani website, at the bottom of each page, there is a section dedicated to the customer service and a section in which users can subscribe the newsletter (see Figure 3.11).
Figure 3.10 Newsletter subscription available in the section ‘Email alert’ in the left side of each page of Geox website\textsuperscript{14}.

Figure 3.11 Newsletter subscription available at the bottom of each page of Armani website\textsuperscript{15}.

\textsuperscript{14} Available at: \url{www.geox.biz/it}.

\textsuperscript{15} Available at: \url{www.armani.com}. 
This could be explained with the fact that Italian culture is less individualistic than the English culture. However, not all the Italian websites offer this service, and therefore, I think that this change is not necessary in the localization process, but it could be an improvement of the communication between the company and the Italian consumers.

Furthermore, Singh and Matsuo (2004: 866) state that websites of individualistic societies do not use family themes, which are instead often used in collectivist societies. This is true for Clarks website, which do not contain elements related to the family, not even in the ‘Our story’ section, where there is the story of the Clark’s family. Indeed, Figure 3.12 shows that the image used is in black and white and shows a shoe with an elegant and sophisticated style.

Figure 3.12 Black and white image used in the section ‘Our story’ of Clarks website\textsuperscript{16}.

On the contrary, in Italian websites, family themes are often used to underline the importance of tradition and the origin of the products, but they reflect as well the fact that Italian culture is less individualistic than the English culture. For instance, in the

\textsuperscript{16}Available at: https://www.clarks.com/about-us.html.
‘Storia’ page of Geox website, the image used shows the founder of Geox company with a pair of shoes in his hands (see Figure 3.13), and the section ‘Mission’ contains the image of a happy family, while the shoes are only a secondary element (see Figure 3.14).

Figure 3.13 Image used in the section ‘Storia’ of Geox website\(^\text{17}\).

Figure 3.14 Image used in the section ‘Mission of Geox website\(^\text{18}\).

\(^{17}\) Available at: [https://www.geox.biz/it/gruppo/profilo/storia.html](https://www.geox.biz/it/gruppo/profilo/storia.html).

\(^{18}\) Available at: [https://www.geox.biz/it/gruppo/profilo/mission.html](https://www.geox.biz/it/gruppo/profilo/mission.html).
The difference between the images of the English and Italian websites is quite evident and the effect on the users as well is not the same. As a result, I suggest that in the localized version of the website, the visuals should be changed and have some elements referring to the idea of family or show the founders of the Clarks company. In this way, the Italian users will feel more empathy for the company and the purchase intention could be higher.

Another significant difference between the Italian and English cultures identified by Hofstede (2005) is the level of uncertainty avoidance: Italian is a strong uncertainty avoidance culture, while UK has a weak level of uncertainty avoidance. The implications are that Italian websites give more attention to customer service, offer a guided navigation (Singh and Matsuo 2004) and some kind of assistance to users. For example, Armani website has an entire page dedicated to the customer service (see Figure 3.15). On the contrary, Clarks website does not offer this service and just provides a form in the section dedicated to the franchising. As a result, in the localized version of the website, a section dedicated to the customer service should be added.

![Armani website](https://www.armani.com/system/selfservice.controller?CMD=ESCALATION_REQUEST&CONF...)

**Figure 3.15** Section ‘Servizio clienti’ in the Armani website\(^{19}\).

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\(^{19}\) Available at: [https://www.armani.com/system/selfservice.controller?CMD=ESCALATION_REQUEST&CONF...](https://www.armani.com/system/selfservice.controller?CMD=ESCALATION_REQUEST&CONF...).
The same kind of assistance is provided in the navigation as well: Italian websites are more guided and usually have maps or menus on the sides to help users. For instance, Geox and Armani websites provide guided menu on the left hand side that shows the structure of the website (see Figures 3.7 and 3.8). On the contrary, the Clarks website is less organized and do not provide any maps, and therefore, the Italian version should contain more guidance and add some menus to support users.

Finally, the other significant difference relies on contextuality: Italian is a high-context culture, while UK has low-context culture. However, for this dimension the main differences can be found at the language level, while as regards websites features Singh and Matsuo (2004) suggest that high-context cultures give more importance to visual elements. Indeed, it can be noted that the Clarks website has many images, but they are very simple, focus on the product, often show details of the shoes, the colors are soft and do not depict people (see Figures 3.16 and 3.17).

Figure 3.16 Image taken from the Clarks website with soft colors.
Figure 3.17 Image taken from the Clarks website which shows the detail of a shoe.\textsuperscript{20}

On the other hand, Italian websites have more impactful and colorful images, pictures are rich in details and often the shoes are not the main protagonist, but just a secondary element (see Figure 3.18 and 3.19).

\begin{center}
\textbf{ON THE ROAD}
\end{center}

\begin{quote}
Il casual Melluso è caratterizzato da sneakers confortevoli e versatili, dotate di plantari estraibili in memory foam.
\end{quote}

\textsuperscript{20} Available at: \url{www.clarcks.com}.

Figure 3.18 Image taken from Melluso website with bright colors.
For this reason, to meet Italian customers’ needs, the Italian website should also change the visual elements and adapt them to the target audience preferences. However, both the Clarks website and the other Italian websites have some common characteristics as regards the design and images. The website background is white and the homepage which presents the company and its story is characterized by images in black and white and a minimal style, which adds elegance and sophistication. For example, Figures 3.20 and 3.21 show the minimal style employed by the original website of Clarks and a similar style employed by the Armani website.

Figure 3.19 Image taken from Melluso website with bright colors\textsuperscript{21}.

\textsuperscript{21} Available at: www.melluso.it.
Figure 3.20 Black and white image on the ‘Our story’ page of Clarks website. Available at: www.clarks.com.

Figure 3.21 Black and white image on the ‘Product’ page of Armani website. Available at: www.armani.com.
In conclusion, in the localization process, not only the linguistic elements need to be translated and adapted to target audience and culture, but also the visual elements and the design of the websites should be changed according to the preferences of the local users. The national dimensions suggested by Hofstede (2005) are an useful tool to understand the main cultural differences and undertake the necessary changes. In particular, as regards the British and Italian cultures, the main differences can be found in the dimensions of individualism, uncertainty avoidance and contextuality and the main implications regards the customer services, the presence of family themes, the navigation menus and the importance of visuals. All these elements as well are part of the localization process and are essential for the website usability.

3.3 Video subtitling

Clarks website contains a short video which is available in English only without subtitling neither in English nor in Italian. This video is available in the official website of the company and on Youtube as well. In the localization process, all the elements need to be translated and adapted to the target audience, and therefore, the video as well need to adapted. I suggest that the best solution in this case is to add the subtitles in Italian. In order to do this, first I wrote down the text into English, then I translated it into Italian, and finally I created the subtitles. It should be noted that in the last step, I needed to made little changes to the Italian translation in order to respect the length constrains of the subtitles.

Subtitling is “the translation of spoken (written) source text of an audiovisual product into written target text which is added onto the images of the original product, usually at the bottom of the screen” (Karamitroglou 2000: 5). There are some guidelines that should be followed when subtitling a video. First, subtitling is generally limited to two lines and the standard position for subtitles is horizontal at the bottom of the screen because this part of the screen is usually the less important. However, subtitles can be moved from the bottom to another position of the screen in particular cases (Diaz Cintas and Remael 2006: 125). Second, a subtitle should appear when a person starts speaking

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24 The original transcript of the video is available in the Appendix and the translation can be found in the Chapter 2.
and disappear when the person stops speaking, and should never stay on screen more than six seconds because there would be a tendency to read the subtitle more time. Finally, as regards segmentation, each subtitle should contain one complete sentence, but when this is not possible, the segmentation on each line should coincide with the highest possible syntactic node and indicate somehow that the sentence continues in the next subtitle (Diaz Cintas and Remael 2006: 173). In the video, I used punctuation to indicate incomplete sentences, as it can be seen in Figures 3.24 and 3.25. It can also be noted that the two subtitles do not make sense in themselves, but there is a big pause made by the speaker and it was necessary to segment the sentence in this way, other ways, the sentence would have stayed on screen too long.

Figure 3.22 Uncompleted subtitle signaled by punctuation of the video available on Clarks website.

Figure 3.23 Second part of the subtitle.
In order to add subtitles to the Youtube video, I used Amara, which is a free cloud-based program that allows users to add captions to videos found online. It is an useful tool to subtitle short videos because it accepts many video formats including Youtube videos. This program allows users to add subtitling easily and to sync them with the video thanks to keyboard controls or using the timeline. Figure 3.26 shows how the program works.

Figure 3.26 Screenshot of Amara, the program used to subtitle the video.

At the end of the subtitling process, the video is available and the subtitles can be downloaded in many formats to add them in the preferred video player. The complete subtitles can be found in the Appendix 2.
Conclusion

The aim of this paper is to localize the Clarks International Site for the Italian audience and to demonstrate the importance of culture for the success of the localization process. Indeed, I suggest that the best strategy to increase the attitude towards the site and the purchase intention of Italian consumers is to adapt – linguistically and culturally – the website contents according to the preferences of the target audience.

First, in the ongoing debate between standardization and localization for websites of multinational companies, I provided many studies (Sun 2001, de Mooij and Hofstede 2002, Singh and Matsuo 2004, Spring et al. 2004, Nantel and Glaser 2008) which encourage companies to use localization because of the existence of cross-cultural differences in the perception of websites. In particular, to understand the differences between Italy and UK, Hofstede’ cultural dimensions theory has been used. As a result, localization of e-commerce websites can be considered an effective strategy for multinational companies wishing to expand their business in the Italian market.

Second, as regards the translation of the textual contents of the website, I suggested that the best strategy, considering the target audience, the genre and the medium of the text, is adaptation, because this approach aims to translate a text considering the target audience and culture, and, thus it eliminates or replaces cultural specific elements that would not be understood by addressees. This approach is also suggested by Torresi (2010) who states that adaptation is the best solution in consumer-oriented translations and thus in promotional texts because their function is selling a product and/or a service to new potential consumers.

Furthermore, I analyzed the different translation procedures used to face any translation problems and provided some relevant examples. In particular, the most used are explicitation, restructuring and equivalence, and they were mainly used to solve problems related to cultural differences, such as the order of information, the register used and the need of adding or omitting information whenever there is a cultural gap between the knowledge of the source and target audience. However, in other cases, none of the strategies suggested by the scholars (Torresi 2010, Garcia 2013, Xiaojuan 2010)
have been used, but the Italian retail websites for the footwear industry have been used as a model. In this way, it was possible to replicate the conventions used in the Italian websites, make the localized version more familiar to the Italian audience and therefore increase the usability of the website itself.

Finally, I also recommended some changes as regards the structure of the website, its design and its visual contents. Indeed, in a localization process, the graphics and visual components as well need to be adapted because adjusting the message to the addressee’s social and cultural values is essential for the success of the website. In particular, using the national dimensions suggested by Hofstede, the main differences between British and Italian cultures can be found in the dimensions of individualism, uncertainty avoidance and contextuality and some important implications need to be taken into consideration. The most significant are the fact that Italian users prefer colorful pictures with family themes and that they give more importance to customer services and guided navigation.

In conclusion, this paper wanted to show how the success of a localization process, and more generally how the success of a marketing strategy for multinational companies wishing to increase the number of international consumers can depend on cross-culture differences among countries. I believe that this study can raise awareness about the importance of cultural differences and encourage more research in this multidisciplinary topic which touches many fields including the marketing, linguistics, Translation Studies and informatics.


Dizionario Treccani Online (2019) “Giugno”  
http://www.treccani.it/vocabolario/ricerca/giugno  [Last accessed in October 2019]

Dizionario Treccani Online (2019) “Manager”,  
http://www.treccani.it/vocabolario/ricerca/manager/ [Last accessed in October 2019]


OUR STORY
SHOEMAKERS SINCE 1825
Our story began almost 200 years ago when Cyrus and James Clark made a slipper from sheepskin off-cuts. At the time it was ground-breaking; a combination of invention and craftsmanship that's remained at the heart of what we do. And whilst now, as always, every pair of our shoes begins with a last carved by hand from a single block of hornbeam, advanced construction techniques, technologies and contemporary materials help us deliver perfection tailor-made for the modern world.

PIONEERS & INNOVATORS
From the very beginning we've always thought differently. And done things differently too. From the slipper created by Cyrus and James Clark back in 1825 to the world's first foot shaped shoe; from our kids' ranges in whole sizes, half sizes and a choice of widths to our state-of-the-art iPad foot gauge; from innovative underfoot cushioning to rapid prototyping and 3D printing, brilliant ideas are what set us apart.

SHOE EXPERTS
Leonardo da Vinci described the human foot as "a masterpiece of engineering and a work of art". And to make sure we can look after it better than anyone else, we've studied it. From the cradle to old age. We've looked at the way it develops. We've scrutinised its biomechanics, the way it moves at work, rest and play. We've deliberated on what it takes to keep feet healthy and happy. And what we've learned is what helps us make the perfect shoes for you.

ICONIC FOOTWEAR
In our archive of more than 22,000 Clarks styles are shoes that have sparked a revolution, defined a generation and captured the imagination. Like the iconic Clarks Desert Boot. Designed by Nathan Clark, launched in 1950, its appeal endures to this day. There's Nature, a ground-breaking sports casual hybrid that made its debut in the late 1980s and, redefined and redesigned, has recently been reborn. And there's Trigenic Flex, the crafted innovation that's a modern classic in the making.

25 The following text, which is the source text of the translation available in the Chapter 2, has been extracted from the website www.clarks.com.
CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY
“RESPONSIBLE BUSINESS IS GOOD BUSINESS AND VICE VERSA”
And that's why corporate responsibility is important to us. It also comes as second nature, compelled by enduring values shaped by the Clarks family ethos - an inherent willingness to do the right thing for consumers, shareholders, employees and the community alike.
Our Corporate Responsibility programme plays an important role in helping us to manage our responsibilities, minimise our impacts and live up to the expectations of our stakeholders. Not just on our doorstep, but in all four corners of the globe. It's part of our business foundations, supporting us in moving forward as a successful global business.
In this section of our website you can find out more about our approach to Corporate Responsibility and access our Code of Business Ethics and Code of Practice for Suppliers.
We know that there are always opportunities for us to do more and we welcome your feedback – please email us with your comments via csr@clarks.com.

OUR APPROACH
We're the world's number one in everyday footwear - a global company designing and selling more than 50 million pairs of shoes every year. We've grown massively since Cyrus and James Clark began making sheepskin slippers in 1825 but the principles which have helped us become a tried and trusted global brand remain the same.
The scale and diversity of our operations, extending out to the Americas, Europe and Asia from our home in Somerset, England, means that we face a wide range of social, environmental and ethical challenges and opportunities. To make sure we focus our efforts where it matters most, we work to understand and prioritise the impacts of our business. We then develop programmes to focus our performance on these issues.
Clarks are proud supporters of the British Retail Consortium’s Better Retail, Better World initiative. This allows us to integrate the way we do business into key UN Sustainable Development Goals that are relevant to our industry and our operations.
You can find out more about our CR activities by clicking on Operations, People, Products, Communities and Suppliers at the top of this page.

REDUCING THE IMPACT OF OUR OPERATIONS
From our stores to our offices and warehouses, they all use energy. That’s why, in 2018, we moved most of our UK shops, offices and warehouses onto green electricity tariffs. We also have programmes in place to install efficient LED lighting, replace inefficient heating and cooling systems and improve insulation.
Globally, we’ve been rolling out our new shop fit programme which uses 100% LED lights. These lights require less energy to run, let off less heat and they last a long time. LED lights combined with motion sensors have also been rolled out in our Global Headquarters in Somerset and UK warehouses. The result has been a better working environment for our people and a decrease in energy use.

Going beyond energy, our main distribution centre warehouse for North America was recognized for its environmentally sound building strategies. Located in Hanover, Pennsylvania, the facility was built in compliance with Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) standards, resulting in a LEED Gold certification by the US Green Building Council. This delivers high levels of environmental performance while also ensuring a healthy work environment for Clarks employees. The new distribution centre has also been designed with universal accessibility in mind to allow for the best possible access for people of all abilities.

LAND AREA
x65 American Soccer Fields
115 Acres
465,000 square meters

SITE SUSTAINABILITY
To minimize mowing and maintenance, flowering meadow mix was planted rather than grass.

MATERIALS & RESOURCES
Over 97% of the trash generated from construction was not sent to a landfill.

CUBIC VOLUME
x2,000 average American homes
32.2 million cubic feet
912,000 cubic meters

WATER EFFICIENCY
The rain harvesting system collects rainwater from the roof, and is reused all through the facility, reducing portable water use by 79%.
INDOOR ENVIRONMENT
Indoor air quality was optimized with low-emitting materials in paint, flooring and composite materials.

LENGHT OF CONVEYORS
x2.26 Airport Runways
4.5 miles
7.25 kilometers

ENERGY & ATMOSPHERE
High efficiency lighting fixtures have reduced energy consumption by 30%.

INNOVATION IN DESIGN
A combination of using recycled building materials, increasing the amount of open space, and water conservation efforts.

Meanwhile, our Americas HQ achieved LEED Gold rating when it was constructed, and in 2018 achieved an Energy Star rating. Based on the former Polaroid headquarters, the Clarks building uses over 95% of the previous structure, re-using materials where possible to reduce energy impact and save waste going to landfill. A low carbon footprint was also achieved by installing LED lights, efficient heating and air ventilation, and solar panels which generate 13% of the building’s energy use.

Clarks is committed to waste avoidance. In 2018 we recycled almost 90% of our waste from our shops, offices and warehouses in the UK. This is a great improvement as back in 2012, just 40% of our UK shop waste was diverted from landfill. How have we achieved this? Through ensuring that the majority of our shoe packaging is made from easily recyclable materials, implementing a successful waste management contract and providing training and support for our people in store.

For further information on any aspect of our Corporate Responsibility programme, please contact: csr@clarks.com.

FOCUSBING ON PEOPLE
In 1903, Alice Clark was appointed a life director of C&J Clarks. At that time, Britain was a country in which women were not yet allowed to vote, let alone manage a large and profitable global business. So how did Clarks come to have Alice on the board when, for the vast majority
of women, the glass ceiling was still in the basement? The answer is that Alice Clark was no ordinary woman and the Clarks were no ordinary family. Clarks remains a family-owned company. This continues to have an influence on our ethics. Acting with integrity and caring about the people that we work with remain our top priorities.

Our Code of Business Ethics provides guidance on the ethical standards that we expect employees to demonstrate. It’s important that we all have a shared understanding of what it means to work at Clarks, our values, and what all the different people that we come into contact with – from consumers to business partners – can expect of us. The Code supports all employees in demonstrating our commitment to integrity and making decisions that are in line with our values and principles.

Our employees help us to be the world's number one in everyday footwear. We want each and every person who works here to be motivated, take pride in their work and be recognised for their contribution. To understand what we do well and what we can improve on, Clarks conducts a regular ‘Our People Survey’ in which all our employees across the world can participate - and thankfully over 75% do.

If there’s a specific problem which an employee feels uncomfortable raising or feels hasn’t been dealt with adequately, Clarks provides a ‘Speak Up’ call line which is answered by an independent third party. Contact details for the Speak Up line are promoted throughout our stores, offices, warehouses and other workplaces.

For further information on any aspect of our Corporate Responsibility programme, please contact: csr@clarks.com.

Our Bribery policy supports the Code of Business Ethics. It can be found here.

BUILDING SUSTAINABILITY INTO OUR PRODUCTS

LEATHER

Leather is a key raw material for Clarks and the majority of Clarks specified leather for our footwear comes from tanneries which have achieved industry-leading environmental standards. Clarks are founder members of the Leather Working Group (LWG), which aims to promote sustainable and appropriate environmental business practices within the leather industry. The LWG’s objective is to work transparently, involving suppliers, brands, retailers, leading technical experts within the leather industry, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) such as WWF, academic institutions and other stakeholder organisations.

We are very proud that over 90% of the leather we specify for our footwear is sourced from tanneries that have achieved bronze, silver or gold certification against the Leather Working
Group Environmental Stewardship Protocol. Certification against this protocol ensures that tanneries have an environmental management system in place and robust procedures covering:

- Restricted substances
- Energy consumption
- Water usage
- Air & noise emissions
- Waste management
- Effluent treatment
- Traceability

Clarks also requires its suppliers to ensure that hides sourced from Brazil are not from farms involved in any form of deforestation in the Amazon biome (since October 2009). Read more about the Leather Working Group on their website www.leatherworkinggroup.com.

ANIMAL WELFARE

Clarks is careful to work with reputable tanners whose hides are a by-product of the food industry. For customers who wish to avoid animal-derived products, Clarks offer a variety of shoes in non-leather materials including textiles and synthetic leathers. We also understand that customers may wish to avoid a particular leather type such as pig skin. We endeavour to provide a range of products that will give our customers a choice in respect of their beliefs and values. If you would like information on what leather materials are in a specific shoe, please contact our Customer Care teams directly via your local Clarks website.

RESPONSIBLE CHEMICALS MANAGEMENT

Implementation of our Restricted Substances Policy involves a perpetual test programme with extensive testing of products covering leather, synthetics, components, finished footwear and handbags. Clarks and our suppliers commission tests on materials, components, and on finished products through an approved global network of recognised third party laboratories. The policy is continually reviewed and updated on an annual basis to ensure it incorporates the most up to date legislation. We work with several recognised external professional organisations who conduct peer reviews to ensure we continue to meet the needs of changing global requirements. Clarks is committed to responsible chemicals management and will continue to research, monitor and educate our supply chain in all aspects related to our Restricted Substances Policy.

Training sessions are routinely conducted by Clarks and our approved third party labs, which cover regulation and Clarks policy updates.
PACKAGING

Packaging plays a vital role in ensuring that our products reach their end destination in optimal condition. Damaged product is no good for our customers or the environment. So our aim is to minimise packaging to its most efficient level, enable re-use where possible and select materials which are recycled or easily recyclable.

We continuously review our packaging and have increased the recycled content in our shoe boxes from 80%-90%. Our new lighter and higher recycled content box will be phased in from Autumn 2019.

For transit packaging, the cardboard boxes used to ship product from Clarks managed factories into the distribution centres have been reduced to optimal thickness to save material and will be made from a minimum of 95% recycled content. Not to forget re-use, in our Westway distribution centre in Somerset, we re-use approximately 30% of incoming cardboard boxes to ship product out to our retail stores.

For further information on any aspect of our Corporate Responsibility programme, please contact: csr@clarks.com.

COMING TOGETHER TO HELP THE COMMUNITY

Clarks has a strong history of supporting the communities in which we live and work. When William Clark stepped up to lead the business in the 1860’s he was determined to maintain his family’s ethos of respecting the dignity of all human beings. Whilst developing the commercial side of the business, William remained true to the family’s Quaker roots, investing in the community and looking after his workers, even building homes for them – many of which still surround the Clarks global headquarters in Street, Somerset (England).

The principle of supporting initiatives which enable communities to live healthy, fulfilling lives continues today. Our community investment strategy focuses primarily on children and young people, supporting them to learn, be healthy and realise their potential.

Clarks employees play an important role in our efforts. As well as supporting our corporate partnerships, employees globally also have the opportunity to propose local good causes to receive support, as well as to volunteer within the communities they serve.

Read about some of our corporate charity partners below.

OUR CHARITY PARTNERS

UNICEF is the world’s leading organisation for children, ensuring more children are fed, vaccinated, educated and protected than any other organisation. UNICEF works with families,
local communities, partners and governments in more than 190 countries to help every child realise their full potential.

In the UK, Clarks has worked with UNICEF since 2008, supporting the education of vulnerable children by raising money through ShoeShare, our shoe donation initiative which provides education to vulnerable children as well as diverting shoes away from landfill. Enjoy a short video about the initiative here.

In addition to ShoeShare, Clarks supports UNICEF’s Rights Respecting Schools Award, putting children’s rights at the heart of schools across the UK. Using the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) as a guide, UNICEF works with almost 5000 UK schools to put the UNCRC into practice within the school environment. Read more about the Award here.

Another organisation Clarks has a longstanding relationship with is Miraclefeet, a global charity making a difference to the lives of children born with clubfoot. Clubfoot affects one out of every 800 children born worldwide. However, 80% of children born with clubfoot in low resource countries have limited or no access to treatment – treatment that is straightforward and can prevent the hurdles and stigmatisation that arise when the condition is left untreated.

Through our partnership, Miraclefeet has been able to responsibly grow its capacity and expand to over 130 clinics across 25 low resource countries, enabling over 30000 children to enrol in treatment in Miraclefeet-supported clinics. As well as the provision of important funds, Clarks has used its shoe design expertise to work alongside the charity, Stanford University and Suncast to create a more affordable and comfortable treatment brace which has enabled Miraclefeet to innovate the whole treatment process.

In 2019, our European region, entered an exciting new partnership with the National Literacy Trust to sponsor their Skills Academy Programme. The National Literacy Trust is an independent charity dedicated to raising literacy levels in the UK. They run projects in the poorest communities, campaign to make literacy a priority for politicians and parents, and support schools.

Their Skills Academy programme works with children at the critical age of 10 years and above, incentivising them to learn by teaching them alternative sports and activities in a group setting and through classroom activity. Read more about the programme here.

Across Clarks Americas, a spirit of community is a driving force in our work as community volunteers, non-profit donors and scholarship grantors. It is what makes Clarks such a special place to work! Our aim is to support charitable causes that have the greatest benefit for people and communities, especially those that enable people to live healthy and fulfilling lives.

Organizations we support include Limbs for Life, a non-profit dedicated to providing fully functional prosthetic care for individuals who cannot afford it; Triangle, a non-profit that helps
people with disabilities lead more independent lives; Two Ten Footwear Foundation, a charitable foundation offering financial assistance, counseling, community resources and scholarships to those working in the footwear industry; Halton Women’s Place, whose mission is to end violence against women and their children; and such immensely impactful organizations as the YMCA in Waltham, Massachusetts and Hanover, Pennsylvania and the Waltham Boys & Girls Club.

Our Clarks Companies Foundation is a 501(c)(3) that provides scholarships for children in the community facing a significant need and for children of our employees as they pursue their educational goals.

In addition to our strategic corporate partnerships and projects, we support a range of organisations around the world through cash giving, volunteering, pro-bono and product support. Below are just some of the organisations we are proud to have supported in recent years.

- Centrepoint
- Dorset and Somerset Air Ambulance
- Family Nurturing Centre
- Footwear Friends
- For the Love of a Veteran
- Macmillan Cancer Support
- Marie Curie
- National Autistic Society
- National Animal Welfare Trust
- Sal’s Shoes
- Shelter
- Surfers Against Sewage
- St Margaret’s Hospice
- The Worshipful Company of Patternmakers
- The Royal British Legion
- Toys for Tots
- Trussell Trust
- WaterAid

For further information on any aspect of our Corporate Responsibility programme, please contact: csr@clarks.com.
MOVING FORWARD WITH OUR SUPPLIERS

The Clarks group of companies attaches real importance to the welfare not only of our own employees but also those employed by our suppliers. While we undertake most of the design and development of our products ourselves, we outsource the manufacturing of all our products. We believe it is our responsibility to know and understand the welfare and working conditions of those who make Clarks shoes. We do this by auditing and assessing our supplier factories against the working condition standards set out in Clarks Code of Practice.

In 2018 the audit programme covered over 99% of our first tier footwear production, i.e. the factories that produce the finished product. We also undertake audits of second tier material and component suppliers. These audits currently cover tanneries and sole suppliers that supply at least 90% of the volume of these materials from Clarks nominated suppliers as well as some other component and material suppliers.

The information gathered through these audits informs our sourcing decisions and helps us work with our suppliers to ensure the high standards we expect in our products are reflected in the working environments in which they are made.

SUPPLIERS

We believe in building long term relationships which offer the most benefit for the Clarks business and the people who make our shoes. Over 80% of our production comes from suppliers we have worked with for more than 5 years and some of them for much longer. In 2018 approximately 80% of our footwear products were ordered directly from our suppliers with the remainder sourced through specialist agents. While we do sell some handbags and accessories these are a small part of our total business. In most factories the facilities are shared with production for other brands and customers. The information below is for our footwear production in 2018.

Most of the production takes place in Asia with a small percentage of production from Europe.
To meet Clarks commitment to increased transparency a list of suppliers used in the production of the majority of Clarks products during 2018 can be found here. If you would like the information provided in an alternative format please contact csr@clarks.com.

The list includes Clarks direct managed footwear suppliers who produce approximately 80% of Clarks branded footwear as well as the majority of footwear and non-footwear suppliers used through agents and licensees.

Clarks is proud to support the Open Apparel Registry and have uploaded this supplier information to their site. Further information on the Open Apparel Registry is available on their website.

While most of these suppliers will continue to be used during 2019 it should not be taken as a current list of all suppliers.

STANDARDS
At Clarks we expect everyone engaged in the production of our products to be treated fairly, with dignity and respect and for their work to be undertaken in conditions which are safe and not detrimental to their health.

The working condition standards we expect our suppliers to follow are set out in our Code of Practice. These standards apply to all those engaged in the production of Clarks products. Our Code of Practice requires compliance with all local legal and regulatory requirements and the
core labour principles of the United Nations International Labour Organization (ILO) conventions.

We support the right to freedom of association and for collective bargaining in the negotiation of wages and encourage governments and employers to set wages that are appropriate for the needs of workers and for the economic conditions in each country. Wages must be set at a level that meets both the immediate basic needs of workers and ensure the long term security of employment for those concerned. Clarks is committed to ensuring that our suppliers pay workers at least the legally required minimum wage.

We require suppliers to sign a copy of our Code of Practice to acknowledge they have read, understood and will comply with it. Compliance with our Code of Practice forms part of our template trading terms and conditions for the purchase of goods.

A copy of Clarks Code of Practice is available here Supporting Improvement.

In an instance of non-compliance with the expected standards we aim to work with the supplier to develop an Improvement Action Plan (IAP) that seeks to address root causes and provide for sustained improvement. We believe that long term relationships offer the most benefit for the Clarks business and the people who make our shoes. We do not just walk away from a supplier without first assessing what and how improvements could be made. However, in instances of continuous non-compliance and no evidence or willingness to adhere to an Improvement Action Plan, termination of the relationship remains the final sanction.

We have consulted UNICEF UK with regards to our remediation plan for any cases of child labour, as defined in our Code of Practice that are identified in any of our suppliers. A copy of the plan can be found here.

UNDERSTAND

In common with other brands, audits are conducted either by our in house specialist supplier audit team or by a third party audit service provider. Clarks in house specialists focus on our primary sourcing countries which enables the team to develop a much stronger relationship with the factory to support an ongoing improvement process. In countries where we do not have our own resources we utilise a third party audit service provider whilst maintaining our engagement with the supplier by the supplier audit team.

Audits are normally conducted at any potential new supplier prior to the placement of an order for production. For existing suppliers, we use a tiered approach to the frequency of audits based on their previous audit results and management capability. Audits can be undertaken as either unannounced, semi-announced or announced depending on the location, type of relationship with the supplier and prior audit performance.
The audit process includes a review of all relevant documentation, interviews with management & workers and an inspection of all areas of the factory site.

Audit Activity during 2018
In total 250 social audits were conducted during 2018 across Clarks supply base. Of these 210 were undertaken in China, India and Vietnam by our own internal audit team and an additional 40 audits were undertaken by 3rd party audit service providers.
In addition to the social audits conducted 53 security audits were undertaken at finished goods suppliers in support of customs requirements.

IMPROVE
Undertaking audits does not in itself change or improve the working conditions in our suppliers. It is the starting point in an ongoing process of improvement. What makes the difference is how the information gained through the audit is used to address the issues identified and make a positive change for the benefit of those working in each factory. We do this in a number of ways.
For any issues that are identified through the audit we require the supplier to complete an improvement action plan which identifies the root cause of the issue, what action will be taken to address it, who is responsible and when it will be completed. We use this information in subsequent follow ups to verify that appropriate action has been taken to ensure sustainable improvement is made.
We provide training inputs to our suppliers, both formal and informal delivered either by ourselves or through working with other partners and providers including supporting attendance at publicly available events. These have covered topics such as children's rights, transparency, wages and benefits and health & safety including fire safety, chemical management and exposure control.

COLLABORATE
At Clarks we believe strongly in working collaboratively with others to effect change and bring about improvements within the footwear supply chain. For example, we have worked with the teams from other brands to undertake joint auditing of shared suppliers which allows the factory to make better use of their resources towards corrective actions and improvements.
Following Clarks membership of the Global Social Compliance Programme (GSCP) operated by the Consumer Goods Forum (CGF), we have maintained our engagement with this work now that it has been incorporated into the Social Sustainability work stream of the CGF through
becoming members of the CGF. As a global cross-industry network the CGF Social Sustainability Committee aims to drive harmonisation, convergence and best-practice sharing for a better and more sustainable supply chains. More information about the CGF can be found on their website.

In 2016 Clarks became a member of the Mekong Club which is a membership-based organisation that works with companies to help them take steps to eradicate slavery from their business through industry-specific working groups. Clarks is proud to be one of the first brands to commit to the Mekong Club Business Pledge against Modern Slavery. Further information on the Mekong Club and the Business Pledge are available on their website.

In 2018 Clarks became a member of the Slave Free Alliance to further support our work to prevent and mitigate the risk of forced labour in our suppliers Further information on the Slave Free Alliance can be found on their website.

COMMUNITY

Clarks has a long history of supporting the communities in which we work. Today that extends to the communities in which our suppliers are located.

Since 2016 Clarks has supported a key supplier in India to provide mammogram and pap smear cancer screening services not otherwise available at their facilities for relevant employees. This has been undertaken by the Penn Nalam Hospital which operates a fully equipped mobile unit. Support has been given to any employees needing further tests or treatment as a result of the screening. Further information on the work undertaken by the Penn Nalam Hospital can be found on their website.

During 2018 Clarks has worked with Better Factories Cambodia and a number of other brands to support a pilot programme in Cambodia to provide training and improve road safety for factory workers.

TRUSTS ASSOCIATED WITH C&J CLARK Ltd

The principal purpose of the Trusts is to benefit current and past employees, their families and the communities in which they live. They were established by the Company but are now funded independently.

The Clark Foundation makes capital grants for the benefit of communities in the areas of education, health, community resources and recreation. This has included support for projects undertaken through some of our suppliers for the benefit of the communities in which they are located and operate. These have included provision of educational facilities in China, and an ambulance and water purification system to serve communities in India and Vietnam.
For further information on any aspect of our Corporate Responsibility programme, please contact: csr@clarks.com.

TAX STRATEGY STATEMENT

We manage our tax affairs in a balanced and effective manner, which ensures compliance with all fiscal obligations and consistency with international best practice guidelines. We seek to achieve this by pursuing the tax objectives described below which are aligned to the wider business strategy and underpinned by our core values of treating customers, partners, suppliers and each other with honesty, integrity and respect.

We operate effective business relationships, allowing the provision of real time commercial advice on tax for all relevant transactions and activities (Business partnering). In support of the group’s key focus on business relationships, the Clarks tax team works closely alongside finance and the wider business. Our key value of maintaining integrity and quality is supported by frequent contact between the teams, which ensures that the tax team maintains a deep understanding of the group’s activities. This also means the tax team can provide accurate and real-time advice on the tax implications of any business decisions. We provide training and development opportunities for our employees to ensure they are appropriately trained in their roles and able to provide the best advice to the wider business.

We ensure integrity and honesty is at the heart of our operations by implementing effective tax governance, with a view to continuous improvement in our approach to managing tax risk and opportunity (Our tax risk and how we manage it). Clarks has a low appetite for risk and as such, we conduct detailed tax risk assessments on any business proposals which are being considered. These are presented to the Chief Financial Officer for review. In support of our goal of operating with integrity and honesty, we operate an effective tax control framework that ensures we have the right control environment, as well as appropriate activities to identify and manage tax risks. We maintain appropriate and documented transfer pricing policies and ensure these are followed consistently, allowing us to meet our responsibility to pay tax where profits arise.

We undertake to review our tax governance on a regular basis to ensure key controls are both designed and operating effectively and to assess whether improvements can be made. Having an effective tax governance framework which is under constant review and improvement is also key to supporting our annual Senior Accounting Officer (SAO) sign off in the UK.

We put the consumer at the heart of what we do, managing costs by being tax efficient and considering government sponsored tax incentives, but we will not engage in aggressive tax planning which goes against our social responsibilities (Attitude to tax planning). We will adhere to tax regulations and will not consider tax planning which is aggressive or which is
based on non-commercial activity. Our directors have a fiduciary duty to avoid unnecessary tax costs but any mitigation of tax cost will always be within the letter and spirit of the law. By acting in this way, we are able to ensure that we are behaving responsibly towards the communities in which we and our suppliers operate and are living up to the expectations of our consumers. We will consider tax incentives which are available for tax payers to use and will adopt these only where they are relevant to the business and are operated within the spirit that they were intended. A detailed risk assessment will be undertaken if there are any doubts as to the correct application of tax law, and where appropriate expert advisors or the relevant tax authority will be consulted.

We work in a professional, honest and open way with tax authorities, promoting transparency to avoid unnecessary disputes (Working with HMRC). We are open and transparent with tax authorities about the group’s tax affairs and work collaboratively to achieve early agreement on disputed issues. This ensures we achieve certainty on a real-time basis and avoids costly disputes. By operating in an open and honest way with tax authorities, demonstrating our robust approach to managing tax, we strive to ensure that a low risk status is maintained in the eyes of the tax authorities. We operate with integrity in our compliance and reporting by understanding our business and ensuring a high standard of work from our people. To ensure compliance is handled correctly, we use professional advisors where there is insufficient local knowledge.

Our published UK tax strategy has been prepared to satisfy our commercial objectives and comply with UK legislation as set out in the Finance Act 2016.

BECOME A CLARK FRANCHISEE
From our shoemakers' craft to our pioneering construction techniques and technologies. From each of our hand-carved wooden lasts and the 1,000,000 data points it generates to a design code that is uniquely ours. Putting everything we know into every pair of shoes we make helps us sell over 105 pairs of Clarks shoes every 60 seconds. And central to our success are our franchisees.

HELP EVERYBODY WEAR GOOD SHOES
We believe everybody should wear good shoes. And, in all four corners of the globe, we're looking for franchisees who believe that too.

MAKE OUR SUCCESS YOURS
If you share our vision as well as our passion, we'll support your ambition and business objectives. With a programme tailor-made to answer your every need - from store location, design and fitting to staff training and trading plans - we'll be with you. Every step of the way.

REGISTER YOUR INTEREST
Stockholm represents home to me, especially this neighborhood we are in, Södermalm, which is where I grew up. It’s coming home. The Clarkdale Gobi…, naturally I had to get a pair. And I remember that they were too clean when I got them, so I asked my dad to run over them with his car, back and forth, a bunch of times, so that they look old and worn.

That beautiful yellow building is where I did my first play and during animations and between the shows I came out and walked up and down this bridge to get some fresh air. It was basically my second home for eight months.

I was sitting on Monteliusvagen, it’s a very popular mountain for sunsets and boozing if you are a teenager it’s a good spot to sneak out with your friends away from your parents. I have some fun memories from this mountain when I was a teenager, like when I kissed a girl. Comfort is coming home.
Appendix 2: Subtitles of the video

0:00:05.419,0:00:08.749
Stoccolma è la mia casa,

0:00:09.011,0:00:12.281
soprattutto questo quartiere, Sodermalm,

0:00:12.403,0:00:15.123
dove sono cresciuto. È tornare a casa.

0:00:23.490,0:00:24.250
Le Clarkdale Gobi....

0:00:26.794,0:00:28.388
naturalmente ne avevo un paio.

0:00:28.388,0:00:31.108
E mi ricordo che quando le comprai
erano troppo nuove,

0:00:31.680,0:00:34.550
cosi chiesi a mi padre di passarci sopra
con la macchina,

0:00:34.550,0:00:36.590
avanti e indietro, più volte,

0:00:36.590,0:00:39.296
in modo che sembrassero usate e vissute.

0:00:52.179,0:00:57.309
Quel bel edificio giallo è dove ho recitato
per la prima volta

0:00:58.097,0:01:00.137
e durante gli intervalli,
e tra uno spettacolo e l'altro

27 Downloaded from the subtitling online program www.amara.org.
uscivo, e cammina avanti e indietro
su questo ponte

per respirare un po' d'aria fresca.

È stata praticamente la mia casa
per otto mesi.

Ero seduto sul Monteliusvagen,
è una montagna molto conosciuta

per i tramonti e per bere
se sei un adolescente

è un ottimo posto per trovarsi con gli amici

e scappare lontano dai genitori.

Ho dei bei ricordi legati a questo posto,

per esempio qui baciai una ragazza
che mi piaceva molto.

Comfort è tornare a casa.
Riassunto

A partire dagli anni ‘70 del secolo scorso, il nuovo paradigma della globalizzazione ha cambiato profondamente la società e l’economia globale. Si tratta infatti di un fenomeno che permette alle aziende di vendere i loro prodotti in tutto il mondo grazie alle nuove tecnologie. Un ruolo importante è svolto da internet, che permette comunicazioni in tempo reale in tutto il mondo e che permette alle aziende di farsi conoscere e vendere i propri prodotti a livello mondiale (Vengadasamy et al. 2004). Inizialmente, i contenuti del web erano disponibili solo in inglese, ma con il tempo le grandi aziende americane iniziarono ad orientarsi verso il mercato internazionale e da qui nacque l’esigenza di adattare i contenuti online per dei consumatori con una lingua ed una cultura diversa. Proprio da questa esigenza di tipo economica nasce la localizzazione, ovvero il processo di adattare i contenuti presenti online, dal punto di vista linguistico e culturale, per diversi locali, cioè per diverse comunità sociolinguistiche (Jiménez-Crespo 2013).

Inizialmente, il processo di localizzazione era considerato come la fase finale del più ampio processo di sviluppo di un software o di un sito web, ma dalla seconda metà degli anni ‘90 si iniziò a riconoscere il ruolo fondamentale che la localizzazione svolgeva sin dalla prima fase di progettazione e, per questo, divenne parte integrante del ciclo GILT, in cui le fasi di globalizzazione, internazionalizzazione, localizzazione e traduzione sono strettamente legate tra loro (Jiménez-Crespo 2013). Dunque, il processo di localizzazione non è solo la traduzione di un testo online da una lingua ad un’altra, ma si tratta di un vero e proprio processo di adattamento che coinvolge diverse figure professionali, tra i quali ingegneri informatici, project manager, specialisti della localizzazione, traduttori e terminologi.

Nel processo di localizzazione, è importante considerare gli utenti di arrivo e le loro conoscenze culturali e quindi adattare tutti gli elementi di tipo culturale presenti nel testo di partenza, come il formato della data e dell’ora, le unità di misura, e altre convenzioni che variano in base al paese, ma anche gli esempi e i colori (Gibb and Matthaiakis 2007). Anche l’aspetto di tipo grafico e le immagini necessitano di essere adattate affinché il messaggio sia chiaro per il suo destinatario. Infatti, anche se l’idea di
‘tradurre’ un’immagine non sia sempre presa in considerazione poiché nell’immaginario comune essa non impedisce la comprensione, è necessario adattare le immagini e modificare la strategia comunicativa di marketing per far in modo che il messaggio sia capito dal destinatario e affinché l’effetto sia quello desiderato. Il paradosso proposto da Roland Barthes aiuta a comprendere l’importanza di ‘tradurre’ le immagini. Egli sostiene che le immagini dovrebbero semplicemente riflettere la realtà che rappresentano e quindi non dovrebbero contenere dei messaggi vincolati alla cultura, ma invece le immagini hanno due tipi di messaggio: il primo è basato sulla percezione e quindi non veicola messaggi ma rappresenta solo la realtà, mentre il secondo è basato sulla cultura e trasporta messaggi che hanno significati stabiliti a priori dalla cultura. Di conseguenza, in un progetto di localizzazione, si devono considerare le differenze culturali e, se necessario, modificare le immagini che veicolano messaggi legati alla cultura di un determinato paese.

Per quanto riguarda la vera e propria traduzione del testo, che può essere considerata una parte del più grande processo di localizzazione, è necessario considerare i problemi legati alla traduzione, che possono essere dovuti da differenze di tipo linguistico e culturale o dipendere dalla strategia utilizzata dal traduttore (Arffman 2007). Per risolvere i problemi di tipo linguistico e culturale, Garcia (2013) propone quattro strategie principali:

- ‘Foreignization’ è la modalità di traduzione che si propone di essere il più fedele possibile al testo di partenza per preservare il prestigio che viene attribuito alla lingua e cultura di partenza.
- La traduzione letterale è un tipo di traduzione che mantiene un alto livello di similarità tra il testo di partenza e quello di arrivo per quanto riguarda la struttura, la lunghezza e il contenuto della frase e del testo.
- L’adattamento si occupa di tradurre un testo tenendo in considerazione i lettori di arrivo e la loro cultura, quindi elimina o sostituisce tutti i riferimenti culturali che non potrebbero essere capiti dal destinatario finale.
- ‘Creation’ è la modalità di traduzione che prevede la creazione di un nuovo testo, che mantiene un legame di equivalenza con il testo di partenza solo in termini di effetto pragmatico.

Tuttavia, oltre alle principali macro-strategie che possono essere applicate ad un testo, Garcia (2013) elenca anche numerose strategie che invece sono utili per affrontare a livello individuale ogni problema di traduzione. Le principali sono le seguenti:

- ‘Amplification’ è utilizzata quando la traduzione utilizza un numero maggiore di parole rispetto al testo di partenza.
- ‘Explicitation’ è utilizzata quando un elemento implicito del testo di partenza è reso esplicito nel testo di arrivo.
- ‘Omission’ è una strategia che prevede l’omissione di un elemento presente nel testo di partenza viene dal testo di arrivo.
- ‘Modulation’ è una strategia utilizzata quando il traduttore vuole segnalare un cambio di attitudine nel testo di arrivo rispetto a quello utilizzato nell’originale.
- ‘Equivalence’ fa riferimento a tutti i casi in cui un’espressione presente nel testo di arrivo viene sostituita con un’altra nel testo di partenza che ha lo stesso effetto, ma che ha una forma o un significato diverso.
• ‘Compensation’ è la strategia che prevede che un elemento del testo di partenza venga inserito in un posto diverso rispetto a dove si trova nel testo di partenza.

Inoltre, Xiaojuan (2010) propone altre strategie che possono essere utilizzate nel caso specifico della localizzazione di siti web, in cui i limiti di spazio possono avere delle implicazioni importanti per la traduzione stessa. Egli elenca quattro strategie fondamentali:

• ‘Explanation’ è l’aggiunta di informazioni per gli utenti di arrivo tra parentesi o come nota a piè di pagina.
• ‘Deletion’ è l’omissione di alcune informazioni che non vengono tradotte nel testo di arrivo.
• ‘Restructuring’ è la strategia utilizzata quando il traduttore cambia la struttura del testo di partenza per rispettare le convenzioni utilizzate dalla lingua di arrivo.
• ‘Headings strategy’ sono tutte le strategie specifiche che vengono utilizzate quando si tratta di tradurre un titolo, che deve essere breve e conciso, ma che deve anche catturare l’attenzione del lettore.

Queste strategie verranno utilizzate nel terzo capitolo per analizzare il processo di traduzione. Infatti, lo scopo di questa tesi è di localizzare il sito internazionale di Clarks per i consumatori italiani, che invece è disponibile online solo in inglese. In particolare, ritengo che sia necessario adattare i contenuti linguistici e culturali del sito web in modo da migliorare la percezione del sito, migliorare l’usabilità del sito stesso ed aumentare le vendite. Nonostante l’inglese sia oramai riconosciuto come lingua franca per le comunicazioni internazionali, numerosi studi hanno dimostrato che i consumatori mostrano una migliore propensione all’acquisto se il sito web è nella loro lingua madre e se contiene dei ‘cultural markers’ ovvero degli elementi che si trovano generalmente nei siti web locali. Numerosi studiosi (Sun 2001, Barber and Badre 2001, Singh et al. 2005, Pym 2012, de Mooij 2019) concordano che i fattori per il successo di un sito web non sono universali, ma dipendono dalla cultura e quindi, nel processo di localizzazione, non basta un’ottima traduzione per garantire una migliore usabilità del sito web, ma è anche necessario considerare gli aspetti culturali relativi ad un determinato paese (Nantel and Glaser 2008).
Per classificare le culture nazionali, uno dei modelli più utilizzati è la teoria delle dimensioni culturali di Geert Hofstede (2005), che suggerisce le cinque seguenti dimensioni per comprendere le diversità culturali di ogni paese: individualismo contro collettivismo, distanza dal potere, mascolinità contro femminilità, rifiuto dell’incertezza, orientamento a lungo termine contro orientamento a breve termine. Inoltre, spesso a queste cinque dimensioni viene aggiunta un’altra dimensione proposta da Hall (1976), che differenzia le culture ad alto contesto e quelle a basso contesto.

La dimensione di individualismo contro collettivismo si occupa di analizzare le relazioni tra individui e le relazioni con la società in generale. Nelle culture individualistiche, i rapporti tra persone non sono stretti e la libertà individuale è considerata molto importante, mentre nelle culture collettiviste i legami tra individui sono stretti e gli individui sono inseriti in gruppi coesi e forti sin dalla nascita. Questo comporta delle implicazioni per i siti web, per esempio, le culture collettiviste preferiscono siti web che offrono servizi di chat rooms e newsletters, che contengono immagini raffiguranti famiglie e simboli legati all’identità nazionale (Singh and Matsuo 2004).

Per quanto riguarda la dimensione di rifiuto dell’incertezza, Hofstede suggerisce che i paesi che mostrano un debole rifiuto per l’incertezza sopportano meglio situazioni nuove e rischiose, mentre i paesi con un forte rifiuto per l’incertezza non amano situazioni di rischio e sono più legati alla tradizione. Di conseguenza, quest’ultimi preferiscono siti web che offrono ottimi servizi di assistenza al cliente, una navigazione guidata con mappe e menu che mostrano la struttura del sito, e che contengono una terminologia locale (Singh and Matsuo 2004: 866).

La distanza al potere invece è il modo in cui i membri più deboli della società si rapportano al potere e alle sue istituzioni. I paesi con un alto indice di distanza dal potere accettano più facilmente un ordine gerarchico stabile, l’ingiustizia e l’ineguaglianza, mentre i paesi con un basso indice di distanza dal potere hanno uno spirito ugualelitario e sostengono la parità di diritti. I siti web dei paesi con un alto indice di distanza dal potere spesso contengono informazioni sulla struttura gerarchica dell’azienda, informazioni sul personale e sui manager.
La dimensione di mascolinità contro quella di femminilità fa riferimento all’atteggiamento degli individui. I principi fondamentali delle società maschilene sono il successo, l’ambizione e l’individualismo, mentre nelle società femminili maggiore importanza viene attribuita alla modestia e alla qualità della vita. Di conseguenza, nei siti delle culture maschilene si trovano con maggiore frequenza quiz e giochi, mentre nei siti delle culture femminili ci sono più informazioni riguardo al prodotto e alla sua efficacia (Singh and Matsuo 2004).

Infine, l’orientamento a lungo o breve termine si occupa di comprendere il rapporto della società con il passato e di come gli individui affrontino le sfide per il futuro. In particolare, nelle società orientata al lungo termine, i valori fondamentali sono la perseveranza e il risparmio, mentre nelle società orientate al breve termine, la tradizione e gli obblighi sociali sono elementi essenziali. Le implicazioni di questa dimensione per i siti web di vendita al dettaglio riguardano le modalità di pagamento che devono essere presenti in un sito web, le promozioni e gli sconti, e le modalità di fidelizzazione del cliente.

Per quanto riguarda la dimensione proposta da Hall, le culture ad alto contesto prediligono una comunicazione implicita e complessa, mentre le culture a basso contesto sono caratterizzate da un linguaggio più diretto ed esplicito. Di conseguenza, queste caratteristiche comunicative sono utilizzate anche nei siti web dei relativi paesi.

Nonostante il modello proposto da Hofstede sia spesso utilizzato in molte ricerche per misurare il grado di usabilità di un sito web e per comprendere le implicazioni nelle vendite (de Mooij and Hofstede 2002, Singh and Matsuo 2004, Singh et al. 2005, Nantel and Glaser 2008), esistono almeno altri due modelli che sono state teorizzati e che possono essere utilizzati per lo stesso scopo. Il primo è il modello suggerito da Schwartz nel 1999 e che contiene sette dimensioni culturali, mentre il secondo fa parte di un programma di ricerca relativo alla cultura e al rapporto con il potere identificato con la sigla GLOBE (Global Leardship and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness). Tuttavia, le novità introdotte da questi due modelli sono limitati se paragonati al modello delle dimensioni culturali di Hofstede, le cui dimensioni verranno utilizzate per analizzare le differenze tra il sito web inglese di Clarks e la versione localizzata per i
consumatori italiani, tenendo in considerazione le preferenze dei consumatori e le convenzioni utilizzate in altri siti web italiani.

La seguente tesi si occuperà quindi della localizzazione del sito di Clarks, che appartiene ad un settore produttivo specifico, quello della calzatura. Questo settore è stato scelto proprio per le sue caratteristiche peculiari. Infatti, si tratta di un’industria multimiliardaria che nel 2017 ha raggiunto un valore di 246 miliardi di dollari e che secondo le previsioni continuerà a crescere e raggiungerà un valore di oltre 320 miliardi di dollari nel 2023. In particolare, l’Italia occupa una posizione importante nella produzione di calzature: è la più grande produttrice a livello europeo e si colloca al terzo posto a livello mondiale dopo Cina e Vietnam. Inoltre, per quanto riguarda la produzione di calzature in pelle occupa la seconda posizione a livello mondiale (Statista).

Il settore calzaturiero italiano ha delle caratteristiche peculiari che lo rendono vincente. Nel 2018, erano attive circa 4.500 aziende per un totale di 75.700 dipendenti, e questo significa che la maggior parte delle aziende sono a conduzione familiare e contano meno di 20 impiegati. Ciò permette alle aziende di concentrarsi sulla qualità dei materiali e del prodotto finito, di rispettare le regole per la salvaguardia dell’ambiente e quindi di competere con i grandi produttori di scarpe come la Cina e il Vietnam. Si pensi, per esempio, all’importanza dell’etichetta “Made in Italy” che garantisce un premium price considerevole alle calzature prodotte nel paese poiché associate ad altissimi livelli di qualità.

Il seguente studio si concentra su Clarks, un’azienda di calzature inglese molto famosa, che è stata fondata nel 1825 da due fratelli a Somerset, in Inghilterra, e che è riuscita a diventare una grande azienda multinazionale che produce ogni anno più di 50 milioni di paia di scarpe e che ha un fatturato di 1,4 miliardi di sterline. L’obiettivo è quello di localizzare il sito web per i consumatori italiani e la strategia della localizzazione sarà particolarmente utile in quanto in Italia la concorrenza è molto alta e anche perché l’etichetta “Made in Italy” è molto apprezzata. Inoltre, numerosi studi (Sun 2001, de Mooij and Hofstede 2002, Singh and Matsuo 2004, Spring et al. 2004, Nantel and Glaser 2008) hanno dimostrato che la localizzazione si rivela una strategia vincente per le aziende che vogliono raggiungere un maggior numero di consumatori internazionali,
in quanto gli utenti preferiscono i siti locali o localizzati rispetto a siti standardizzati in inglese.

In particolare, nel terzo capitolo sono state analizzate le diverse strategie utilizzate a livello linguistico. Come già suggerito, la miglior strategia per questo caso è l’adattamento poiché attribuisce un valore fondamentale alle differenze culturali e ‘adatta’ il testo di arrivo alle preferenze degli utenti italiani anche se in alcuni casi deve distaccarsi dal testo di partenza. Per quanto riguarda le micro strategie, le più utilizzate sono exploitation e equivalence, che sono state utilizzate soprattutto per risolvere problemi legati a differenze culturali, come l’ordine dei contenuti, il registro utilizzato e il bisogno di aggiungere o eliminare delle informazioni. Inoltre, altre strategie come omission e restructuring sono state spesso utilizzate per ridurre la lunghezza del testo di arrivo, che deve rispettare dei spazi all’interno dei sito web. Tuttavia, in molti casi, invece di ricorrere a particolari strategie traduttive, i siti web italiani del settore calzaturiero sono stati utilizzati come modello per far in modo che la versione localizzata del sito web inglese risultasse familiare agli utenti italiani. In particolare, i siti di Geox, Melluso e Tod’s sono stati spesso utilizzati in quanto occupano lo stesso segmento di mercato di Clarks, e i siti di Gucci e Armani sono stati utilizzati poiché, per occupando un segmento di mercato diverso, hanno contenuti molto simili a quelli del sito di Clarks, soprattutto per quanto riguarda la tutela dell’ambiente e dei dipendenti. Numerose immagini sono state aggiunte nel terzo capitolo per confrontare i siti italiani con il sito inglese di Clarks e per suggerire delle modifiche che potrebbero rendere la versione localizzata più efficace.

Il terzo capitolo si occupa di analizzare la struttura del sito web e le immagini utilizzate, dato che nel processo di localizzazione anche questi aspetti devono essere adattati alla cultura di arrivo. Per analizzare le caratteristiche del sito web originale e le modifiche necessarie nella versione localizzata, le dimensioni culturali di Hofstede sono state utilizzate e le maggiori differenze sono state riscontrate per le dimensioni relative al rifiuto dell’incertezza, all’individualismo contro collettivismo e al livello di contestualità. L’Italia infatti ha un alto indice di rifiuto dell’incertezza, mentre il Regno Unito tollera meglio il rischio e l’Italia è una cultura ad alto contesto mentre quella inglese è a basso contesto. Inoltre, nonostante entrambi i paesi siano individualistici, il
Regno Unito ha un livello di individualismo maggiore rispetto all’Italia e anche questa differenza ha riportato delle differenze nei siti web. Le principali differenze che sono state analizzate riguardano l’utilizzo di immagini, la presenza di una navigazione guidata, la comunicazione tra utente e azienda e i servizi di assistenza al cliente.

Infine, poiché il sito di Clarks conteneva un corto video di circa due minuti disponibile in inglese e senza sottotitoli, la tesi contiene anche la trascrizione del sito in inglese, la relativa traduzione e i sottotitoli creati seguendo le linee guida generali di questo tipo di traduzione. Prima di tutto, i sottotitoli generalmente non superano le due righe e sono posizionati nella parte inferiore delle schermo, ma essi possono essere spostati per esigenze specifiche. In secondo luogo, i sottotitoli devono comparire nello schermo quando una persona inizia a parlare e dovrebbero scomparire quando la stessa smette di parlare e in ogni caso non dovrebbero mai superare i 6 secondi nello schermo. Se questa regola non dovesse essere seguita, gli spettatori avrebbero la tentazione di leggere più volte lo stesso sottotitolo. Infine, i sottotitoli devono essere segmentati in modo da contenere strutture sintattiche coerenti e quando questo non è possibile, è necessario segnalarlo attraverso la punteggiatura (Díaz Cintas and Remael 2006). I sottotitoli sono disponibili nell’Appendix 2 della tesi e sono stati creati utilizzando un il programma online gratuito Amara.

In conclusione, questa tesi voleva dimostrare quanto i fattori di tipo culturale siano importanti nel processo di localizzazione, e più in generale nelle strategie di marketing delle aziende che desiderano esportare i loro prodotti o servizi in altri paesi. Questo studio spera di aver accresciuto la consapevolezza riguardo le differenze culturali e di incoraggiare ulteriori ricerche in questo ambito multidisciplinare che tocca il marketing, la linguistica, l’informatica e i Translation Studies.